Distributional Semantic Models

Part 2: The parameters of a DSM

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http://wordspace.collocations.de/doku.php/course:start

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Outline

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Building a DSM

Sparse matrices

Example: a verb-object DSM

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DSM parameters

General definition of DSMs

A distributional semantic model (DSM) is a scaled and/or transformed co-occurrence matrix \mathbf{M} , such that each row \mathbf{x} represents the distribution of a target term across contexts.

	get	see	use	hear	eat	kill
knife	0.027	-0.024	0.206	-0.022	-0.044	-0.042
cat	0.031	0.143	-0.243	-0.015	-0.009	0.131
dog	-0.026	0.021	-0.212	0.064	0.013	0.014
boat	-0.022	0.009	-0.044	-0.040	-0.074	-0.042
cup	-0.014	-0.173	-0.249	-0.099	-0.119	-0.042
pig	-0.069	0.094	-0.158	0.000	0.094	0.265
banana	0.047	-0.139	-0.104	-0.022	0.267	-0.042

Term = word, lemma, phrase, morpheme, word pair, . . .

DSM parame

General definition of DSMs

Mathematical notation:

- ▶ $k \times n$ co-occurrence matrix $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ (example: 7×6)
 - ► *k* rows = **target** terms
 - ► *n* columns = **features** or **dimensions**

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} & \cdots & m_{1n} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} & \cdots & m_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ m_{k1} & m_{k2} & \cdots & m_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ distribution vector $\mathbf{m}_i = i$ -th row of \mathbf{M} , e.g. $\mathbf{m}_3 = \mathbf{m}_{\mathsf{dog}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- components $\mathbf{m}_i = (m_{i1}, m_{i2}, \dots, m_{in}) = \text{features of } i\text{-th term:}$

$$\mathbf{m}_3 = (-0.026, 0.021, -0.212, 0.064, 0.013, 0.014)$$

= $(m_{31}, m_{32}, m_{33}, m_{34}, m_{35}, m_{36})$

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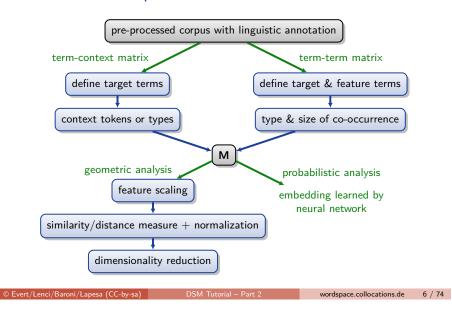
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Example: a verb-object DSM

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Overview of DSM parameters



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Term-context matrix

Term-context matrix records frequency of term in each individual context (e.g. sentence, document, Web page, encyclopaedia article)

$$\mathbf{F} = egin{bmatrix} \cdots & \mathbf{f}_1 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{f}_2 & \cdots \\ & dots \\ & dots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{f}_k & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$$

	Ž	<u>ን</u>	>	*		,o~	. 4
	Felig.	Q ^E	1/6/0	81024	δ, jin	Ton	8
cat dog animal	10	10	7	-	_	_	_
dog	_	10	4	11	_	-	-
animal	2	15	10	2	_		-
time	1	_	_	_	2	1	-
reason	_	1	_	_	1	4	1
cause	_	_	_	2	1	2	6
effect	_	_	_	1	-	1	-

- > TC <- DSM_TermContext
- > head(TC, Inf) # extract full co-oc matrix from DSM object

Term-term matrix

Term-term matrix records co-occurrence frequencies with feature terms for each target term

$$\mathbf{M} = egin{bmatrix} \cdots & \mathbf{m}_1 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{m}_2 & \cdots \\ & dots \\ & dots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{m}_k & \cdots \end{bmatrix} \qquad egin{bmatrix} ext{ani} \\ ext{tree} \\ ext{ca} \\ ext{ca} \\ ext{eff} \end{cases}$$

	beed by the search of the sear	. //e _t	, 660	, kill	ins	explaint explains	like,
cat	83	17	7	37	_	1	_
dog	561	13	30	60	1	2	4
animal	42	10	109	134	13	5	5
time	19	9	29	117	81	34	109
reason	1	-	2	14	68	140	47
cause	-	1	_	4	55	34	55
effect	_	-	1	6	60	35	17

- > TT <- DSM TermTerm
- > head(TT, Inf)

Term-term matrix

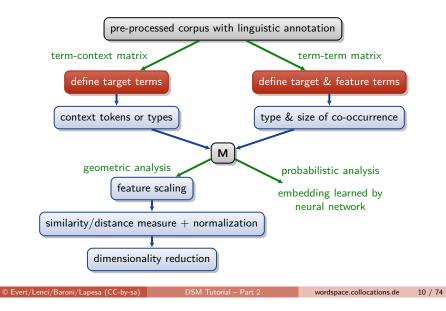
Some footnotes:

- \triangleright Often target terms \neq feature terms
 - e.g. nouns described by co-occurrences with verbs as features
 - ▶ identical sets of target & feature terms → symmetric matrix
- Different types of co-occurrence (Evert 2008)
 - surface context (word or character window)
 - textual context (non-overlapping segments)
 - syntactic context (dependency relation)
- ▶ Can be seen as smoothing of term-context matrix
 - average over similar contexts (with same context terms)
 - data sparseness reduced, except for small windows
 - we will take a closer look at the relation between term-context and term-term models in part 5 of this tutorial

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Overview of DSM parameters



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Definition of target and feature terms

- Choice of linguistic unit
 - words
 - ▶ bigrams, trigrams, . . .
 - multiword units, named entities, phrases, . . .
 - morphemes
 - word pairs (see analogy tasks)
- Linguistic annotation
 - word forms (minimally requires tokenisation)
 - often lemmatisation or stemming to reduce data sparseness: go, goes, went, gone, going → go
 - ▶ POS disambiguation (light/N vs. light/A vs. light/V)
 - word sense disambiguation (bank_{river} vs. bank_{finance})
 - ▶ abstraction: POS tags (or bigrams) as feature terms
- ► Trade-off between deeper linguistic analysis and
 - need for language-specific resources
 - possible errors introduced at each stage of the analysis

Effects of linguistic annotation

Nearest neighbours of walk (BNC)

wor	d forms
	stroll
	walking walked
	go path
	drive
	ride wander
	sprinted
•	sauntered

lemmatised + POS
► hurry
► stroll
► stride
► trudge
▶ amble
wander
► walk (noun)
▶ walking
► retrace
► scuttle
http://clic.cimec.unitn_it/infoman-g

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http://clic.cimec.unitn.it/infomap-query/

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☐A taxonomy of DSM parameters Effects of linguistic annotation

Effects of linguistic annotation						
Nearest neig	hbours of walk (BNC)					
word forms	lemmatised + POS					
troil valing value park park drive ride vander vander vander vander vander vander	hurry total totalge					
	http://tite.ciner.units.is/infamp					

- 1. All models built with Infomap NLP: 2-word window, 20k targets, 2k features, 300 latent dims
- 2. Lemmatised model uses BNC lemma annotation (with POS category)

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2017-03-12

- 1. Colours seem to indicate inflected forms belonging to the same lemma.
- 2. Based on La Repubblica SSLMiT corpus
- 3. Lemmatised model includes two-letter POS codes

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Effects of linguistic annotation

Nearest neighbours of arrivare (Repubblica)

word forms

- giungere
- raggiungere
- arrivi
- raggiungimento
- raggiunto
- trovare
- raggiunge
- arrivasse
- arriverà
- concludere

lemmatised + POS

- giungere
- aspettare
- attendere
- arrivo (noun)
- ricevere
- accontentare
- approdare
- pervenire
- venire
- piombare

http://clic.cimec.unitn.it/infomap-query/

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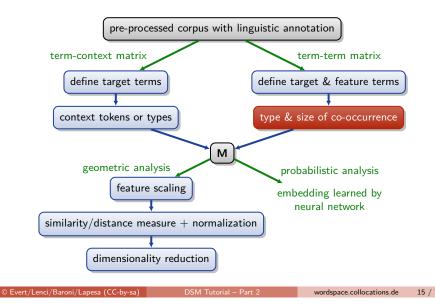
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Selection of target and feature terms

- ► Full-vocabulary models are often unmanageable
 - ▶ 762,424 distinct word forms in BNC, 605,910 lemmata
 - ▶ large Web corpora have > 10 million distinct word forms
 - ▶ low-frequency targets (and features) do not provide reliable distributional information (too much "noise")
- ► Frequency-based selection
 - minimum corpus frequency: $f > F_{min}$
 - ightharpoonup or accept n_w most frequent terms
 - ▶ sometimes also upper threshold: $F_{\min} \leq f \leq F_{\max}$
- ► Relevance-based selection
 - criterion from IR: document frequency df
 - ▶ terms with high df are too general → uninformative
 - terms with very low df may be too sparse to be useful
- ▶ Other criteria
 - ▶ POS-based filter: no function words, only verbs, ...

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Effect of span size

Nearest neighbours of dog (BNC)

2-word span ▶ cat horse pet rabbit pig animal mongrel sheep pigeon

30-word span kennel puppy ▶ pet bitch terrier rottweiler canine cat to bark Alsatian

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Surface context

Context term occurs within a span of k words around target.

The silhouette of the sun beyond a wide-open bay on the lake; the sun still glitters although evening has arrived in Kuhmo. It's midsummer; the living room has its instruments and other objects in each of its corners. [L3/R3 span, k=6]

Parameters:

- span size (in words or characters)
- symmetric vs. one-sided span
- uniform or "triangular" (distance-based) weighting
- spans clamped to sentences or other textual units?

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Textual context

Context term is in the same linguistic unit as target.

The silhouette of the sun beyond a wide-open bay on the lake; the sun still glitters although evening has arrived in Kuhmo. It's midsummer; the living room has its instruments and other objects in each of its corners.

Parameters:

- type of linguistic unit
 - sentence
 - paragraph
 - turn in a conversation
 - Web page

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Syntactic context

Context term is linked to target by a syntactic dependency (e.g. subject, modifier, ...).

The silhouette of the sun beyond a wide-open bay on the lake; the sun still glitters although evening has arrived in Kuhmo. It's midsummer; the living room has its instruments and other objects in each of its corners.

Parameters:

- types of syntactic dependency (Padó and Lapata 2007)
- direct vs. indirect dependency paths
 - direct dependencies
 - ▶ direct + indirect dependencies
- homogeneous data (e.g. only verb-object) vs. heterogeneous data (e.g. all children and parents of the verb)
- maximal length of dependency path

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Structured vs. unstructured context

- ▶ In unstructered models, context specification acts as a filter
 - determines whether context token counts as co-occurrence
 - e.g. muste be linked by any syntactic dependency relation
- ▶ In structured models, feature terms are subtyped
 - depending on their position in the context
 - e.g. left vs. right context, type of syntactic relation, etc.

"Knowledge pattern" context

Context term is linked to target by a lexico-syntactic pattern (text mining, cf. Hearst 1992, Pantel & Pennacchiotti 2008, etc.).

In Provence, Van Gogh painted with bright colors such as red and vellow. These colors produce incredible effects on anybody looking at his paintings.

Parameters:

- ▶ inventory of lexical patterns
 - ▶ lots of research to identify semantically interesting patterns (cf. Almuhareb & Poesio 2004, Veale & Hao 2008, etc.)
- ► fixed vs. flexible patterns
 - patterns are mined from large corpora and automatically generalised (optional elements, POS tags or semantic classes)

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Structured vs. unstructured surface context

A dog bites a man. The man's dog bites a dog. A dog bites a man.

unstructured bite dog 3 man

A dog bites a man. The man's dog bites a dog. A dog bites a man.

structured	bite-l	bite-
dog	3	1
man	1	2

Structured vs. unstructured dependency context

A dog bites a man. The man's dog bites a dog. A dog bites a man.

A dog bites a man. The man's dog bites a dog. A dog bites a man.

structured	bite-subj	bite-obj
dog	3	1
man	0	2

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Comparison

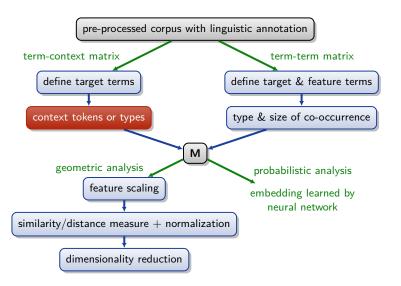
- Unstructured context
 - ▶ data less sparse (e.g. man kills and kills man both map to the *kill* dimension of the vector \mathbf{x}_{man})
- Structured context
 - more sensitive to semantic distinctions (kill-subj and kill-obj are rather different things!)
 - dependency relations provide a form of syntactic "typing" of the DSM dimensions (the "subject" dimensions, the "recipient" dimensions, etc.)
 - important to account for word-order and compositionality

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Context tokens vs. context types

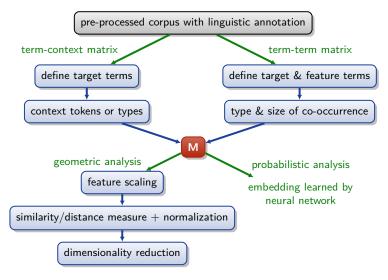
- ► Features are usually context **tokens**, i.e. individual instances
 - document, Wikipedia article, Web page, . . .
 - paragraph, sentence, tweet, . . .
 - "co-occurrence" count = frequency of term in context token
- ► Can also be generalised to context **types**, e.g.
 - ▶ type = cluster of near-duplicate documents
 - type = syntactic structure of sentence (ignoring content)
 - type = tweets from same author
 - frequency counts from all instances of type are aggregated
- ► Context types may be anchored at individual tokens
 - n-gram of words (or POS tags) around target
 - subcategorisation pattern of target verb
 - overlaps with (generalisation of) syntactic co-occurrence

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Obtaining marginal frequencies

- Term-document matrix
 - ightharpoonup R = frequency of target term in corpus
 - ► *C* = size of document (# tokens)
 - ightharpoonup N = corpus size
- Syntactic co-occurrence
 - # of dependency instances in which target/feature participates
 - \triangleright N = total number of dependency instances
 - ► can be computed from full co-occurrence matrix M
- Textual co-occurrence
 - ▶ R, C, O are "document" frequencies, i.e. number of context units in which target, feature or combination occurs
 - ► *N* = total # of context units

Marginal and expected frequencies

Matrix of observed co-occurrence frequencies not sufficient

target	feature	0	R	С	E
dog	small	855	33,338	490,580	134.34
dog	domesticated	29	33,338	918	0.25

- Notation
 - ▶ *O* = observed co-occurrence frequency
 - ightharpoonup R = overall frequency of target term = row marginal frequency
 - ightharpoonup C = overall frequency of feature = column marginal frequency
 - $N = \text{sample size} \approx \text{size of corpus}$
- Expected co-occurrence frequency

$$E = \frac{R \cdot C}{N} \longleftrightarrow O$$

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Obtaining marginal frequencies

- Surface co-occurrence
 - ▶ it is quite tricky to obtain fully consistent counts (Evert 2008)
 - \triangleright at least correct E for span size k (= number of tokens in span)

$$E = k \cdot \frac{R \cdot C}{N}$$

with R, C = individual corpus frequencies and N = corpus size

- ightharpoonup can also be implemented by pre-multiplying $R' = k \cdot R$
- alternatively, compute marginals and sample size by summing over full co-occurrence matrix ($\rightarrow E$ as above, but inflated N)
- ▶ NB: shifted PPMI (Levy and Goldberg 2014) corresponds to a post-hoc application of the span size adjustment
 - performs worse than PPMI, but paper suggests they already approximate correct E by summing over co-occurrence matrix

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Marginal frequencies in wordspace

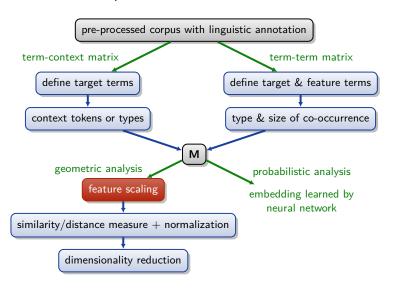
DSM objects in wordspace include marginal frequencies as well as counts of nonzero cells for rows and columns.

```
> TT$rows
    term
               f nnzero
     cat
          22007
          50807
     dog
          77053
3 animal
    time 1156693
           95047
  cause
          54739
7 effect 133102
> TT$cols
> TT$globals$N
[1] 199902178
> TT$M # the full co-occurrence matrix
```

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Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation

- ► Geometric interpretation
 - row vectors as points or arrows in *n*-dimensional space
 - very intuitive, good for visualisation
 - use techniques from geometry and matrix algebra
- ▶ Probabilistic interpretation
 - co-occurrence matrix as observed sample statistic that is "explained" by a generative probabilistic model
 - e.g. probabilistic LSA (Hoffmann 1999), Latent Semantic Clustering (Rooth et al. 1999), Latent Dirichlet Allocation (Blei et al. 2003), etc.
 - explicitly accounts for random variation of frequency counts
 - recent work: neural word embeddings
- focus on geometric interpretation in this tutorial

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Feature scaling

Feature scaling is used to "discount" less important features:

- ▶ Logarithmic scaling: $O' = \log(O + 1)$ (cf. Weber-Fechner law for human perception)
- ▶ Relevance weighting, e.g. tf.idf (information retrieval)

$$tf.idf = tf \cdot log(D/df)$$

- tf = co-occurrence frequency O
- ightharpoonup df = document frequency of feature (or nonzero count)
- ightharpoonup D =total number of documents (or row count of **M**)
- ▶ Statistical association measures (Evert 2004, 2008) take frequency of target term and feature into account
 - often based on comparison of observed and expected co-occurrence frequency
 - ▶ measures differ in how they balance O and E

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Simple association measures

pointwise Mutual Information (MI)

$$\mathsf{MI} = \mathsf{log}_2 \, \frac{O}{E}$$

► local MI

$$local-MI = O \cdot MI = O \cdot log_2 \frac{O}{F}$$

t-score

$$t = \frac{O - E}{\sqrt{O}}$$

target	feature	0	Ε	MI	local-MI	t-score
dog	small	855	134.34	2.67	2282.88	24.64
dog	domesticated	29	0.25	6.85	198.76	5.34
dog	sgjkj	1	0.00027	11.85	11.85	1.00

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Applying association scores in wordspace

> options(digits=3) # print fractional values with limited precision

> dsm.score(TT, score="MI", sparse=FALSE, matrix=TRUE) breed tail feed kill important explain likely -Inf 0.0182 6.21 4.568 3.129 2.801 7.78 3.081 3.922 2.323 -3.774 -1.1888 -0.4958 dog animal 3.50 2.132 4.747 2.832 -0.674 -0.4677 -0.0966 -1.65 -2.236 -0.729 -1.097 -1.728 -1.2382 0.6392 -Inf -1.982 -0.388 1.472 4.0368 2.8860 reason -2.30 cause -Inf -0.834 -Inf -2.177 1.900 2.8329 4.0691 effect -Inf -2.116 -2.468 -2.459 0.791 1.6312 0.9221

- sparseness of the matrix has been lost!
- cells with score $x = -\infty$ are inconvenient
- distribution of scores may be even more skewed than co-occurrence frequencies (esp. for local-MI)

Other association measures

▶ simple log-likelihood (\approx local-MI)

$$G^2 = \pm 2 \cdot \left(O \cdot \log_2 \frac{O}{E} - (O - E) \right)$$

with positive sign for O > E and negative sign for O < E

▶ Dice coefficient

$$Dice = \frac{2O}{R + C}$$

- ▶ Many other simple association measures (AMs) available
- ▶ Further AMs computed from full contingency tables, see
 - Evert (2008)
 - ► http://www.collocations.de/
 - http://sigil.r-forge.r-project.org/

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Sparse association measures

▶ Sparse association scores are cut off at zero, i.e.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

- ► Also known as "positive" scores
 - ▶ PPMI = positive pointwise MI (e.g. Bullinaria and Levy 2007)
 - ▶ wordspace computes sparse AMs by default → "MI" = PPMI
- ▶ Preserves sparseness if $x \le 0$ for all empty cells (O = 0)
 - \triangleright sparseness may even increase: cells with x < 0 become empty
- Usually combined with signed association measure satisfying
 - \triangleright x > 0 for O > E
 - \triangleright x < 0 for O < E

Score transformations

An additional scale transformation can be applied in order to de-skew association scores:

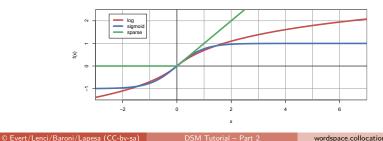
signed logarithmic transformation

$$f(x) = \pm \log(|x| + 1)$$

sigmoid transformation as soft binarization

$$f(x) = \tanh x$$

sparse AM as cutoff transformation



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Scaling of column vectors

▶ In statistical analysis and machine learning, features are usually centred and scaled so that

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{mean} & \mu = 0 \\ \text{variance} & \sigma^2 = 1 \end{array}$$

- ▶ In DSM research, this step is less common for columns of M
 - centring is a prerequisite for certain dimensionality reduction and data analysis techniques (esp. PCA)
 - but co-occurrence matrix no longer sparse!
 - scaling may give too much weight to rare features
- ▶ M cannot be row-normalised and column-scaled at the same time (result depends on ordering of the two steps)

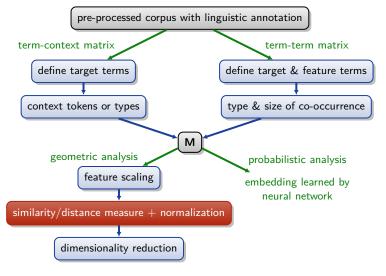
Association scores & transformations in wordspace

```
> dsm.score(TT, score="MI", matrix=TRUE) # PPMI
       breed tail feed kill important explain likely
       6.21 4.57 3.13 2.80
                              0.000 0.0182 0.000
dog
       7.78 3.08 3.92 2.32
                              0.000 0.0000 0.000
animal 3.50 2.13 4.75 2.83
                              0.000 0.0000 0.000
       0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
                              0.000 0.0000 0.639
time
reason 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
                              1.472 4.0368 2.886
cause 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
                              1.900 2.8329 4.069
effect 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
                              0.791 1.6312 0.922
> dsm.score(TT, score="simple-ll", matrix=TRUE)
> dsm.score(TT, score="simple-ll", transf="log", matrix=T)
# logarithmic co-occurrence frequency
> dsm.score(TT, score="freq", transform="log", matrix=T)
# now try other parameter combinations
> ?dsm.score # read help page for available parameter settings
```

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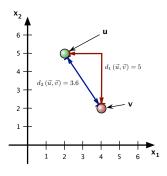
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Overview of DSM parameters



Geometric distance = metric

- Distance between vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (dis)$ similarity
 - $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \ldots, u_n)$ $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$
- **Euclidean** distance $d_2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- ► "City block" Manhattan distance $d_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- ▶ Both are special cases of the Minkowski p-distance $d_p(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ (for $p \in [1, \infty]$)

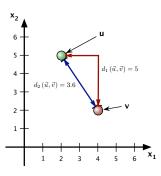


$$d_p(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) := (|u_1 - v_1|^p + \dots + |u_n - v_n|^p)^{1/p}$$

$$d_{\infty}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \max\{|u_1 - v_1|, \dots, |u_n - v_n|\}$$

Geometric distance = metric

- ► Distance between vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \text{(dis)similarity}$
 - $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \ldots, u_n)$
 - $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$
- ► Euclidean distance d₂ (u, v)
- ► "City block" Manhattan distance $d_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- \triangleright Extension of p-distance $d_p(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ (for 0)



$$d_p(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) := |u_1 - v_1|^p + \dots + |u_n - v_n|^p$$
$$d_0(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \#\{i \mid u_i \neq v_i\}$$

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Computing distances

Preparation: store "scored" matrix in DSM object

> TT <- dsm.score(TT, score="freq", transform="log")

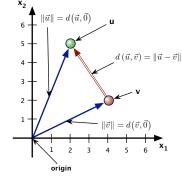
Compute distances between individual term pairs . . .

- > pair.distances(c("cat","cause"), c("animal","effect"), TT. method="euclidean") cat/animal cause/effect 4.16 1.53
- ... or full distance matrix.
- > dist.matrix(TT, method="euclidean")
- > dist.matrix(TT, method="minkowski", p=4)

DSM parameters A taxonomy of DSM parameters

Distance and vector length = norm

- ► Intuitively, distance $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ should correspond to length $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$ of displacement vector $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$
 - \rightarrow $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ is a metric
 - $ightharpoonup \|\mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}\|$ is a **norm**
 - $\|\mathbf{u}\| = d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{0})$
- ► Such a metric is always translation-invariant

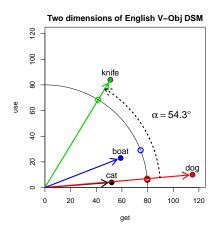


- $d_p(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} \mathbf{v}\|_p$
- ▶ Minkowski *p*-norm for $p \in [1, \infty]$ (not p < 1):

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_{p} := (|u_{1}|^{p} + \cdots + |u_{n}|^{p})^{1/p}$$

Normalisation of row vectors

- ► Geometric distances only meaningful for vectors of the same length ||x||
- ► Normalize by scalar division: $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x}/\|\mathbf{x}\| = \left(\frac{x_1}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}, \frac{x_2}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}, \ldots\right)$ with $\|\mathbf{x}'\|=1$
- ► Norm must be compatible with distance measure!
- ► Special case: scale to relative frequencies with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = |x_1| + \cdots + |x_n|$
 - → probabilistic interpretation



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Norms and normalization

```
> rowNorms(TT$S, method="euclidean")
         dog animal
                   time reason
                                cause effect
                                  6.86
```

```
> TT <- dsm.score(TT, score="freq", transform="log",
                  normalize=TRUE, method="euclidean")
> rowNorms(TT$S, method="euclidean") # all = 1 now
> dist.matrix(TT, method="euclidean")
            dog animal time reason cause effect
      0.000 0.224 0.473 0.782 1.121 1.239 1.161
      0.224 0.000 0.398 0.698 1.065 1.179 1.113
animal 0.473 0.398 0.000 0.426 0.841 0.971 0.860
      0.782 0.698 0.426 0.000 0.475 0.585 0.502
reason 1.121 1.065 0.841 0.475 0.000 0.277
cause 1.239 1.179 0.971 0.585 0.277 0.000 0.224
effect 1.161 1.113 0.860 0.502 0.198 0.224 0.000
```

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Other distance measures

▶ Information theory: Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence for probability vectors (\mathbf{x} non-negative, $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = 1$)

$$D(\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}) = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \cdot \log_2 \frac{u_i}{v_i}$$

- Properties of KL divergence
 - most appropriate in a probabilistic interpretation of M
 - > zeroes in v without corresponding zeroes in u are problematic
 - ▶ not symmetric, unlike geometric distance measures
 - ▶ alternatives: skew divergence, Jensen-Shannon divergence
- A symmetric distance measure (Endres and Schindelin 2003)

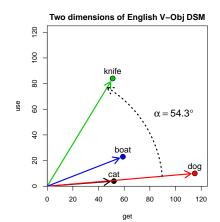
$$D_{uv} = D(u||z) + D(v||z)$$
 with $z = \frac{u + v}{2}$

Similarity measures

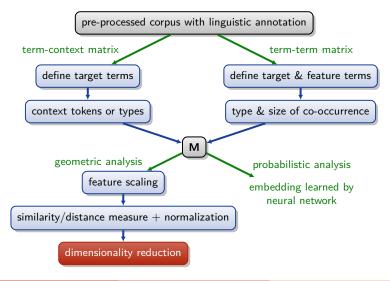
ightharpoonup Angle α between vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is given by

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i \cdot v_i}{\sqrt{\sum_i u_i^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_i v_i^2}}$$
$$= \frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \cdot \|\mathbf{v}\|_2}$$

- cosine measure of similarity: $\cos \alpha$
 - $ightharpoonup \cos \alpha = 1 \Rightarrow \text{collinear}$
 - $ightharpoonup \cos \alpha = 0 \Rightarrow \text{ orthogonal}$
- Corresponding metric: angular distance α



Overview of DSM parameters



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Dimensionality reduction & latent dimensions

Landauer and Dumais (1997) claim that LSA dimensionality reduction (and related PCA technique) uncovers latent dimensions by exploiting correlations between features.

- Example: term-term matrix
- ▶ V-Obj cooc's extracted from BNC
 - ► targets = noun lemmas
 - ► features = verb lemmas
- ▶ feature scaling: association scores (modified log Dice coefficient)
- k = 111 nouns with f > 20(must have non-zero row vectors)
- ightharpoonup n = 2 dimensions: buy and sell

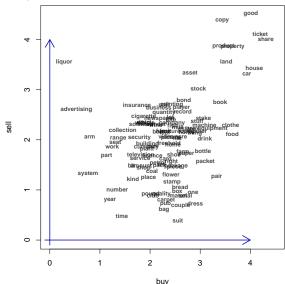
noun	buy	sel
bond	0.28	0.77
cigarette	-0.52	0.44
dress	0.51	-1.30
freehold	-0.01	-0.08
land	1.13	1.54
number	-1.05	-1.02
per	-0.35	-0.16
pub	-0.08	-1.30
share	1.92	1.99
system	-1.63	-0.70

Dimensionality reduction = model compression

- ► Co-occurrence matrix **M** is often unmanageably large and can be extremely sparse
 - ▶ Google Web1T5: 1M × 1M matrix with one trillion cells, of which less than 0.05% contain nonzero counts (Evert 2010)
- Compress matrix by reducing dimensionality (= rows)
- ▶ Feature selection: columns with high frequency & variance
 - measured by entropy, chi-squared test, nonzero count, ...
 - may select similar dimensions and discard valuable information
 - ▶ joint selection of multiple features is useful but expensive
- ▶ Projection into (linear) subspace
 - principal component analysis (PCA)
 - independent component analysis (ICA)
 - random indexing (RI)
 - intuition: preserve distances between data points

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Dimensionality reduction & latent dimensions



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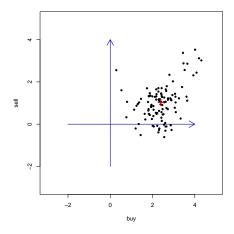
Motivating latent dimensions & subspace projection

- ▶ The latent property of being a commodity is "expressed" through associations with several verbs: sell, buy, acquire, . . .
- ► Consequence: these DSM dimensions will be correlated
- ▶ Identify latent dimension by looking for strong correlations (or weaker correlations between large sets of features)
- ightharpoonup Projection into subspace V of k < n latent dimensions as a "noise reduction" technique → LSA
- Assumptions of this approach:
 - "latent" distances in V are semantically meaningful
 - ▶ other "residual" dimensions represent chance co-occurrence patterns, often particular to the corpus underlying the DSM

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Centering the data set

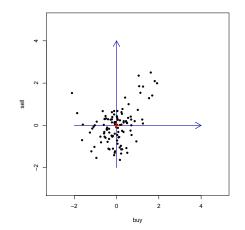
- Uncentered data set
- Centered data set
- Variance of centered data



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Centering the data set

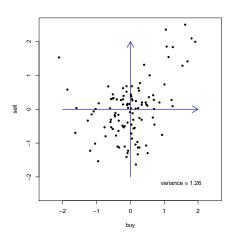
- Uncentered data set
- Centered data set
- Variance of centered data



Centering the data set

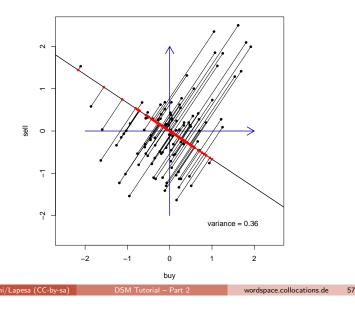
- Uncentered data set
- Centered data set
- Variance of centered data

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^k ||\mathbf{x}^{(i)}||^2$$



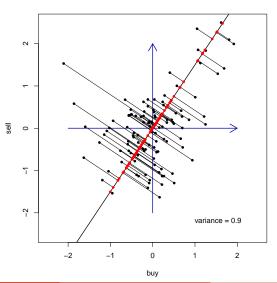
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Projection and preserved variance: examples

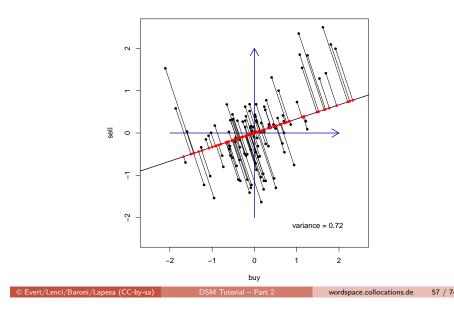


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Projection and preserved variance: examples

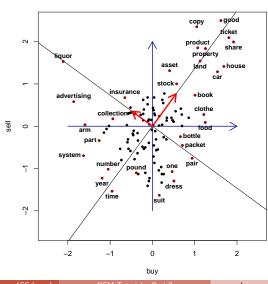


Projection and preserved variance: examples



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Orthogonal PCA dimensions



DSM parameters Examples

Dimensionality reduction in practice

```
# it is customary to omit the centring: SVD dimensionality reduction
> TT2 <- dsm.projection(TT, n=2, method="svd")
> TT2
        svd1
                svd2
     -0.733 -0.6615
      -0.782 -0.6110
animal -0.914 -0.3606
time -0.993 0.0302
reason -0.889 0.4339
cause -0.817 0.5615
effect -0.871 0.4794
> x <- TT2[, 1] # first latent dimension
> y <- TT2[, 2] # second latent dimension
> plot(TT2, pch=20, col="red",
       xlim=extendrange(x), ylim=extendrange(y))
> text(TT2, rownames(TT2), pos=3)
```

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Outline

DSM parameters

A taxonomy of DSM parameters

Examples

Example: a verb-object DSM

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DSM parameters Examples

Some well-known DSM examples

Latent Semantic Analysis (Landauer and Dumais 1997)

- term-context matrix with document context
- weighting: log term frequency and term entropy
- distance measure: cosine
- dimensionality reduction: SVD

Hyperspace Analogue to Language (Lund and Burgess 1996)

- term-term matrix with surface context
- structured (left/right) and distance-weighted frequency counts
- ▶ distance measure: Minkowski metric $(1 \le p \le 2)$
- dimensionality reduction: feature selection (high variance)

DSM parameters Examples

Some well-known DSM examples

Infomap NLP (Widdows 2004)

- term-term matrix with unstructured surface context
- weighting: none
- ▶ distance measure: cosine
- dimensionality reduction: SVD

Random Indexing (Karlgren and Sahlgren 2001)

- term-term matrix with unstructured surface context
- weighting: various methods
- distance measure: various methods
- dimensionality reduction: random indexing (RI)

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Sparse matrices

Some well-known DSM examples

Dependency Vectors (Padó and Lapata 2007)

- term-term matrix with unstructured dependency context
- weighting: log-likelihood ratio
- ▶ distance measure: PPMI-weighted Dice (Lin 1998)
- dimensionality reduction: none

Distributional Memory (Baroni and Lenci 2010)

- term-term matrix with structured and unstructered dependencies + knowledge patterns
- weighting: local-MI on type frequencies of link patterns
- distance measure: cosine
- dimensionality reduction: none

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Building a DSM Sparse matrices

Scaling up to the real world

- ► So far, we have worked on minuscule toy models
- We want to scale up to real world data sets now
- ► Example 1: window-based DSM on BNC content words
 - ▶ 83,926 lemma types with f > 10
 - term-term matrix with $83,926 \cdot 83,926 = 7$ billion entries
 - standard representation requires 56 GB of RAM (8-byte floats)
 - \triangleright only 22.1 million non-zero entries (= 0.32%)
- ► Example 2: Google Web 1T 5-grams (1 trillion words)
 - more than 1 million word types with f > 2500
 - ▶ term-term matrix with 1 trillion entries requires 8 TB RAM
 - only 400 million non-zero entries (= 0.04%)

Outline

A taxonomy of DSM parameters

Building a DSM

Sparse matrices

Example: a verb-object DSM

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Building a DSM Sparse matrices

Sparse matrix representation

▶ Invented example of a sparsely populated DSM matrix

	eat	get	hear	kill	see	use
boat	.	59	ě	ě	39	23
cat				26	58	
cup		98				
dog	33		42		83	•
knife						84
pig	9	•	•	27	•	

▶ Store only non-zero entries in compact sparse matrix format

row	col	value	row	col	value
1	2	59	4	1	33
1	5	39	4	3	42
1	6	23	4	5	83
2	4	26	5	6	84
2	5	58	6	1	9
3	2	98	6	4	27
2 2	4 5	26 58	5		84

Building a DSM Sparse matrices

Example: a verb-object DSM

Working with sparse matrices

- Compressed format: each row index (or column index) stored only once, followed by non-zero entries in this row (or column)
 - convention: column-major matrix (data stored by columns)
- Specialised algorithms for sparse matrix algebra
 - especially matrix multiplication, solving linear systems, etc.
 - take care to avoid operations that create a dense matrix!
- ▶ R implementation: Matrix package
 - essential for real-life distributional semantics
 - wordspace provides additional support for sparse matrices (vector distances, sparse SVD, ...)
- ▶ Other software: Matlab, Octave, Python + SciPy

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Building a DSM

Example: a verb-object DSM

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Building a DSM Example: a verb-object DSM

Triplet tables

- ► A sparse DSM matrix can be represented as a table of triplets (target, feature, co-occurrence frequency)
 - ▶ for syntactic co-occurrence and term-document matrices, marginals can be computed from a complete triplet table
 - ▶ for surface and textual co-occurrence, marginals have to be provided in separate files (see ?read.dsm.triplet)

noun	rel	verb	f	mode
dog	subj	bite	3	spoken
dog	subj	bite	12	written
dog	obj	bite	4	written
dog	obj	stroke	3	written

- ▶ DSM_VerbNounTriples_BNC contains additional information
 - syntactic relation between noun and verb
 - written or spoken part of the British National Corpus

Building a DSM Example: a verb-object DSM

Constructing a DSM from a triplet table

▶ Additional information can be used for filtering (verb-object relation), or aggregate frequencies (spoken + written BNC)

```
> tri <- subset(DSM_VerbNounTriples_BNC, rel == "obj")</pre>
```

- ► Construct DSM object from triplet input
 - ► raw.freq=TRUE indicates raw co-occurrence frequencies (rather than a pre-weighted DSM)
 - constructor aggregates counts from duplicate entries
 - marginal frequencies are automatically computed
- > VObj <- dsm(target=tri\$noun, feature=tri\$verb, score=tri\$f, raw.freq=TRUE)
- > VObj # inspect marginal frequencies (e.g. head(VObj\$rows, 20))

Building a DSM

Example: a verb-object DSM

Building a DSM

Example: a verb-object DSM

Exploring the DSM

> VObj <-	dsm.sco	re(VObj,	score="	MI", norm	alize=TRUE)		
<pre>> nearest.neighbours(VObj, "dog") # angular distance</pre>							
horse	cat	animal	rabbit	fish	guy		
73.9	75.9	76.2	77.0	77.2	78.5		
cichlid	kid	bee o	reature				
78.6	79.0	79.1	79.5				
<pre>> nearest.neighbours(VObj, "dog", method="manhattan") # NB: we used an incompatible Euclidean normalization!</pre>							
<pre>> V0bj50 <- dsm.projection(V0bj, n=50, method="svd") > nearest.neighbours(V0bj50, "dog")</pre>							

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Building a DSM Example: a verb-object DSM

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Example: a verb-object DSM

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