#### Distributional Semantic Models

Part 1: Introduction

Stefan Evert<sup>1</sup>

with contributions from Marco Baroni<sup>2</sup> and Alessandro Lenci<sup>3</sup>

 $^1$ Friedrich-Alexander-Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg, Germany  $^2$ University of Trento, Italy  $^3$ University of Pisa, Italy

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

Copyright © 2009-2010 Baroni, Evert & Lenci | Licensed under CC-by-sa version 3.0



#### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances
Quantitative evaluation
Software and further information

#### Outline

#### Introduction

#### The distributional hypothesis

Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances Quantitative evaluation Software and further information

### Meaning & distribution

- "Die Bedeutung eines Wortes liegt in seinem Gebrauch."— Ludwig Wittgenstein
- "You shall know a word by the company it keeps!"
   J. R. Firth (1957)
- Distributional hypothesis: difference of meaning correlates with difference of distribution (Zellig Harris 1954)
- "What people know when they say that they know a word is not how to recite its dictionary definition – they know how to use it [...] in everyday discourse." (Miller 1986)

► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.

- ► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.

- ► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.
- Nigel staggered to his feet, face flushed from too much bardiwac.

- ► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.
- Nigel staggered to his feet, face flushed from too much bardiwac.
- ► Malbec, one of the lesser-known bardiwac grapes, responds well to Australia's sunshine.

- ▶ He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.
- Nigel staggered to his feet, face flushed from too much bardiwac.
- ► Malbec, one of the lesser-known bardiwac grapes, responds well to Australia's sunshine.
- ▶ I dined off bread and cheese and this excellent bardiwac.

- ► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.
- Nigel staggered to his feet, face flushed from too much bardiwac.
- ► Malbec, one of the lesser-known bardiwac grapes, responds well to Australia's sunshine.
- I dined off bread and cheese and this excellent bardiwac.
- The drinks were delicious: blood-red bardiwac as well as light, sweet Rhenish.

- ► He handed her her glass of bardiwac.
- Beef dishes are made to complement the bardiwacs.
- Nigel staggered to his feet, face flushed from too much bardiwac.
- ► Malbec, one of the lesser-known bardiwac grapes, responds well to Australia's sunshine.
- I dined off bread and cheese and this excellent bardiwac.
- ► The drinks were delicious: blood-red bardiwac as well as light, sweet Rhenish.
- bardiwac is a heavy red alcoholic beverage made from grapes

The examples above are handpicked, of course. But in a corpus like the BNC, you will find at least as many informative sentences.



Corpus: British National Corpus Hits: 192 conc description

Page 1 of 10 Go Next | Last

```
A0D
        the doctor,  'Just checking on the bardiwac', he boomed as he came back.' Edith's very
A0D
     AOD
             Our host did slip out to attend to the bardiwac &hellip: 'That was before the shrimp
A0D Iverson did when he went through to see to the bardiwac before dinner. Henry rubbed his hands.
AON
         and drinking red wine from France -- sour bardiwac, which had proved hard to sell. The room
AON
         eyes were alight and he was drinking the bardiwac down like water. It is like Hallow-fair
A0N quizzically at him and offering him some more bardiwae . He shook his head. I will sleep
      drinks (as Queen Victoria reputedly did with bardiwae and malt whisky), but still the result
A3C
A3C
       Do we really 'wash down' a good meal with bardiwac? Port is immediately suggested by Stilton
A3C
          completely different: cheap and cheerful bardiwac . Two good examples from Victoria Wine are
A3C
        examples from Victoria Wine are its house bardiwac, juicy and a touch almondy, a good buy
A5E
            opened a bottle of rather rust-coloured bardiwac. I ate too much and drank nearly three-quarters
A66
            elections, it was apparent the SDP of bardiwae and chips' mould-breaking fame at the time
AA0
            the black hills. Not a night of vintage bardiwac . 
ABS
         SONS Old School -- the Marlborian navy, bardiwae and slim-white stripe. Heavy woven silk
ABS white-hot passion. We are like a good bottle of bardiwac; we both have sediment in our shoes. 
AE0
         few minutes later he was uncorking a fine bardiwac in Masha's room, saying he had something
AE0
       the phone. Surkov silently offered me more bardiwac but I indicated a bottle of Perrier. 
AHU
         defenders as Villa swept past them like a bardiwac and blue tidal wave. 
AJM
        campaign. Refreshed by a nimble in-flight bardiwac, they serenaded him with a special song
```

Page 1 of 10 Go Next | Last



#### bardiwac British National Corpus freq = 230

object of	<u>32</u> 1.5	and/or	<u>47</u> 1.7	pp obj round	d-p <u>1</u> 29.1	pp obj	of-p <u>63</u> 5.7	pp obj throug	h-p 1 4.5
uncork	<u>1</u> 8.98	plummy	<u>1</u> 9.33	pass	<u>1</u> 0.3	swig	<u>1</u> 7.21	plausible	<u>1</u> 5.28
gulp	1 6.61	Sancerre	19.14			tinge	16.44		
sport	<u>1</u> 5.6	Willson	18.93	pp_before-p	1 13.0	bottle	<u>24</u> 6.35	predicate of	<u>4</u> 3.7
water	15.34	scampi	18.23	dinner	1 1.98	goblet	<u>1</u> 6.29	Branaire-ducru	1 12.19
drink	75.13	burgundy	18.18			jug	<u>1</u> 4.64	Spar	<u>1</u> 8.85
sip	1 4.8	garb	17.02	pp obj after-	p 1 6.5	grape	<u>1</u> 4.63	liquor	<u>2</u> 5.82
warm	1 4.28	ruby	16.59	sought	1 8.56	cup	<u>16</u> 4.38		
complement	<u>1</u> 4.15	Barnett	15.29			bowl	<u>2</u> 3.66		
waste	1 2.93	refreshment	15.29			glass	<u>4</u> 2.83		
paint	1 2.38	Halifax	15.11			label	1 2.76		
pp obj wit	h-n 6 3 3	nn ohi h	v-n 4 2	.5 predicate	2 1.8	nn ohi fi	rom-p 2 1.6	modifier	<u>72</u> 1.2
fagg	1 9.5		18.		1 7.91	burgundy	1 8.91		5 9.92
brim	1 6.7		16.	* *	1 1.53	flush	1 4.71	ready-to-drink	1 8.79
	_				1 1.55	HUSH	14./1	cinnamon-scent	_
stain	25.4		14.		- 5 1 T	adi mbia	ect of 3 1.2		
merchant	12.6		y <u>1</u> 1.		_			rust-coloured	<u>1</u> 8.57
meal	<u>1</u> 1.6			alternative	1 2.2	cheap	1 3.08	Tanners	<u>1</u> 8.51
		pp as-p	1 1.5		<u>1</u> 1.7	happy	<u>1</u> 1.66	ten-man	1 8.43
		gift	<u>1</u> 2.	14 attend	<u>1</u> 1.35	sure	<u>1</u> 0.56	in-flight	<u>1</u> 7.99
								full-bodied	17.87
								Smedley	<u>1</u> 7.83
								blood-red	17.75
							3 4 7		3 = 7

			μ	٩٩p	n↓	<b>≬ ↓ △</b>	حوات
(knife)	\A	51	20	84	0	3	0
(cat)	D 40-0	52	58	4	4	6	26
???	≥ fo	115	83	10	42	33	17
(boat)	ے اُھ ل	59	39	23	4	0	0
(cup)		98	14	6	2	1	0
(pig)	·↓□↓□	12	17	3	2	9	27
(banana)	AA	11	2	2	0	18	0

		۵ مح∞ ۵	M	qţp	□Vo	44_	حوات
(knife)	PA	51	20	84	0	3	0
(cat)	<b>D</b> 40-0	52	58	4	4	6	26
???	≥ fo	115	83	10	42	33	17
(boat)	مأهك	59	39	23	4	0	0
(cup)		98	14	6	2	1	0
(pig)	·↓□↓□	12	17	3	2	9	27
(banana)	AA	11	2	2	0	18	0



		۵ مح∞ ۵	M	qγp	□↓o	<b>≬</b> ≬_	
(knife)		51	20	84	0	3	0
(cat)	D 40 a	52	58	4	4	6	26
???	≥ fo	115	83	10	42	33	17
(boat)	مأها	59	39	23	4	0	0
(cup)		98	14	6	2	1	0
(pig)		12	17	3	2	9	27
(banana)	AA	11	2	2	0	18	0



		۵۵۵	M	qγp	□₹o	$\mathbb{A}_{a}$	حواح
(knife)		51	20	84	0	3	0
(cat)	D 60	<b>52</b>	58	4	4	6	26
???	≥ fo	115	83	10	42	33	17
(boat)	مأها	59	39	23	4	0	0
(cup)		98	14	6	2	1	0
(pig)		12	17	3	2	9	27
(banana)	AA	11	2	2	0	18	0



#### English as seen by the computer . . .

		get	see	use ≬î∫î	hear □  ↓  □	eat N_	kill ⊸≬ <u>s</u>
knife	PA	51	20	84	0	3	0
cat	D 40-0	52	58	4	4	6	26
dog	≥ f\0	115	83	10	42	33	17
boat	مأها	59	39	23	4	0	0
cup		98	14	6	2	1	0
pig		12	17	3	2	9	27
banana	A	11	2	2	0	18	0

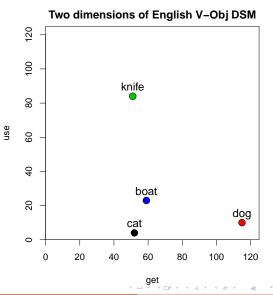
verb-object counts from British National Corpus

- row vector X<sub>dog</sub>
   describes usage of
   word dog in the
   corpus
- can be seen as coordinates of point in *n*-dimensional Euclidean space

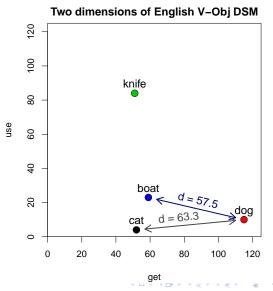
	get	see	use	hear	eat	kill
knife	51	20	84	0	3	0
cat	52	58	4	4	6	26
dog	115	83	10	42	33	17
boat	59	39	23	4	0	0
cup	98	14	6	2	1	0
pig	12	17	3	2	9	27
banana	11	2	2	0	18	0

co-occurrence matrix M

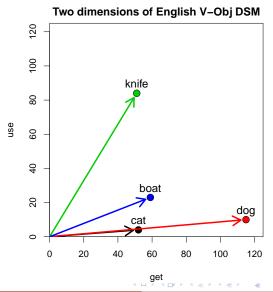
- row vector x<sub>dog</sub>
   describes usage of
   word dog in the
   corpus
- can be seen as coordinates of point in n-dimensional Euclidean space
- illustrated for two dimensions: get and use
- $x_{dog} = (115, 10)$



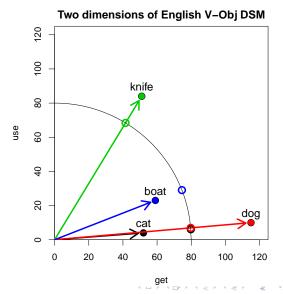
- similarity = spatial proximity (Euclidean dist.)
- ► location depends on frequency of noun  $(f_{\text{dog}} \approx 2.7 \cdot f_{\text{cat}})$



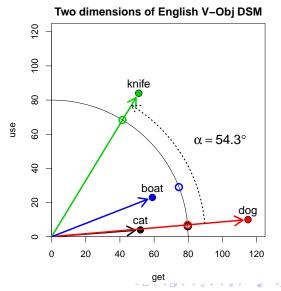
- similarity = spatial proximity (Euclidean dist.)
- location depends on frequency of noun  $(f_{\text{dog}} \approx 2.7 \cdot f_{\text{cat}})$
- direction more important than location



- similarity = spatial proximity (Euclidean dist.)
- location depends on frequency of noun  $(f_{\text{dog}} \approx 2.7 \cdot f_{\text{cat}})$
- direction more important than location
- normalise "length"
  ||x<sub>dog</sub>|| of vector

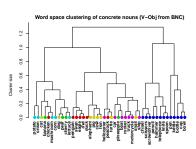


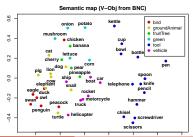
- similarity = spatial proximity (Euclidean dist.)
- location depends on frequency of noun  $(f_{\text{dog}} \approx 2.7 \cdot f_{\text{cat}})$
- direction more important than location
- normalise "length"
  ||x<sub>dog</sub>|| of vector
- or use angle  $\alpha$  as distance measure



#### Semantic distances

- main result of distributional analysis are "semantic" distances between words
- typical applications
  - nearest neighbours
  - clustering of related words
  - construct semantic map
- other applications require clever use of the distance information
  - semantic relations
  - relational analogies
  - word sense disambiguation
  - detection of multiword expressions







### Some applications in computational linguistics

- Unsupervised part-of-speech induction (Schütze 1995)
- Word sense disambiguation (Schütze 1998)
- Query expansion in information retrieval (Grefenstette 1994)
- Synonym tasks & other language tests
   (Landauer and Dumais 1997; Turney et al. 2003)
- ► Thesaurus compilation (Lin 1998a; Rapp 2004)
- Ontology & wordnet expansion (Pantel et al. 2009)
- Attachment disambiguation (Pantel and Lin 2000)
- ▶ Probabilistic language models (Bengio *et al.* 2003)
- Subsymbolic input representation for neural networks
- Many other tasks in computational semantics: entailment detection, noun compound interpretation, identification of noncompositional expressions, ...



#### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis

Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters

Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances

Quantitative evaluation

Software and further information

# Latent Semantic Analysis (Landauer and Dumais 1997)

- ► Corpus: 30,473 articles from Grolier's *Academic American Encyclopedia* (4.6 million words in total)
  - articles were limited to first 2,000 characters
- Word-article frequency matrix for 60,768 words
  - row vector shows frequency of word in each article
- Logarithmic frequencies scaled by word entropy
- Reduced to 300 dim. by singular value decomposition (SVD)
  - borrowed from LSI (Dumais et al. 1988)
  - central claim: SVD reveals latent semantic features, not just a data reduction technique
- Evaluated on TOEFL synonym test (80 items)
  - ▶ LSA model achieved 64.4% correct answers
  - also simulation of learning rate based on TOEFL results

## Word Space (Schütze 1992, 1993, 1998)

- ► Corpus:  $\approx$  60 million words of news messages
  - from the New York Times News Service
- Word-word co-occurrence matrix
  - ▶ 20,000 target words & 2,000 context words as features
  - row vector records how often each context word occurs close to the target word (co-occurrence)
  - ▶ co-occurrence window: left/right 50 words (Schütze 1998) or  $\approx$  1000 characters (Schütze 1992)
- Rows weighted by inverse document frequency (tf.idf)
- Context vector = centroid of word vectors (bag-of-words)
  - goal: determine "meaning" of a context
- Reduced to 100 SVD dimensions (mainly for efficiency)
- Evaluated on unsupervised word sense induction by clustering of context vectors (for an ambiguous word)
  - ▶ induced word senses improve information retrieval performance

18 / 91

## HAL (Lund and Burgess 1996)

- ► HAL = Hyperspace Analogue to Language
- Corpus: 160 million words from newsgroup postings
- Word-word co-occurrence matrix
  - same 70,000 words used as targets and features
  - ► co-occurrence window of 1 10 words
- Separate counts for left and right co-occurrence
  - i.e. the context is structured
- ► In later work, co-occurrences are weighted by (inverse) distance (Li *et al.* 2000)
- ► Applications include construction of semantic vocabulary maps by multidimensional scaling to 2 dimensions

#### Many parameters . . .

- ► Enormous range of DSM parameters and applications
- Examples showed three entirely different models, each tuned to its particular application
- ▶ Need overview of DSM parameters & understand their effects

#### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview

DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances
Quantitative evaluation
Software and further information

#### 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, . . .

#### General definition of DSMs

#### Mathematical notation:

- $\triangleright$   $k \times n$  co-occurrence matrix **M** (example:  $7 \times 6$  matrix)
  - k rows = target terms
  - $\triangleright$  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.  $\mathbf{m}_3 = \mathbf{m}_{\text{dog}}$
- ▶ components  $\mathbf{m}_i = (m_{i1}, m_{i2}, \dots, m_{in})$  = features of *i*-th term:

$$\mathbf{m}_3 = (-0.026, 0.021, -0.212, 0.064, 0.013, 0.014)$$
  
=  $(m_{31}, m_{32}, m_{33}, m_{34}, m_{35}, m_{36})$ 



## Overview of DSM parameters

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

Term-context vs. term-term matrix



Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

₩

Size & type of context

₩

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

 $\Downarrow$ 

Size & type of context

 $\Downarrow$ 

Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

$$\Downarrow$$

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

₩

Size & type of context

 $\Downarrow$ 

Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation

 $\Downarrow$ 

Feature scaling

₩

Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction

## Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview

DSM parameters

Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances
Quantitative evaluation
Software and further information

#### Term-context vs. term-term matrix



Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction



### Term-context matrix

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

$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots & \mathbf{f}_1 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{f}_2 & \cdots \\ & \vdots & \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \cdots & \mathbf{f}_k & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$$

	Fe/1/45	γ, Q <sup>&amp;</sup>	4/6/29/	8/03/	Philo	Konx SOPA	8304
cat	10	10	7	-	_	_	-
dog	_	10	4	11	_	_	- 1
animal	2	15	10	2	_	_	- 1
time	1	_	_	_	2	1	- 1
reason	_	1	_	_	1	4	1
cause	_	_	_	2	1	2	6
effect	_	_	_	1	-	1	_

### Term-context matrix

#### Some footnotes:

- ► Features are usually context tokens, i.e. individual instances
- Can also be generalised to context types, e.g.
  - bag of content words
  - specific pattern of POS tags
  - n-gram of words (or POS tags) around target
  - subcategorisation pattern of target verb
- ► Term-context matrix is often very **sparse**

### Term-term matrix

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

	6,00d	, <i>[/e]</i>	, <sub>V</sub> <sub>O</sub> <sub>O</sub> ,	, kill	in	tueton s	likely 1
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

we will usually assume a term-term matrix in this tutorial

#### Term-term matrix

#### Some footnotes:

- ▶ Often target terms ≠ feature terms
  - e.g. nouns described by co-occurrences with verbs as features
  - ▶ identical sets of target & feature terms → symmetric matrix
- Different types of contexts (Evert 2008)
  - surface context (word or character window)
  - textual context (non-overlapping segments)
  - syntactic contxt (specific syntagmatic 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 later in this tutorial

Term-context vs. term-term matrix



Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction



## Corpus pre-processing

- ▶ Minimally, corpus must be tokenised → identify terms
- Linguistic annotation
  - part-of-speech tagging
  - lemmatisation / stemming
  - word sense disambiguation (rare)
  - shallow syntactic patterns
  - dependency parsing

## Corpus pre-processing

- ▶ Minimally, corpus must be tokenised → identify terms
- Linguistic annotation
  - part-of-speech tagging
  - lemmatisation / stemming
  - word sense disambiguation (rare)
  - shallow syntactic patterns
  - dependency parsing
- Generalisation of terms
  - ▶ often lemmatised to reduce data sparseness: go, goes, went, gone, going → go
  - ▶ POS disambiguation (light/N vs. light/A vs. light/V)
  - word sense disambiguation (bank<sub>river</sub> vs. bank<sub>finance</sub>)

## Corpus pre-processing

- ▶ Minimally, corpus must be tokenised → identify terms
- Linguistic annotation
  - part-of-speech tagging
  - lemmatisation / stemming
  - word sense disambiguation (rare)
  - shallow syntactic patterns
  - dependency parsing
- Generalisation of terms
  - ▶ often lemmatised to reduce data sparseness: go, goes, went, gone, going → go
  - ▶ POS disambiguation (light/N vs. light/A vs. light/V)
  - ▶ word sense disambiguation (bank<sub>river</sub> vs. bank<sub>finance</sub>)
- Trade-off between deeper linguistic analysis and
  - need for language-specific resources
  - possible errors introduced at each stage of the analysis



# Effects of pre-processing

### Nearest neighbours of walk (BNC)

#### word forms

- stroll
- walking
- walked
- ▶ go
- path
- drive
- ▶ ride
- wander
- sprinted
- sauntered

### lemmatised corpus

- hurry
- stroll
- stride
- ► trudge
- amble
- wander
- walk-nn
- walking
- retrace
- scuttle

## Effects of pre-processing

### Nearest neighbours of arrivare (Repubblica)

#### word forms

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

### lemmatised corpus

- giungere
- aspettare
- attendere
- arrivo-nn
- ricevere
- accontentare
- approdare
- pervenire
- venire
- piombare

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

 $\Downarrow$ 

Size & type of context

 $\Downarrow$ 

Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

Feature scaling

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction

### Surface context

Context term occurs within a window 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.

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

## Effect of different window sizes

## Nearest neighbours of dog (BNC)

#### 2-word window

- cat
- horse
- ▶ fox
- pet
- rabbit
- pig
- animal
- mongrel
- sheep
- pigeon

#### 30-word window

- kennel
  - puppy
- pet
- bitch
- terrier
- rottweiler
- canine
- cat
- to bark
- Alsatian

#### 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.

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

## 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.

- 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



## "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 yellow. These colors produce incredible effects on anybody looking at his paintings.

- 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)

### Structured vs. unstructured context

- In unstructered models, context specification acts as a filter
  - determines whether context tokens counts as co-occurrence
  - e.g. linked by specific syntactic relation such as verb-object

### Structured vs. unstructured context

- In unstructered models, context specification acts as a filter
  - determines whether context tokens counts as co-occurrence
  - e.g. linked by specific syntactic relation such as verb-object
- In structured models, context words are subtyped
  - depending on their position in the context
  - e.g. left vs. right context, type of syntactic relation, etc.

## Structured vs. unstructured surface context

unstructured	bite
dog	4
man	3

## Structured vs. unstructured surface context

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

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

# Structured vs. unstructured dependency context

unstructured	bite	
dog	4	
man	2	

## Structured vs. unstructured dependency context

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

## Comparison

- Unstructured context
  - data less sparse (e.g. man kills and kills man both map to the kill dimension of the vector x<sub>man</sub>)
- 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

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

₩

Size & type of context

 $\downarrow$ 

Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

Feature scaling

 $\parallel$ 

Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction



- Geometric interpretation
  - ▶ row vectors as points or arrows in *n*-dim. space
  - very intuitive, good for visualisation
  - use techniques from geometry and linear algebra

- Geometric interpretation
  - row vectors as points or arrows in n-dim. space
  - very intuitive, good for visualisation
  - use techniques from geometry and linear algebra
- Probabilistic interpretation
  - co-occurrence matrix as observed sample statistic
  - "explained" by generative probabilistic model
  - recent work focuses on hierarchical Bayesian models
  - 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
  - intuitive and plausible as topic model

- Geometric interpretation
  - row vectors as points or arrows in n-dim. space
  - very intuitive, good for visualisation
  - use techniques from geometry and linear algebra
- Probabilistic interpretation
  - co-occurrence matrix as observed sample statistic
  - "explained" by generative probabilistic model
  - recent work focuses on hierarchical Bayesian models
  - 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
  - intuitive and plausible as topic model
- focus on geometric interpretation in this tutorial



# Overview of DSM parameters

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



#### Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



Dimensionality reduction



## Feature scaling

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

► Logarithmic scaling:  $x' = \log(x + 1)$  (cf. Weber-Fechner law for human perception)

## Feature scaling

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

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

# Feature scaling

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

- ▶ Logarithmic scaling:  $x' = \log(x+1)$ (cf. Weber-Fechner law for human perception)
- Relevance weighting, e.g. tf.idf (information retrieval)
- Statistical association measures (Evert 2004, 2008) take frequency of target word and context feature into account
  - ▶ the less frequent the target word and (more importantly) the context feature are, the higher the weight given to their observed co-occurrence count should be (because their expected chance co-occurrence frequency is low)
  - ▶ different measures e.g., mutual information, log-likelihood ratio – differ in how they balance observed and expected co-occurrence frequencies

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_1$	$f_2$
dog	small	855	33,338	490,580
dog	domesticated	29	33,338	918

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_1$	$f_2$
dog	small	855	33,338	490,580
dog	domesticated	29	33,338	918

Expected co-occurrence frequency:

$$f_{\text{exp}} = \frac{f_1 \cdot f_2}{N}$$

word <sub>1</sub>	$_{L}$ word $_{2}$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_1$	$f_2$
dog	small	855	33,338	490,580
dog	domesticated	29	33,338	918

Expected co-occurrence frequency:

$$f_{\text{exp}} = \frac{f_1 \cdot f_2}{N}$$

Mutual Information compares observed vs. expected frequency:

$$\mathsf{MI}(w_1, w_2) = \log_2 \frac{f_{\mathsf{obs}}}{f_{\mathsf{exp}}} = \log_2 \frac{N \cdot f_{\mathsf{obs}}}{f_1 \cdot f_2}$$

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_1$	$f_2$
dog	small	855	33,338	490,580
dog	domesticated	29	33,338	918

Expected co-occurrence frequency:

$$f_{\text{exp}} = \frac{f_1 \cdot f_2}{N}$$

Mutual Information compares observed vs. expected frequency:

$$\mathsf{MI}(w_1, w_2) = \log_2 \frac{f_\mathsf{obs}}{f_\mathsf{exp}} = \log_2 \frac{N \cdot f_\mathsf{obs}}{f_1 \cdot f_2}$$

Disadvantage: MI overrates combinations of rare terms.



### Other association measures

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_{\sf exp}$	MI	
dog	small	855	134.34	2.67	
dog	domesticated	29	0.25	6.85	
dog	sgjkj	1	0.00027	11.85	

#### Other association measures

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_{\sf exp}$	MI	local-MI	
dog	small	855	134.34	2.67	2282.88	
dog	domesticated	29	0.25	6.85	198.76	
dog	sgjkj	1	0.00027	11.85	11.85	

The log-likelihood ratio (Dunning 1993) has more complex form, but its "core" is known as local MI (Evert 2004).

local-MI(
$$w_1, w_2$$
) =  $f_{\text{obs}} \cdot \text{MI}(w_1, w_2)$ 

#### Other association measures

$word_1$	$word_2$	$f_{\sf obs}$	$f_{\sf exp}$	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

The log-likelihood ratio (Dunning 1993) has more complex form, but its "core" is known as local MI (Evert 2004).

local-MI(
$$w_1, w_2$$
) =  $f_{\text{obs}} \cdot \text{MI}(w_1, w_2)$ 

The t-score measure (Church and Hanks 1990) is popular in lexicography:

$$t\text{-score}(w_1, w_2) = \frac{f_{\text{obs}} - f_{\text{exp}}}{\sqrt{f_{\text{obs}}}}$$

Details & many more measures: http://www.collocations.de/

# Overview of DSM parameters

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

 $\Downarrow$ 

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing

₩

Size & type of context

 $\Downarrow$ 

Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

Feature scaling

 $\downarrow \downarrow$ 

Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



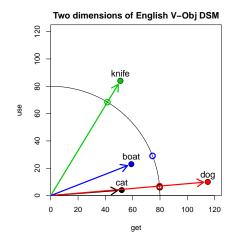
Dimensionality reduction

#### Normalisation of row vectors

- geometric distances only make sense if vectors are normalised to unit length
- divide vector by its length:

$$\mathbf{x}/\|\mathbf{x}\|$$

- normalisation depends on distance measure!
- special case: scale to relative frequencies with ||x||<sub>1</sub> = |x<sub>1</sub>| + ··· + |x<sub>n</sub>|
   → probabilistic interpretation



# Scaling of column vectors

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

mean 
$$\mu=0$$
 variance  $\sigma^2=1$ 

- ▶ 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)
  - scaling may give too much weight to rare features

## Scaling of column vectors

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

mean 
$$\mu=0$$
 variance  $\sigma^2=1$ 

- ▶ 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)
  - 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)

# Overview of DSM parameters

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

$$\Downarrow$$

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



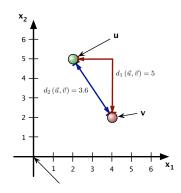
Dimensionality reduction



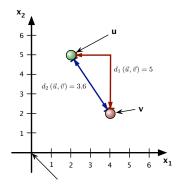
▶ Distance between vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (\text{dis})$ similarity

• 
$$\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$$

$$\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$$

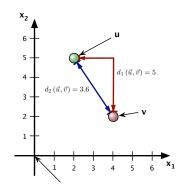


- ▶ Distance between vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (\text{dis})$ similarity
  - $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \ldots, u_n)$
  - $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$
- **Euclidean** distance  $d_2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$



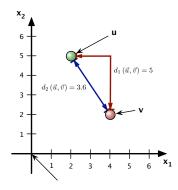
$$d_2(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) := \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + \cdots + (u_n - v_n)^2}$$

- ▶ 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  $d_2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- "City block" Manhattan distance d₁ (u, v)



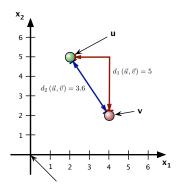
$$d_1(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}) := |u_1 - v_1| + \cdots + |u_n - v_n|$$

- Distance between vectors
   u, v ∈ ℝ<sup>n</sup> → (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 d₁ (u, v)
- ▶ Both are special cases of the Minkowski p-distance  $d_p(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$  (for  $p \in [1, \infty]$ )



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

- ▶ Distance between vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (\text{dis})$ similarity
  - $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$
  - $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$
- **Euclidean** distance  $d_2(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- "City block" Manhattan distance d₁ (u, v)
- ▶ Both are special cases of the Minkowski p-distance d<sub>p</sub> (u, v) (for p ∈ [1, ∞])



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

#### Other distance measures

Information theory: Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence for probability vectors (non-negative, ||x||₁ = 1)

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

#### Other distance measures

▶ Information theory: Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence for probability vectors (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
  - lacktriangle zeroes in  $oldsymbol{v}$  without corresponding zeroes in  $oldsymbol{u}$  are problematic
  - not symmetric, unlike geometric distance measures
  - ▶ alternatives: skew divergence, Jensen-Shannon divergence

#### Other distance measures

▶ Information theory: Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence for probability vectors (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
  - lacktriangle zeroes in  $oldsymbol{v}$  without corresponding zeroes in  $oldsymbol{u}$  are problematic
  - not symmetric, unlike geometric distance measures
  - alternatives: skew divergence, Jensen-Shannon divergence
- A symmetric distance measure (Endres and Schindelin 2003)

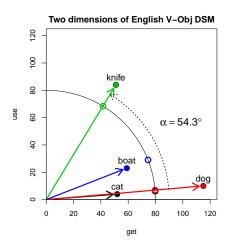
$$D_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}} = D(\mathbf{u}\|\mathbf{z}) + D(\mathbf{v}\|\mathbf{z})$$
 with  $\mathbf{z} = \frac{\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}}{2}$ 



# Similarity measures

▶ angle  $\alpha$  between two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  is given by

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

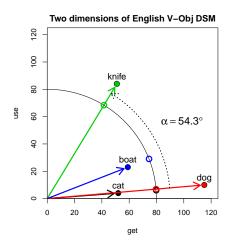


# Similarity measures

▶ angle  $\alpha$  between two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  is given by

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

- cosine measure of similarity: cos α
  - ▶  $\cos \alpha = 1$  → collinear
  - ▶  $\cos \alpha = 0$  → orthogonal



# Overview of DSM parameters

Term-context vs. term-term matrix

$$\Downarrow$$

Definition of terms & linguistic pre-processing



Size & type of context



Geometric vs. probabilistic interpretation



Feature scaling



Normalisation of rows and/or columns



Similarity / distance measure



**Dimensionality reduction** 



## 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)

## 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, . . .
    - ▶ may select correlated (→ uninformative) dimensions
    - joint selection of multiple features is useful but expensive

## 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, . . .
    - ▶ may select correlated (→ uninformative) dimensions
    - 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



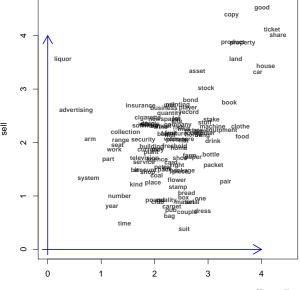
## Dimensionality reduction & latent dimensions

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  $f \ge 20$  (must have non-zero row vectors)
- ightharpoonup n = 2 dimensions: buy and sell

noun	buy	sell
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 & latent dimensions



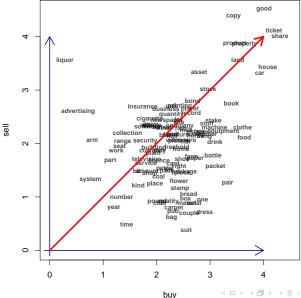
## Motivating latent dimensions & subspace projection

- ► The **latent property** of being a commodity is "expressed" through associations with several verbs: *sell*, *buy*, *acquire*, . . .
- Consequence: these DSM dimensions will be correlated

## 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)
- ▶ 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

# The latent "commodity" dimension



### Outline

The distributional hypothesis

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview

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)

## 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)



## Some well-known DSM examples

### Dependency Vectors (Padó and Lapata 2007)

- term-term matrix with unstructured dependency context
- weighting: log-likelihood ratio
- distance measure: information-theoretic (Lin 1998b)
- 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

### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

#### Using DSM distances

Quantitative evaluation

Software and further information

### Nearest neighbours

DSM based on verb-object relations from BNC, reduced to 100 dim. with SVD

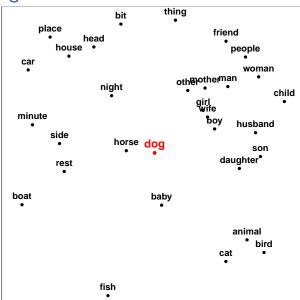
### Neighbours of **dog** (cosine angle):

girl (45.5), boy (46.7), horse(47.0), wife (48.8), baby (51.9), daughter (53.1), side (54.9), mother (55.6), boat (55.7), rest (56.3), night (56.7), cat (56.8), son (57.0), man (58.2), place (58.4), husband (58.5), thing (58.8), friend (59.6), ...

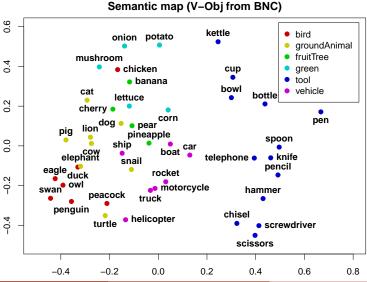
#### Neighbours of **school**:

country (49.3), church (52.1), hospital (53.1), house (54.4), hotel (55.1), industry (57.0), company (57.0), home (57.7), family (58.4), university (59.0), party (59.4), group (59.5), building (59.8), market (60.3), bank (60.4), business (60.9), area (61.4), department (61.6), club (62.7), town (63.3), library (63.3), room (63.6), service (64.4), police (64.7), ...

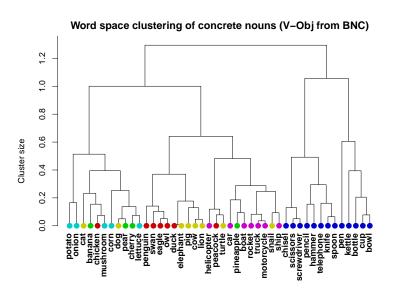
### Nearest neighbours



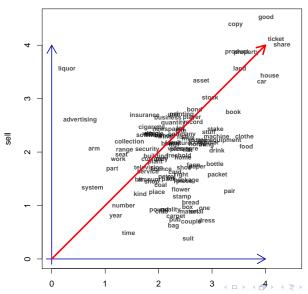
### Semantic maps



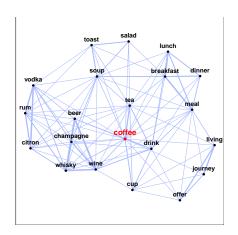
### Clustering



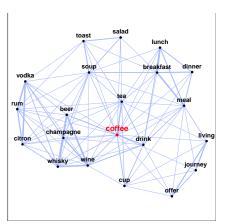
### Latent dimensions

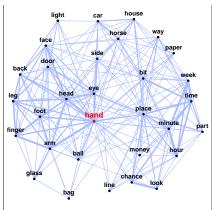


# Semantic similarity graph (topological structure)



# Semantic similarity graph (topological structure)





# Context vectors (Schütze 1998)

Distributional representation only at type level

What is the "average" meaning of mouse? (computer vs. animal)

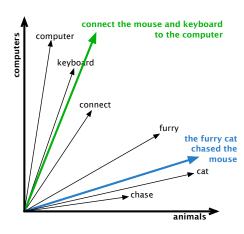
# Context vectors (Schütze 1998)

Distributional representation only at type level

What is the "average" meaning of mouse? (computer vs. animal)

Context vector approximates meaning of individual token

 bag-of-words approach: centroid of all context words in the sentence



### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances

#### Quantitative evaluation

Software and further information

- ► The TOEFL dataset
  - ▶ 80 items
  - Target: levied

Candidates: believed, correlated, imposed, requested

- ► The TOEFL dataset
  - ▶ 80 items
  - ► Target: *levied*

Candidates: believed, correlated, imposed, requested

- The TOEFL dataset
  - 80 items
  - ► Target: levied
    Candidates: believed, correlated, imposed, requested
  - ► Target fashion Candidates: craze, fathom, manner, ration

- The TOEFL dataset
  - 80 items
  - Target: levied
     Candidates: believed, correlated, imposed, requested
  - ► Target fashion
    Candidates: craze, fathom, manner, ration

- The TOEFL dataset
  - ▶ 80 items
  - ► Target: levied Candidates: believed, correlated, imposed, requested
  - Target fashion
     Candidates: craze, fathom, manner, ration
- DSMs and TOEFL
  - 1. take vectors of the target  $(\mathbf{t})$  and of the candidates  $(\mathbf{c}_1 \dots \mathbf{c}_n)$
  - 2. measure the distance between **t** and  $\mathbf{c}_i$ , with  $1 \le i \le n$
  - 3. select  $\mathbf{c}_i$  with the shortest distance in space from  $\mathbf{t}$

### Humans vs. machines on the TOEFL task

► Average foreign test taker: 64.5%

### Humans vs. machines on the TOEFL task

- Average foreign test taker: 64.5%
- Macquarie University staff (Rapp 2004):
  - ► Average of 5 non-natives: 86.75%
  - ► Average of 5 natives: 97.75%

### Humans vs. machines on the TOEFL task

- ► Average foreign test taker: 64.5%
- Macquarie University staff (Rapp 2004):
  - ► Average of 5 non-natives: 86.75%
  - Average of 5 natives: 97.75%
- Distributional semantics
  - Classic LSA (Landauer and Dumais 1997): 64.4%
  - ▶ Padó and Lapata's (2007) dependency-based model: 73.0%
  - ▶ Distributional memory (Baroni and Lenci 2010): 76.9%
  - ▶ Rapp's (2004) SVD-based model, lemmatized BNC: 92.5%
  - ▶ Bullinaria and Levy (2012) carry out aggressive parameter optimization: 100.0%

### Semantic similarity judgments

▶ Rubenstein and Goodenough (1965) collected similarity ratings for 65 noun pairs from 51 subjects on a 0–4 scale

$w_1$	$W_2$	avg. rating
car	automobile	3.9
food	fruit	2.7
cord	smile	0.0

# Semantic similarity judgments

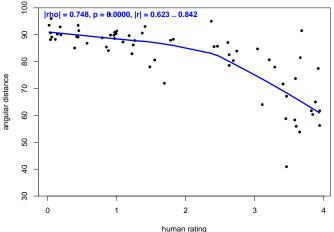
▶ Rubenstein and Goodenough (1965) collected similarity ratings for 65 noun pairs from 51 subjects on a 0–4 scale

$w_1$	$W_2$	avg. rating
car	automobile	3.9
food	fruit	2.7
cord	smile	0.0

- ▶ DSMs vs. Rubenstein & Goodenough
  - 1. for each test pair  $(w_1, w_2)$ , take vectors  $\mathbf{w}_1$  and  $\mathbf{w}_2$
  - 2. measure the distance (e.g. cosine) between  $\mathbf{w}_1$  and  $\mathbf{w}_2$
  - 3. measure (Pearson) correlation between vector distances and R&G average judgments (Padó and Lapata 2007)

# Semantic similarity judgments: example





### Semantic similarity judgments: results

#### Results on RG65 task:

- ▶ Padó and Lapata's (2007) dependency-based model: 0.62
- Dependency-based on Web corpus (Herdağdelen et al. 2009)
  - without SVD reduction: 0.69
  - with SVD reduction: 0.80
- ▶ Distributional memory (Baroni and Lenci 2010): 0.82
- ► Salient Semantic Analysis (Hassan and Mihalcea 2011): 0.86

### Outline

#### Introduction

The distributional hypothesis Three famous DSM examples

#### Taxonomy of DSM parameters

Definition & overview DSM parameters Examples

#### DSM in practice

Using DSM distances
Quantitative evaluation

Software and further information

# Software packages

HiDEx	C++	re-implementation of the HAL model
		(Lund and Burgess 1996)
SemanticVectors	Java	scalable architecture based on random
		indexing representation
S-Space	Java	complex object-oriented framework
JoBimText	Java	UIMA / Hadoop framework
Gensim	Python	complex framework, focus on paral-
		lelization and out-of-core algorithms
DISSECT	Python	user-friendly, designed for research on
		compositional semantics
wordspace	R	interactive research laboratory, but
		scales to real-life data sets

click on package name to open Web page

## Recent conferences and workshops

- 2007: CoSMo Workshop (at Context '07)
- ▶ 2008: ESSLLI Lexical Semantics Workshop & Shared Task, Special Issue of the Italian Journal of Linguistics
- 2009: GeMS Workshop (EACL 2009), DiSCo Workshop (CogSci 2009), ESSLLI Advanced Course on DSM
- 2010: 2nd GeMS (ACL 2010), ESSLLI Workshop on Compositionality and DSM, DSM Tutorial (NAACL 2010), Special Issue of JNLE on Distributional Lexical Semantics
- ▶ 2011: 2nd DiSCo (ACL 2011), 3rd GeMS (EMNLP 2011)
- ▶ 2012: DiDaS (at ICSC 2012)
- ▶ 2013: CVSC (ACL 2013), TFDS (IWCS 2013), Dagstuhl
- ▶ 2014: 2nd CVSC (at EACL 2014)

click on Workshop name to open Web page



#### Further information

- ► Handouts & other materials available from wordspace wiki at http://wordspace.collocations.de/
- based on joint work with Marco Baroni and Alessandro Lenci
- Tutorial is open source (CC), and can be downloaded from http://r-forge.r-project.org/projects/wordspace/
- Review paper on distributional semantics: Turney, Peter D. and Pantel, Patrick (2010). From frequency to meaning: Vector space models of semantics. Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research, 37, 141–188.
- ► I should be working on textbook *Distributional Semantics* for *Synthesis Lectures on HLT* (Morgan & Claypool)

### References I

- Baroni, Marco and Lenci, Alessandro (2010). Distributional Memory: A general framework for corpus-based semantics. Computational Linguistics, 36(4), 673–712.
- Bengio, Yoshua; Ducharme, Réjean; Vincent, Pascal; Jauvin, Christian (2003). A neural probabilistic language model. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 3, 1137–1155.
- Blei, David M.; Ng, Andrew Y.; Jordan, Michael, I. (2003). Latent Dirichlet allocation. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, **3**, 993–1022.
- Bullinaria, John A. and Levy, Joseph P. (2012). Extracting semantic representations from word co-occurrence statistics: Stop-lists, stemming and SVD. Behavior Research Methods, 44(3), 890–907.
- Church, Kenneth W. and Hanks, Patrick (1990). Word association norms, mutual information, and lexicography. *Computational Linguistics*, **16**(1), 22–29.
- Dumais, S. T.; Furnas, G. W.; Landauer, T. K.; Deerwester, S.; Harshman, R. (1988).
  Using latent semantic analysis to improve access to textual information. In CHI '88: Proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on Human factors in computing systems, pages 281–285.
- Dunning, Ted E. (1993). Accurate methods for the statistics of surprise and coincidence. *Computational Linguistics*, **19**(1), 61–74.



### References II

- Endres, Dominik M. and Schindelin, Johannes E. (2003). A new metric for probability distributions. IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, 49(7), 1858–1860.
- Evert, Stefan (2004). The Statistics of Word Cooccurrences: Word Pairs and Collocations. Dissertation, Institut für maschinelle Sprachverarbeitung, University of Stuttgart. Published in 2005, URN urn:nbn:de:bsz:93-opus-23714. Available from http://www.collocations.de/phd.html.
- Evert, Stefan (2008). Corpora and collocations. In A. Lüdeling and M. Kytö (eds.), Corpus Linguistics. An International Handbook, chapter 58. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin, New York,
- Evert, Stefan (2010). Google Web 1T5 n-grams made easy (but not for the computer). In Proceedings of the 6th Web as Corpus Workshop (WAC-6), pages 32-40. Los Angeles. CA.
- Firth, J. R. (1957). A synopsis of linguistic theory 1930-55. In Studies in linguistic analysis, pages 1-32. The Philological Society, Oxford. Reprinted in Palmer (1968), pages 168-205.
- Grefenstette, Gregory (1994). Explorations in Automatic Thesaurus Discovery, volume 278 of Kluwer International Series in Engineering and Computer Science. Springer, Berlin, New York.

### References III

- Harris, Zellig (1954). Distributional structure. *Word*, **10**(23), 146–162. Reprinted in Harris (1970, 775–794).
- Hassan, Samer and Mihalcea, Rada (2011). Semantic relatedness using salient semantic analysis. In Proceedings of the Twenty-fifth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence.
- Herdağdelen, Amaç; Erk, Katrin; Baroni, Marco (2009). Measuring semantic relatedness with vector space models and random walks. In *Proceedings of the 2009 Workshop on Graph-based Methods for Natural Language Processing (TextGraphs-4)*, pages 50–53, Suntec, Singapore.
- Hoffmann, Thomas (1999). Probabilistic latent semantic analysis. In *Proceedings of the Fifteenth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence (UAI'99)*.
- Karlgren, Jussi and Sahlgren, Magnus (2001). From words to understanding. In Y. Uesaka, P. Kanerva, and H. Asoh (eds.), Foundations of Real-World Intelligence, chapter 294–308. CSLI Publications, Stanford.
- Landauer, Thomas K. and Dumais, Susan T. (1997). A solution to Plato's problem: The latent semantic analysis theory of acquisition, induction and representation of knowledge. *Psychological Review*, 104(2), 211–240.

### References IV

- Li, Ping; Burgess, Curt; Lund, Kevin (2000). The acquisition of word meaning through global lexical co-occurences. In E. V. Clark (ed.), The Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Child Language Research Forum, pages 167–178. Stanford Linguistics Association.
- Lin, Dekang (1998a). Automatic retrieval and clustering of similar words. In Proceedings of the 17th International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING-ACL 1998), pages 768–774, Montreal, Canada.
- Lin, Dekang (1998b). An information-theoretic definition of similarity. In *Proceedings* of the 15th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML-98), pages 296–304, Madison, WI.
- Lund, Kevin and Burgess, Curt (1996). Producing high-dimensional semantic spaces from lexical co-occurrence. Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 28(2), 203–208.
- Miller, George A. (1986). Dictionaries in the mind. Language and Cognitive Processes, 1, 171–185.
- Padó, Sebastian and Lapata, Mirella (2007). Dependency-based construction of semantic space models. *Computational Linguistics*, **33**(2), 161–199.

### References V

- Pantel, Patrick and Lin, Dekang (2000). An unsupervised approach to prepositional phrase attachment using contextually similar words. In *Proceedings of the 38th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, Hongkong, China.
- Pantel, Patrick; Crestan, Eric; Borkovsky, Arkady; Popescu, Ana-Maria; Vyas, Vishnu (2009). Web-scale distributional similarity and entity set expansion. In *Proceedings of the 2009 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 938–947, Singapore.
- Rapp, Reinhard (2004). A freely available automatically generated thesaurus of related words. In Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2004), pages 395–398.
- Rooth, Mats; Riezler, Stefan; Prescher, Detlef; Carroll, Glenn; Beil, Franz (1999). Inducing a semantically annotated lexicon via EM-based clustering. In *Proceedings of the 37th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 104–111.
- Rubenstein, Herbert and Goodenough, John B. (1965). Contextual correlates of synonymy. *Communications of the ACM*, **8**(10), 627–633.
- Schütze, Hinrich (1992). Dimensions of meaning. In *Proceedings of Supercomputing '92*, pages 787–796, Minneapolis, MN.



### References VI

- Schütze, Hinrich (1993). Word space. In *Proceedings of Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 5*, pages 895–902, San Mateo, CA.
- Schütze, Hinrich (1995). Distributional part-of-speech tagging. In Proceedings of the 7th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL 1995), pages 141–148.
- Schütze, Hinrich (1998). Automatic word sense discrimination. *Computational Linguistics*, **24**(1), 97–123.
- Turney, Peter D. and Pantel, Patrick (2010). From frequency to meaning: Vector space models of semantics. Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research, 37, 141–188.
- Turney, Peter D.; Littman, Michael L.; Bigham, Jeffrey; Shnayder, Victor (2003). Combining independent modules to solve multiple-choice synonym and analogy problems. In Proceedings of the International Conference on Recent Advances in Natural Language Processing (RANLP-03), pages 482–489, Borovets, Bulgaria.
- Widdows, Dominic (2004). *Geometry and Meaning*. Number 172 in CSLI Lecture Notes. CSLI Publications, Stanford.