# Words and Wordforms

- Lexical items
- Dictionary lookup
- Word segmentation
- Morphological analysis
- Morphophonology
- Lexical semantics
- Distributed representations
- Part-of-speech tagging
- Word-sense disambiguation

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- Word senses
- Relations between word senses
- Thematic roles
- Selectional restrictions
- Lexical decomposition
- Lambda-calculus
- Other meaning representations

- words carry a meaning
- often different senses can be distinguished
- sense: the part of a lexeme that represents word meaning

- ambiguity:
  - senses are category dependent: a book vs. to book
  - the same wordform can be mapped to different lemmas/lexemes

found  $\rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{to found something} \\ \text{to find something} \end{cases}$ 

- ambiguity:
  - senses are category dependent: a book vs. to book
  - the same wordform can be mapped to different lemmas/lexemes

 $\textit{found} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textit{to found something} \\ \textit{to find something} \end{array} \right.$ 

- lemmas are often larger units than single (root) morphemes ongoing, organization, household, ...
  - sometimes the lemma is built out of several wordforms (compounds):

come together, make-up, ...

• in some cases the word sense can be reconstructed from its components

- homonymy:
  - different senses share the same written or spoken form

bank<sup>1</sup> (for money), bank<sup>2</sup> (slopy mould)

- polysemy: special case of homonymy
  - · several semantically related senses for one word

bank<sup>1a</sup> (for money), bank<sup>1b</sup> (for blood), bank<sup>1c</sup> (for sperm), bank<sup>1d</sup> (seeds), bank<sup>1e</sup> (words), ...

- metonymy: special case of polysemy
  - one aspect of an entity is used to refer to other aspects of the entity or to the entity itself

 $bank^{1\times}$  (e.g. for money),  $bank^{3\times}$  (building),  $bank^{4\times}$  (institution)

typical patterns of metonymy

institution for building building for institution capital for government creator for creation animal for meal fruit for tree brand name for product the bank across the street the White House London did not deny it I really love Jane Austen the fish was excellent almonds are not frost resistant the Apple is really cool

- How many senses has a lexeme?
   → semi-formal tests
  - gaps in analogue contexts

big house/large house
but: big brother/\*large brother

- $\rightarrow$  two distinct senses of *big*: big in size/older
- coordination requires semantically comparable conjuncts

Does this flight serve breakfast? Does Midwest serve Philadelphia? \*Does Midwest serve breakfast and Philadelphia?

 $\rightarrow$  two distinct senses of *to serve*: delivering a meal/connecting to a destination

- synonymy: two expressions have almost the same meaning couch / sofa / chaiselonge erbrechen / übergeben Narzisse / Osterglocke Helikopter / Hubschrauber
- antonymy: opposite meaning two types:
  - polarities: opposite extremes on a scale long / short, fast / slow, cold / hot
  - reversives: opposite tendencies, e.g. movement *rise / fall, departure / arrival, up / down*
- hyponymy: subconcept of a superconcept hypernymy = hyponymy<sup>-1</sup> house → building, walking → moving
- meronymy: part of relationship holonymy = meronymy<sup>-1</sup> room ⊂ house, wheel ⊂ car

#### lexical relationships for nouns in WordNet

Relation/Also Called	Definition	Example
Hypernym/Superordinate	From concepts to superordinates	$breakfast^1  o meal^1$
Hyponym/Subordinate	From concepts to subtypes	$meal^1  o lunch^1$
Instance Hypernym/Instance	From instances to their concepts	$Austen^1  o author^1$
Instance Hyponym/Has-Instance	From concepts to concept instances	$composer^1  o Bach^1$
Member Meronym/Has-Member	From groups to their members	$faculty^2  ightarrow professor^1$
Member Holonym/Member-Of	From members to their groups	$copilot^1  o crew^1$
Part Meronym/Has-Part	From wholes to parts	$table^2  ightarrow leg^3$
Part Holonym/Part-Of	From parts to wholes	$course^7  o meal^1$
Substance Meronym	From substances to their subparts	$water^1  ightarrow oxygen^1$
Substance Holonym	From parts of substances to wholes	$gin^1  o martini^1$
Antonym	Semantic opposition between lemmas	$leader^1 \leftrightarrow follower^1$
Derivationally Related Form	Lemmas w/same morphological root	$destruction^1 \leftrightarrow destroy^1$

#### lexical relationships for verbs in WordNet

Relation	Definition	Example
Hypernym	From events to superordinate events	${ m fly}^9  ightarrow { m travel}^5$
Troponym	From events to subordinate event	$walk^1  o stroll^1$
	(often via specific manner)	
Entails	From verbs (events) to the verbs (events) they entail	$snore^1  o sleep^1$
Antonym	Semantic opposition between lemmas	$increase^1 \leftrightarrow decrease^1$
Derivationally	Lemmas with same morphological root	$destroy^1 \leftrightarrow destruction^1$
related form		

- semantic similarity: two senses are near-synonyms or roughly substitutable in context motor / engine, fork / spoon, tall / high, warm / hot
- word relatedness: some semantic relationship between two senses motor / tachometer, spoon / soup, big / small, kaufen / verkaufen
- e.g. antonyms have a high relatedness but low similarity
- semantic similarity is a subcase of word relatedness

- semantic similarity between senses can be computed using the hyponym/hypernym relationship
- counting (and normalizing) the distance between two nodes in the taxonomy

$$length(s_1, s_2) = \min_{s_x} \left| \{s_i \mid s_1 \sqsubseteq s_i \sqsubset s_x \lor s_2 \sqsubseteq s_i \sqsubset s_x \} \right|$$

$$sim(s_1, s_2) = rac{1}{1 + length(s_1, s_2)}$$

 word similarity can be approximated by using the pair of senses that maximizes sense similarity

$$wordsim(w_1, w_2) = \max_{\substack{s_1 \in senses(w_1) \ s_2 \in senses(w_2)}} rac{1}{1 + length(s_1, s_2)}$$

- the purely distance-based similarity metric assumes a unit distance for each edge
- thesaurus-based similiarity metrics can be extended to also consider
  - the depth of embedding of the concepts within the taxonomic hierarchy
  - the information content of the lowest common subsumer (LCS)
    - based on the probability that a randomly selected word instantiates that concept
    - measures the information that both concepts have in common

$$sim(s_1, s_2) = -\log P(LCS(s_1, s_2))$$

• the share of common information among the complete information

$$sim(s_1, s_2) = \frac{common(s_1, s_2)}{all\_info(s_1, s_2)} = \frac{2 \cdot \log P(LCS(s_1, s_2))}{\log P(s_1) + \log P(s_2)}$$

## Semantic Roles

- semantic roles, thematic roles, Θ-roles
  - used to describe the entities participating in an event
  - i.e. the arguments a semantic predicate can take
  - basic elements of event descriptions

Thematic role	Definition	Example
AGENT	The volitional causer of an event.	The waiter spilled the soup.
EXPERIENCER	The experiencer of an event.	John has a headache.
FORCE	A non-volitional causer of an event.	The wind blows debris around.
THEME	The participant mostly affected.	After John opened the meeting
RESULT	The end product of an event.	They have built a new headquarter.
CONTENT	The propositional content.	She asked "Will you be here?"
INSTRUMENT	An instrument used in an event.	He killed the wasp with a spoon.
BENEFICIARY	The beneficiary of an event.	We buy the toys for our children.
SOURCE	The origin of a transfer event.	I flew in from Boston.
GOAL	The destination of a transfer event.	I drove to Portland.

#### Semantic roles

 diathetic variation: thematic roles can be spelled out by means of different syntactic constructions

John<sub>agent</sub> broke the window<sub>theme</sub> with his ball<sub>instrument</sub>. The ball<sub>instrument</sub> broke the window<sub>theme</sub>. The window<sub>theme</sub> broke. The window<sub>theme</sub> was broken by John<sub>agent</sub>.

 thematic grid, Θ-grid, case frame: the set of thematic roles a predicate takes as its arguments

### Semantic roles

- no generally agreeed upon role inventory
- different proposals for more specific roles
  - $\rightarrow$  higher degree of local ambiguity
    - intermediary instruments: can appear in subject position
    - enabling/facilitating instruments: can not

He opened the door with a skeleton key. The skeleton key opened the door.

He ate the fruits with a spoon. \*The spoon ate the fruits.

# Semantic roles

Other proposals

- use of generalized proto roles: Who is doing what to whom? PROTO-AGENT, PROTO-PATIENT, ...  $\rightarrow$  PropBank
- use of abstract semantic roles

 $\operatorname{ARG0}$ ,  $\operatorname{ARG1}$ ,  $\operatorname{ARG2}$ , ...  $\rightarrow \mathsf{PropBank}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  Abstract Meaning Representations

- interpretation is verb specific
- use of verb/frame-specific roles:

to grill (heating event):

 $\rightarrow$  COOK, FOOD, HEATING-INSTRUMENT

 $\rightarrow$  FrameNet, Salsa

- semantic conditions for possible argument slot fillers
- type constraints for the instantiation of a thematic grid

e.g. ANIMATE/INANIMATE, HUMAN/ANIMAL/PLANT, ABSTRACT/CONCRETE, SOLID/FLUID/GASEOUS, MALE/FEMALE, YOUNG/ADULT, ...

to walk  $\rightarrow$  {AGENT:ANIMATE} to drink  $\rightarrow$  {AGENT:HUMAN, THEME:CONCRETE  $\land$  FLUID }

- problems with selectional restrictions
  - granularity: selectional restrictions can be
    - very weak: e.g. THEME of to find
    - very specific: e.g. THEME of to brew
    - difficult to specify: e.g. THEME of to thread
  - metaphor: might violate arbitrary selectional restrictions
    - often in connection with technical artifacts

This house eats up all my money.

• can help to disambiguate between alternative senses

e.g. to serve a dish vs. to serve a destination

- but too coarse grained to recover the meaning from them
- are required to choose among pronouns (he/she vs. it, someone vs. something, who vs. what) in language generation
- can help to resolve anaphorical references

Mary was reading Agatha Cristie. She likes historic English crime stories best.

to read  $\rightarrow$  {AGENT:HUMAN, THEME:(READABLE THING  $\lor$  MIND)} to like  $\rightarrow$  {AGENT:HUMAN, THEME:ALL }

• sometimes even affect the inflection

e.g.	Russian	nouns with a s	stem-final consonant
no	minative	это стол	это студент
ger	nitive	нет стола	нет студента
aco	cusative	я вижу стол	я вижу студента

- sometimes even affect the inflection
  - e.g. Russian nouns with a stem-final consonant

nominative	это стол	это студент
genitive	нет стола	нет студента
accusative	я вижу стол	я вижу студента
ANIMATE: INANIMATE:		} = {gen masc sg} } = {nom masc sg}

- describing the meaning of a word by means of a limited number of basic predicates: BECOME, CAUSE, HAVE, BE... (DOWTY 1979)
  - e.g. to kill: CAUSE(X,BECOME(BE(not(ALIVE(Y)))))

- according to the structure of the meaning representation different lexical aspects (aktionsart) can be distinguished:
  - atelic verbs: have no result
    - states (static): to sit, to have , to enjoy to resemble → BE(SIMILAR(x,y))
    - activities (dynamic): to cry, to laugh, to cough to sleep → DO(SLEEP(x))
  - telic verbs: have a result
    - achievement (instantanious state transition): to arrive, to switch on to die → BECOME(BE(not(ALIVE(x))))
    - accomplishment (gradual state transition): to float, to paint

- whole lexical fields can be represented by means of a single expression
- e.g. change of ownership verbs CAUSE(ACT(x),(BECOME(HAVE(q,u)) ∧ BECOME(not(HAVE(p,u)))))
- the meaning of individual words is derived by
  - perspectivization: putting emphasis on certain parts of the expression,
  - reduction: omitting certain parts of the expression
  - instantiation: unifying two variables

- e.g. emphasis on one of the two conjuncts and unifying  ${\sf x}$  with  ${\sf q}$  or  ${\sf p}$ 

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{CAUSE}(\mathsf{ACT}(\mathsf{q}),(\textbf{BECOME}(\textbf{HAVE}(\textbf{q},\textbf{u})) \land \mathsf{BECOME}(\mathsf{not}(\mathsf{HAVE}(\mathsf{p},\mathsf{u}))))) \\ \rightarrow \textit{to take} \end{array}$ 

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 $CAUSE(ACT(p),(BECOME(HAVE(q,u)) \land BECOME(not(HAVE(p,u)))))$ 

ightarrow to give away

suppressing one of the conjuncts

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{CAUSE}(\mathsf{ACT}(\mathsf{q}),(\mathsf{BECOME}(\mathsf{HAVE}(\mathsf{q},\mathsf{u})))) & \rightarrow \textit{to obtain} \\ \mathsf{CAUSE}(\mathsf{ACT}(\mathsf{p}),(\mathsf{BECOME}(\mathsf{not}(\mathsf{HAVE}(\mathsf{p},\mathsf{u}))))) & \rightarrow \textit{to throw away} \\ \mathsf{CAUSE}(\mathsf{ACT}(\mathsf{q}),(\mathsf{BECOME}(\mathsf{HAVE}(\mathsf{p},\mathsf{u})))) & \rightarrow \textit{besorgen} \\ \mathsf{CAUSE}(\mathsf{ACT}(\mathsf{p}),(\mathsf{BECOME}(\mathsf{not}(\mathsf{HAVE}(\mathsf{q},\mathsf{u}))))) & \rightarrow \textit{erleichtern} \end{aligned}$ 

additionally suppressing the agent
 BECOME(HAVE(q,u)) → to gain
 BECOME(not(HAVE(q,u))) → to loose

# Lambda calculus

- partial meaning representations with free variables
- free variables ...
  - ... have to be instantiated with meaning contributions from other lexical items
  - ... are indicated by a lambda operator

room:  $\lambda x \operatorname{room}(x)$ 

to close:  $\lambda x. \exists e \ close(e) \land closed\_thing(e, x)$ 

to open:  $\lambda w.\lambda z.w(\lambda x.\exists e open(e) \land opener(e, z) \land opened(e, x))$ 

a:  $\lambda P.\lambda Q. \forall x P(x) \land Q(x)$ 

every:  $\lambda P.\lambda Q. \forall x P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ 

• used in the process of semantic construction to build complex meaning representations for complete sentences

 $\rightarrow$  compositional semantics

- translations into a (neutral) language
- paraphrases
  - in particular for lexical derivations (or compounds)

N: <i>X-less</i> :	without X	motion-less
Adj: <i>X-ness</i> :	that Y is X	cool-ness
Adj: <i>X-est</i> :	most like X	high-est
V: X-able:	can be X-ed	burn-able
N: X-chen:	small X	Häus-chen
N: X-schaft:	all X	Studenten-schaft
	that Y is an X	Meister-schaft
Adj: <i>X-schaft</i> :	that Y is X	Bereit-schaft
Adj: <i>X-keit:</i>	that Y is X	Sauber-keit

- usually high degree of ambiguity (many possible paraphrases)
   e.g. -lich, -isch, -ung, -bar, ...
- paraphrases do not allow to derive a formal meaning representation
  - just transformation into a synonymous canonical form
  - "normalization" of natural language utterances
- good for regular/transparent cases: negation, diminuitives
   ... but many cases are intransparent, especially for compounds

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#### semantic features

- *hen* +FEMALE +CHICKEN +ADULT
- rooster -female +chicken +adult
- chick +CHICKEN -ADULT

can be checked for compatibility against the selectional restrictions imposed by a predicate

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- Count-based representations
  - Mutual information
  - Latent semantic analysis
- Prediction-based representations
  - Skip-gram model
  - Continuous bag-of-words
- Text sense representations
- Properties and applications

- semantic similarity is useful for many NLP applications
- e.g. answer clause retrieval for open domain question answering: *tall* ~ *high rapid* ~ *fast*
  - Q: How tall is the Elbphilharmonie?
  - A: The building of the Elbphilharmonie is 110 metres high.

- Can semantic similarity be computed without a thesaurus?
  - a thesaurus is language-specific
  - a thesaurus is a static resource
  - a thesaurus is limited in its coverage
- idea: model semantic similarity based on the contexts in which the words occur
  - the larger the number of common contexts the larger the degree of similarity/relatedness

- based on early linguistic intuitions
- ZELLIG HARRIS (1954): "oculist and eye-doctor ... occur in almost the same environments. ... If A and B have almost identical environments we say that they are synonyms."
- JOHN RUPERT FIRTH (1957): "You shall know a word by the company it keeps!"

- idea: projecting a word into a high-dimensional numerical space
  - · points in this space are generalized descriptions of contexts
  - well-known similarity metrics for numerical spaces exist
- How to compute the coordinates in such a space from raw texts?
  - $\rightarrow$  another instance of unsupervised machine learning

	sparse	dense			
count-based	pointwise mutual information	latent semantic analysis			
prediction-based		skip-gram, continuous bag-of-words			
taxonomically informed	text sense representations				

- representing contexts as sparse co-occurrence vectors
  - using a sliding window of fixed length e.g.  $\pm 2$
  - count how often the wordform in the middle of the window co-occurs with the other wordforms in the window
- sample text

Whether the weather be fine or whether the weather be not. Whether the weather be cold or whether the weather be hot. We'll weather the weather whether we like it or not.

• content of the sliding window

whether	the	weather	be	fine
the	weather	be	fine	or
weather	be	fine	or	whether
be	fine	or	whether	the

. . .

co-occurrence matrix

		be	cold	fine	hot	ĿĿ.	like	not	or	the	we	weathe	whethe	will
		2			1			2	1	1	1		1	1
be	2		1	1	1			1	2	4		4		
cold		1							1			1	1	
fine		1							1			1	1	
hot	1	1									1	1		
it							1	1	1	1				
like						1			1		1		1	
not	2	1				1			1			1	1	
or	1	2	1	1		1	1	1		2			2	
the	1	4							2			6	5	1
we	1				1	1	1					2	1	1
weather		4	1	1	1			1		6	2	2	5	1
whether	1		1	1			1	1	2	5	1	5		
will	1									1	1	1		

Words and Wordforms

Distributed representations

e Ð

- co-occurrence matrix need not be quadratic
  - context can be restricted to a subset of preselected wordforms
- similarity in a high dimensional vector space can be computed as the cosine between two vectors
  - independent of the vector length
  - abstracting away the absolute frequency

$$sim(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}^{T}}{|\vec{x}| \cdot |\vec{y}|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \cdot y_{i}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}^{2}}}$$

• frequency-based similarity

veather whether cold ine Jot ike ğ che vill ٨e e ۲ ''10 0 362 0 535 0 534 0 400 0 535 0 401 0 356 0 630 0 469 0 254 0 704 0 345 0 267 0 452 0 452 0 452 0 226 0 150 0 502 0 462 0 496 0 524 0 572 0 954 0 754 be 0.363 1.0 0.5 0.25 cold 0.534 0.452 1.0 1.0 0.5 0.667 0.471 0.933 0.474 0.580 0.452 0.25 fine 0 534 0 452 1 0 10 0.5 0.25 0.5 0 667 0 471 0 933 0 474 0 580 0 452 0 25 hot 0.401 0.452 0.5 0.25 0.666 0.354 0.604 0.474 0.421 0.452 0.75 0.5 1.0 0.25 it 0.534 0.226 0.25 0.25 1.0 0.5 0.167 0.236 0.110 0.158 0.158 0.323 0.25 0.25 like 0.401 0.151 0.5 0.5 0.25 0.5 10 0.5 0 354 0 384 0 316 0 369 0 194 0 25 0.550 0.695 0.632 0.386 0.387 0.5 not 0.356 0.503 0.667 0.667 0.667 0.167 0.5 1.0or 0.630 0.462 0.471 0.471 0.354 0.236 0.354 0.550 1.0 0 492 0 373 0 820 0 456 0 354 the 0 469 0 496 0 933 0 933 0 604 0 110 0 384 0 695 0 492 1 0 0 659 0 625 0 496 0 384 we 0 254 0 524 0 474 0 474 0 474 0 158 0 316 0 632 0 373 0 659 1 0 0.367 0.490 0.474 weather 0 704 0 572 0 580 0 580 0 422 0 158 0 369 0 386 0 820 0 625 0 367 1 0 0 612 0 527 whether 0.345 0.954 0.452 0.452 0.452 0.323 0.194 0.387 0.456 0.496 0.490 0.612 1.0 0 775 will 0.267 0.754 0.25 0.25 0.75 0.25 0.25 0.354 0.384 0.474 0.527 0.775 1.0 0.5

• frequency-based similarity

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- raw co-occurrence counts are not very informative
  - function words are frequent but do not discriminate between senses
  - alternative: pointwise positive mututal information (PPMI)
    - amount of information a context word provides about the target word
- pointwise mutual information (PMI): one word contributes information about another, if they occur more often together than by chance

$$PMI(w_1, w_2) = \log_2 \frac{P(w_1, w_2)}{P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2)}$$

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Probability of occuring together

$$PMI(w_1, w_2) = \log_2 \frac{\overbrace{P(w_1, w_2)}}{P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2)}$$

Probability of independent occurrence

- Positive PMI: negative values are replaced by zero
  - negative values would be a measure of unrelatedness
  - highly unreliable estimates

$$PMI(w_1, w_2) = \max\left(\log_2 \frac{P(w_1, w_2)}{P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2)}, 0\right)$$

• PPMI matrix

whether veather ploc fine will lot ike lõt che We 9 O G Ъ ÷ 0.786 0 1 786 0 1 979 0 202 0 0.787 0 0 1.787 0 0 be 0.787 0 1.109 1.109 1.109 0 0.301 0.524 0.861 0.524 0 0 0 0 cold 0 1.109 0 1.524 0 0.524 0.939 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 fine 0 1 109 0 0 0 0 0 1.524 0 0.524 0.939 0 0 0 hot 1.786 1.109 0 0 0 0 n 0 2.109 0.524 0 0 0 0 3.109 2.301 1.524 0 it 0 0 0 2 109 0 0 0 0 0 like 0 0 0 0 3 109 0 0 1 524 0 2 109 0 0 939 0 2.301 0 0.716 0 not 1.979 0.301 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.131 0 or 0 202 0 524 1 524 1 524 0 1.524 1.524 0.716 0 0 276 0 0.354 0 0 0.861 0 0.276 0 the 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.861 1.013 0.861 2.109 2.109 2.109 0 0.524 0 we 0.787 0 0 0 0 2.1090 weather 0 0 524 0 524 0 524 0 524 0 0 0 0 0 861 0 524 0 0 676 0 524 0.939 0.939 0 0.939 0.131 0.354 1.013 0 whether 0 0 0 0.676 0 0 will 1.787 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.861 2.109 0.524 0 0

• PPMI matrix

whether veather cold fine will lot like lõt che We 9 O G Ъ ÷ 0.786 0 1 786 0 1 979 0 202 0 0.787 0 0 1.787 0 0 be 0.787 0 1.109 1.109 1.109 0 0.301 0.524 0.861 0 0.524 0 0 0 cold 0 1.109 0 1.524 0 0.524 0.939 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 fine 0 1 109 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 524 0 0.524 0.939 0 0 hot 1.786 1.109 0 0 0 0 n 2.109 0.524 0 0 0 0 0 it 0 0 0 3 109 2 301 1 524 0 2 109 0 0 0 0 0 like 0 0 0 0 3 109 0 0 1 524 0 2 109 0 0 939 0 2.301 0 0.716 0 not 1.979 0.301 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.131 0 or 0 202 0 524 1 524 1 524 0 1 524 1 524 0 716 0 0 276 0 0.354 0 0 0.861 0 0.276 0 the 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.861 1.013 0.861 2.109 2.10900.524 0 we 0.787 0 2.1090 0 0 2.1090 weather 0 0 524 0 524 0 524 0 524 0 0 0 0 0 861 0 524 0 0 676 0 524 0.939 0.131 0.354 1.013 0 whether 0 0 0.939 0.939 0 0 0.676 0 0 will 1.787 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0.861 2.109 0.524 0 0

- word embeddings: rows are used as distributed word representations
  - encode the information contribution of words in the context to the meaning of the target word

• PPMI similarity

whethe veathei plo ine Nill Jot ike not ihe Ň be Ъ . 1.000 0.330 0.160 0.160 0.246 0.411 0.139 0.036 0.167 0.366 0.512 0.470 0.047 0.166 be 0.330 1.000 0.207 0.207 0.233 0.134 0.080 0.258 0.521 0.137 0.314 0.617 0.717 0.345 cold 0 160 0 207 1 000 1 000 0 229 0 230 0 355 0 228 0 131 0 702 0 029 0 332 0 199 0 043 fine 0.160 0.207 1.000 1.000 0.229 0.230 0.355 0.228 0.131 0.702 0.029 0.332 0.199 0.043 hot 0 246 0 233 0 229 0 229 1 000 0 316 0 353 0 408 0 097 0 255 0 129 0 331 0 057 0 890 it 0 411 0 134 0 230 0 230 0 316 1 000 0 349 0 075 0 426 0 050 0 325 0 141 0 390 0 324 like 0.139 0.080 0.355 0.355 0.353 0.349 1.000 0.641 0.379 0.181 0.364 0.248 0.063 0.363 not 0 036 0 258 0 228 0 228 0 408 0 075 0 641 1 000 0 408 0 103 0 473 0 047 0 039 0 383 or 0.167 0.521 0.131 0.131 0.097 0.426 0.379 0.408 1.000 0.138 0.474 0.433 0.703 0.063 the 0.366 0.137 0.702 0.702 0.255 0.049 0.181 0.103 0.138 1.000 0.288 0.516 0.180 0.084 we 0.512 0.314 0.029 0.029 0.129 0.325 0.364 0.473 0.474 0.288 1.000 0.303 0.261 0.132 weather 0.470 0.617 0.332 0.332 0.331 0.141 0.248 0.047 0.433 0.516 0.303 1.000 0.532 0.372 whether 0.047 0.717 0.199 0.199 0.057 0.390 0.063 0.039 0.703 0.180 0.261 0.532 1.000 0.202 will 0 166 0 345 0 043 0 043 0 890 0 324 0 363 0 383 0 063 0 084 0 132 0 372 0 202 1 000

• PPMI similarity

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- a (slightly) more realistic example (JURAFSKY AND MARTIN, forthcoming)
- co-occurrence counts for four sample words from the Brown corpus

	aardvark	 computer	data	pinch	result	sugar	
apricot	0	 0	0	1	0	1	
pineapple	0	 0	0	1	0	1	
digital	0	 2	1	0	1	0	
information	0	 1	6	0	4	0	

• the corresponding (local) joint probabilities

		context words					
		computer	data	pinch	result	sugar	P(w)
	apricot	0	0	0.05	0	0.05	0.11
words	pineapple	0	0	0.05	0	0.05	0.11
Ŵ	digital	0.11	0.05	0	0.05	0	0.21
	information	0.05	0.32	0	0.21	0	0.58
	P(cw)	0.16	0.37	0.11	0.26	0.11	

• and the corresponding (local) PPMI values

	computer	data	pinch	result	sugar
apricot	0	0	2.05	0	2.05
pineapple	0	0	2.05	0	2.05
digital	1.71	0	0	0	0
information	0	0.58	0	0.48	0

Words and Wordforms

Distributed representations

- rare combinations are overemphasized
  - probability of the context words needs to be downscaled:

$$P'(cw) = P(cw)^{lpha}$$

- varying the size of the window results in different kinds of word vectors
  - $\pm 1 \dots 3$  results tend to reflect syntactic similarities
  - $\pm 4 \dots 10$  results tend to reflect semantic similarities
- vectors model co-occurrence, not similarity!

- two kinds of co-occurrence between two words (SCHÜTZE AND PEDERSEN, 1993)
  - first-order co-occurrence (syntagmatic association): two words which typically can be found in close proximity e.g. wrote / poem
  - second-order co-occurrence (paradigmatic association): words with similar neighbors

e.g. wrote / said / remarked

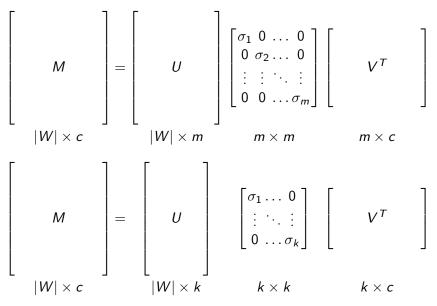
- PPMI embeddings are sparse
  - length of the vector depends on the number of types in the training corpus
- learning does not enforce the abstraction from wordforms to the underlying concepts
  - one wordform can be used to represent different concepts tree  $\rightarrow$  plant  $\lor$  data structure
  - one concept can be expressed by different wordforms program, software, code
    - $\rightarrow$  piece of text written in a programming language
- reducing the vector length yields more dense representations
  - but: simply cutting off the vector leads to a loss of information
  - required: reducing the dimensionality with a minimal loss of information
  - ightarrow latent semantic analysis

- also called latent semantic indexing
- applies singular value decomposition to create a new semantic space
  - with a given dimensionality,
  - with the dimensions pointing into the directions that maximize the variance of the data and
  - ranking the dimensions with respect to their variance, i.e. informativeness
- allows to reduce the number of dimensions by cutting off the least important ones
- enforces to abstract from wordforms to their underlying concepts
- makes the word embeddings dense
- partly neutralizes the curse of dimensionality

- starts with a m × n matrix M which maps wordforms to the wordforms in their context
  - *M* is not necessarily quadratic
  - but for wordform co-occurrence it typically is
- *M* is decomposed into three components

 $M = U \cdot S \cdot V^T$ 

- U: matrix of eigenvectors describing wordforms as vectors of derived orthogonal factors ("concepts")
- V<sup>T</sup>: matrix of eigenvectors describes context wordforms as vectors of derived orthogonal factors
- S:  $m \times m$  diagonal matrix of (non-zero) singular values (scaling factors) with  $m = \min(|W|, c)$



Words and Wordforms

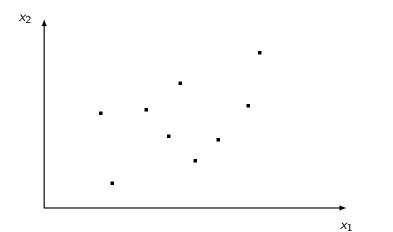
Distributed representations

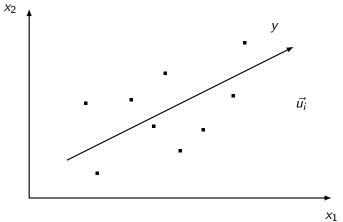
- to obtain dense representations k should be
  - much smaller than the number of types |W| and context words c
  - large enough to accomodate all the relevant structure in the data
  - small enough to suppress the irrelevant details ("noise")
- typical value: 500 ... 5000

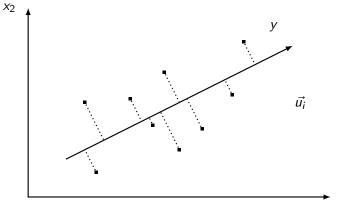
• each column vector  $\vec{u_i}$  in U contains the coefficients of a linear equation which transforms the values  $\vec{x}$  in the old coordinate system into the value of a single new dimension y of the new one

$$y_i = \vec{u_i} \cdot \vec{x}^T = u_{i1}x_1 + u_{i2}x_2 + \ldots + u_{ik}x_k$$

- choose  $U_i$  in a way that y has the largest possible variance
  - the linear equation defines a new axis in the direction of maximum variance
- the transformation corresponds to a rotation of the coordinate system



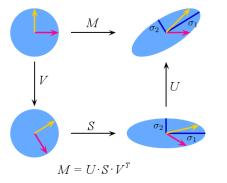




 $x_1$ 

Distributed representations

- the three matrices correspond to three subtasks
  - U: rotate the axes into the direction of maximal variance
  - S: rescale the axes to achieve equal variance
  - V: rotate the input vectors according to the new axes

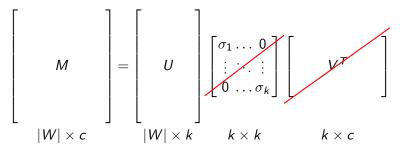


(Wikimedia Commons)

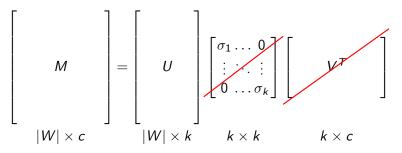
- the row vectors of U are used as word embeddings
- the two other matrices are not needed for that purpose

$$\begin{bmatrix} & M \\ & M \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U \\ & U \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & 0 \dots & \sigma_k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} & V^T \\ & V^T \end{bmatrix}$$
$$|W| \times c \qquad |W| \times k \qquad k \times k \qquad k \times c$$

- the row vectors of U are used as word embeddings
- the two other matrices are not needed for that purpose

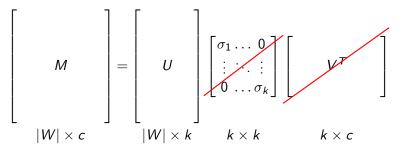


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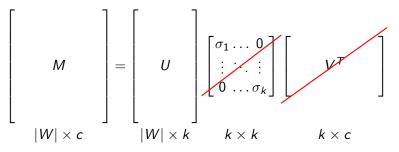
most serious problem:

- the row vectors of U are used as word embeddings
- the two other matrices are not needed for that purpose



• most serious problem: scaling up

- the row vectors of U are used as word embeddings
- the two other matrices are not needed for that purpose



- most serious problem: scaling up
  - LSA is prohibitively expensive for large matrices
  - complete co-occurence matrix needs to be available (off-line learning)

### Prediction-based representations

- LSA needs the complete co-occurrence matrix to transform it into a distributed representation
- on-line learning procedures take one training item at a time and adapt the model incrementally to better fit that item
- architecture of the system inspired by neural network-based language models
  - language model predict the next wordform based on the *n* preceding ones
  - assumption: embeddings which make good predictions about neighboring words will be semantically similar

## Prediction-based representations

- two different approaches
  - skip-gram
  - continuous bag-of-words
- both represent input wordforms as one-hot vectors

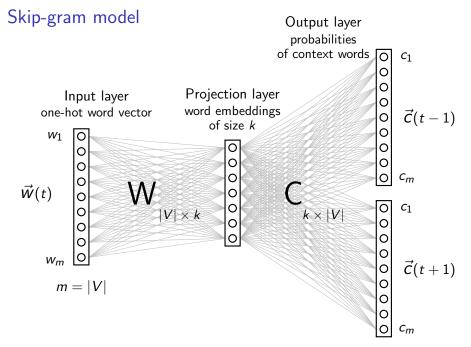
 $(0 \dots 0 1 0 \dots 0)$ 

• both use the soft-max function to map scores to probability distributions

$$P(x_i) = \frac{e^{s_i}}{\sum_j e^{s_j}}$$

- context wordforms are captured from a (symmetric) window of prespecified size
- idea can be extended from wordforms to phrases, sentences, and texts

- predicts the probability P(c<sub>j</sub>|w<sub>i</sub>) of a context word c<sub>j</sub> given a certain token w<sub>i</sub>
- the model maintains two matrices
  - word embeddings W: mapping input wordforms to embeddings
  - context embeddings C: mapping embeddings to context wordforms
- both share the same projection layer
- the context embeddings *C* are shared by all the wordforms in the context window
- the projection layer is just a linear combination of the input/output
  - no (non-linear) activation function



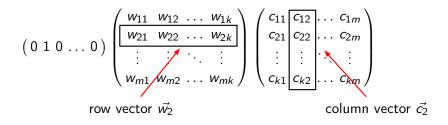
- the probability  $P(c_j|w_i)$  is computed by
  - multiplying the input one-hot vector with the word matrix W yielding the corresponding embedding for the wordform, i.e. a row vector wi
  - multiplying  $\vec{w_i}$  with the context matrix C yielding a score for every context word
    - each score is the result of the dot product  $\vec{w_i} \cdot \vec{c_i}$
    - $\vec{c_j}$  is the column vector of the corresponding context wordform  $c_j$
  - transforming the vector of scores into a probability distribution

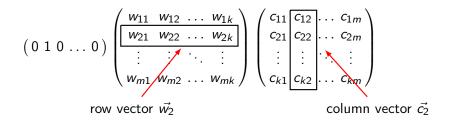
$$P(c_j|w_i) = \frac{e^{\vec{w_i} \cdot \vec{c_j}}}{e^{\sum_{i=1}^n \vec{w_i} \cdot \vec{c_j}}}$$

$$(0\ 1\ 0\ \dots\ 0) \begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \dots & w_{1k} \\ \hline w_{21} & w_{22} & \dots & w_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{m1} & w_{m2} & \dots & w_{mk} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{k1} & c_{k2} & \dots & c_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

Words and Wordforms

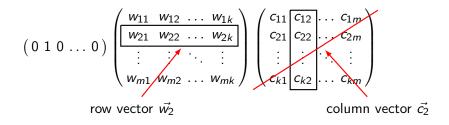
Distributed representations





• only the word embeddings are needed

Distributed representations



• only the word embeddings are needed

Distributed representations

- online learning (MIKOLOV ET AL. 2013)
- incremental adaptation of the weight matrices
  - iteratively making the embeddings for a word more similar to the embeddings of its neighbors
  - starting with randomly chosen values for  $\boldsymbol{W}$  and  $\boldsymbol{C}$
  - modifying the matrices with a stochastic gradient descent search
  - maximizing the (naïve) training objective

$$\log \sigma(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{c}^{T})$$

with 
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$

Words and Wordforms

- the naïve optimization criterion has a trivial solution
  - maximum similarity is achieved, if all embeddings share the same point in the semantic space
  - needs to be counterbalanced by making the embedding less similar to contexts that have not been observed
- more distant context words are less influential than immediate neighbors
  - need to be downsampled

#### negative sampling

- replacing the context wordforms by randomly chosen alternatives
  - 5 ... 20 for small data sets
  - 2 ... 5 for large data sets
- positive training sample

whether the weather be fine

negative training samples

although	а	weather	yesterday	jumps
he	not	weather	meeting	spring
time	long	weather	go	why

. . .

• modified training objective

$$\log \sigma(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{c}^{T}) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}_{w_i \sim P(w)}[\log \sigma(-\vec{w} \cdot \vec{c_i}^{T})]$$

with c<sub>i</sub>: distracting noise wordforms

- output nodes are treated as logistic regression classifiers
  - trained to distinguish positive samples from noise
  - objective no longer consists in maximizing the prediction probability P(c<sub>j</sub>|w<sub>i</sub>)
  - but ultimate goal is not prediction, but the training of informative vector representations

- negative sampling has a welcome side effect: only the actual word and a limited number of randomly sampled nodes need to be updated
  - saves computational effort
  - makes training independent of vocabulary size
- alternative: hierarchical soft-max
  - organizing the output layer as a binary tree that assigns probabilities to wordforms
  - substantial speed-up at the most time-critical computation
    - only  $\log_2 |W|$  output nodes need to be evaluated
  - but performance highly depends on the structure of the tree

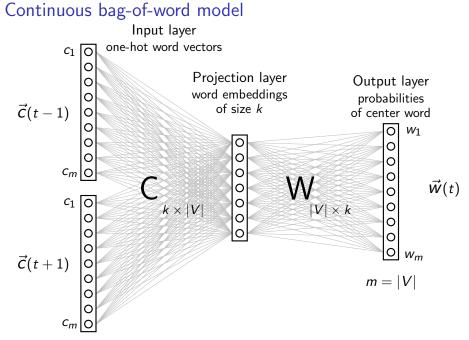
- frequent (function) words occur often but provide little information e.g. *the* can be combined with nearly every noun
  - downsampling by e.g.

$$P(w_i) = 1 - \sqrt{\frac{t}{f(w_i)}}$$

• "parameter tuning is still a bit of an art: context size, number of dimensions, training algorithm, ..." (MIKOLOV 2014)

# Continuous bag-of-word model

- predicts the center wordform based on its context
- the projection layer is shared by all words in the context
  - contributions of the different context words is averaged
- input from a symmetric context window
  - information from "past" and "future" wordforms is considered
- the order of the wordforms in the history is not relevant for the projection



#### Words and Wordforms

• training effort

Model	Vector	Training	Training	Accuracy
	Dimensionality	Words	Time	[%]
Collobert NNLM	50	660M	2 months	11
Turian NNLM	200	37M	few weeks	2
Mnih NNLM	100	37M	7 days	9
Mikolov RNNLM	640	320M	weeks	25
Huang NNLM	50	990M	weeks	13
Skip-gram (hier.s.)	1000	6B	hours	66
CBOW (negative)	300	1.5B	minutes	72

- Google 20K questions dataset (word based, both syntax and semantics)
- Almost all models are trained on different datasets

 ${\rm Mikolov}~2014$ 

Words and Wordforms

### • training can be highly parallel

Model	Vector	Training	Accuracy [%]		Training time	
	Dimensionality	words			[days x CPU cores]	
			Semantic	Syntactic	Total	
NNLM	100	6B	34.2	64.5	50.8	14 x 180
CBOW	1000	6B	57.3	68.9	63.7	2 x 140
Skip-gram	1000	6B	66.1	65.1	65.6	2.5 x 125

Mikolov et al. 2013

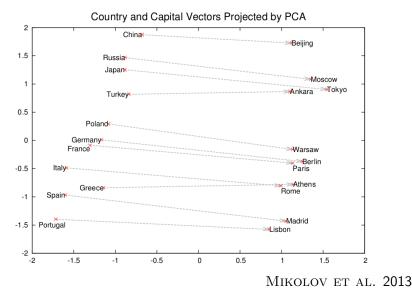
• word similarity/relatedness (nearest neighbors)

	Redmond	Havel	graffiti	capitulate
	conyers	plauen	cheesecake	abdicate
Collobert NNLM	lubbock	dzerzhinsky	gossip	accede
	keene	osterreich	dioramas	rearm
	McCarthy	Jewell	gunfire	-
Turian NNLM	Alston	Arzu	emotion	-
	Cousins	Ovitz	impunity	-
	Podhurst	Pontiff	anaesthetics	Mavericks
Mnih NNLM	Harlang	Pinochet	monkeys	planning
	Agarwal	Rodionov	Jews	hesitated
	Redmond Wash.	Vaclav Havel	spray paint	capitulation
Skip-gram	Redmond Washington	president Vaclav Havel	grafitti	capitulated
(phrases)	Microsoft	Velvet Revolution	taggers	capitulating

 $\operatorname{Mikolov}$  2014

Words and Wordforms

topological patterns



Words and Wordforms

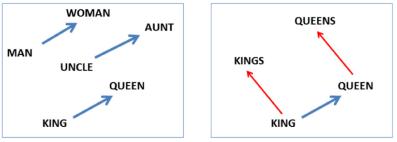
• analogies: 
$$r(a, b) \sim r(c, X)$$

e.g. capital(paris, france)  $\sim$  capital(italy, X)

• can be computed as  $\vec{a} - \vec{b} + \vec{c} \approx \vec{X}$ 

e.g. semantic:  $King - Man + Woman \approx Queen$ 

e.g. morpho-syntactic:  $\textit{King} - \textit{Kings} + \textit{Queens} \approx \textit{Queen}$ 



JURAFSKY AND MARTIN (FORTHCOMING)

- the Google 20K word pair test set
  - 5 types of semantic relationships (8869 token pairs)
  - 9 types of syntactic relationships (10675 token pairs)

Type of relationship	Word Pair 1		Word Pair 2	
Common capital city	Athens	Greece	Oslo	Norway
All capital cities	Astana	Kazakhstan	Harare	Zimbabwe
Currency	Angola	kwanza	Iran	rial
City-in-state	Chicago	Illinois	Stockton	California
Man-Woman	brother	sister	grandson	granddaughter
Adjective to adverb	apparent	apparently	rapid	rapidly
Opposite	possibly	impossibly	ethical	unethical
Comparative	great	greater	tough	tougher
Superlative	easy	easiest	lucky	luckiest
Present Participle	think	thinking	read	reading
Nationality adjective	Switzerland	Swiss	Cambodia	Cambodian
Past tense	walking	walked	swimming	swam
Plural nouns	mouse	mice	dollar	dollars
Plural verbs	work	works	speak	speaks

### Mikolov et al. 2013

#### Words and Wordforms

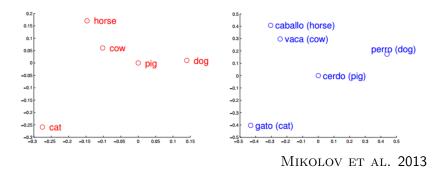
### the 3 most similar word pairs (skip-gram, 300 dimensions, trained on 7

(skip-gram, 300 dimensions, trained on 783 million token)

Relationship	Example 1	Example 2	Example 3
France - Paris	Italy: Rome	Japan: Tokyo	Florida: Tallahassee
big - bigger	small: larger	cold: colder	quick: quicker
Miami - Florida	Baltimore: Maryland	Dallas: Texas	Kona: Hawaii
Einstein - scientist	Messi: midfielder	Mozart: violinist	Picasso: painter
Sarkozy - France	Berlusconi: Italy	Merkel: Germany	Koizumi: Japan
copper - Cu	zinc: Zn	gold: Au	uranium: plutonium
Berlusconi - Silvio	Sarkozy: Nicolas	Putin: Medvedev	Obama: Barack
Microsoft - Windows	Google: Android	IBM: Linux	Apple: iPhone
Microsoft - Ballmer	Google: Yahoo	IBM: McNealy	Apple: Jobs
Japan - sushi	Germany: bratwurst	France: tapas	USA: pizza

MIKOLOV ET AL. 2013

• similar topological pattern across language boundaries



- a mapping (scaling and rotating) can be trained
- the mapping can be extrapolated to unknown words

applications: including additional features into different processing tasks

tagging, parsing, semantic disambiguation, sentiment detection, question answering, information retrieval, ...

- domain adaptation, e.g. for machine translation
  - data selection approach: finding domain-specific sentences in a large general corpus
    - determine the sentence-to-sentence similarity between in-domain data and general data
    - include the most similar sentences from the general corpus into the in-domain data
    - train a domain-specific translation system on the extended corpus of in-domain data

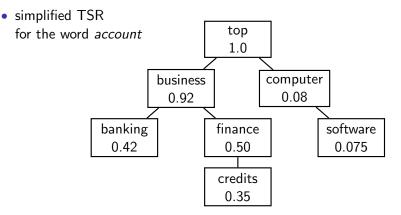
- resource-based approach (WINNEMÖLLER 2009)
- representing the meaning contribution of a word by all the contexts in which it appears in a webdirectory
  - e.g. open directory project (ODP) now: DMOZ (directory.mozilla.org)
  - yahoo! Directory

- web directory/web catalogue
  - browsable taxonomy of web-pages
  - manually compiled knowledge base
  - hierarchically organized
  - contains short textual annotations of nodes
- web directories
  - are overlapping, i.e. they do not partition the world
  - are not comprehensive, i.e. provide a subjective snapshot of what the author has considered as relevant
  - are not balanced, i.e. can have completely different kinds of concepts as siblings

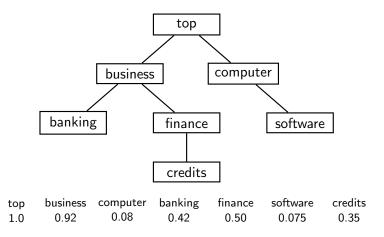
e.g. *artificial intelligence, fonts, games, open source* as subcategories of *computers* 

- WITTGENSTEIN (1953): lexical meaning is based on Familienähnlichkeit (family likeness/resemblance)
  - lexical meaning cannot be broken down into a set of homogenous semantic features, but consists of a network of overlapping features that are shared by some, but not all aspects of a category,
     c.f. the concept of a "game"
  - often the meaning of a word is determined through its use and the circumstances of its use

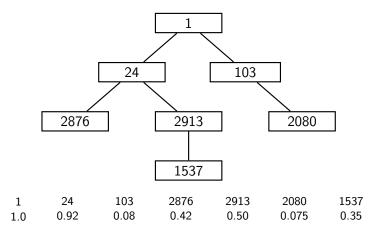
- texts sense representations are weighted trees, consisting of all paths leading to the occurrence of a word in a node annotation
- the weights are normalized relevance estimates based on frequency counts (tf-idf measures)



separating structure from weights



replacing wordforms by index numbers



- linguistic interpretation of TSRs
  - depth, width, size: specific vs general terms
  - "similarity": cosine between two vectors
    - only structurally matching nodes considered
    - measures similarity of use contexts, not similar meaning!
- TSRs for complex phrases can be composed using algebraic operations (union, intersection, negation, difference, top-most, ...)
- TSRs capture hidden connotations
  - e.g. relationship between everyday concepts and film or book titles

- application to
  - language identification
  - word sense disambiguation
- problems

- application to
  - language identification
  - word sense disambiguation
- problems
  - web directories are noisy
  - web directories are not stable
    - Yahoo! directory service closed in December 2014