

TTIC 31190: Natural Language Processing

Kevin Gimpel
Winter 2016

Lecture 14: Introduction to Computational Semantics

Announcements

- if you haven't emailed me to set up a 15-minute meeting to discuss your project proposal, please do so
 - times posted on course webpage
 - let me know if none of those work for you
- Assignment 3 due Feb 29
- email me to sign up for your (10-minute) class presentation on 3/3 or 3/8

Roadmap

- classification
- words
- lexical semantics
- language modeling
- sequence labeling
- neural network methods in NLP
- syntax and syntactic parsing
- semantic compositionality
- semantic parsing
- unsupervised learning
- machine translation and other applications

Roadmap

- classification
- words
- lexical semantics
- language modeling
- sequence labeling
- neural network methods in NLP
- syntax and syntactic parsing
- **computational semantics (today)**
 - compositionality
 - semantic parsing
- machine translation (Thursday)
- other NLP applications (next Tuesday)

Compositional Semantics

- “how should the meanings of words combine to create the meaning of something larger?”
- there’s currently a lot of work in producing vector representations of sentences and documents
- simplest case: how should two word vectors be combined to create a vector for a bigram?
- explosion of work in this area in the neural network era, but earlier work began ~2007

Evaluating Compositional Semantics

- compute similarity of two bigrams under your model, then compute correlation with human judgments:

| | | BigramSim |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|
| television programme | tv set | 5.8 |
| training programme | education course | 5.7 |
| bedroom window | education officer | 1.3 |

(Mitchell and Lapata, 2010)



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Composition in Distributional Models of Semantics

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Received 6 May 2009; received in revised form 22 March 2010; accepted 25 March 2010

Abstract

Vector-based models of word meaning have become increasingly popular in cognitive science. The appeal of these models lies in their ability to represent meaning simply by using distributional information under the assumption that words occurring within similar contexts are semantically similar. Despite their widespread use, vector-based models are typically directed at representing words in isolation, and methods for constructing representations for phrases or sentences have received little attention in the literature. This is in marked contrast to experimental evidence (e.g., in sentential priming) suggesting that semantic similarity is more complex than simply a relation between isolated words. This article proposes a framework for representing the meaning of word combinations in vector space. Central to our approach is vector composition, which we operationalize in terms of additive and multiplicative functions. Under this framework, we introduce a wide range of composition models that we evaluate empirically on a phrase similarity task.

Bigram Composition Functions

J. Mitchell, M. Lapata/Cognitive Science 34 (2010)

Table 5

Composition functions considered in our experiments

| Model | Function |
|----------------------|---|
| Additive | $p_i = u_i + v_i$ |
| Kintsch | $p_i = u_i + v_i + n_i$ |
| Multiplicative | $p_i = u_i \cdot v_i$ |
| Tensor product | $p_{i,j} = u_i \cdot v_j$ |
| Circular convolution | $p_i = \sum_j u_j \cdot v_{i-j}$ |
| Weighted additive | $p_i = \alpha v_i + \beta u_i$ |
| Dilation | $p_i = v_i \sum_j u_j u_j + (\lambda - 1) u_i \sum_j u_j v_j$ |
| Head only | $p_i = v_i$ |
| Target unit | $p_i = v_i(t_1 t_2)$ |

Bigram Similarity Results

J. Mitchell, M. Lapata/Cognitive Science 34 (2010)

Table 6

Correlation coefficients of model predictions with subject similarity ratings (Spearman's ρ) using a simple semantic space

| Model | Adjective–Noun | Noun–Noun | Verb–Object |
|-------------------|----------------|-----------|-------------|
| Additive | .36 | .39 | .30 |
| Kintsch | .32 | .22 | .29 |
| Multiplicative | .46 | .49 | .37 |
| Tensor product | .41 | .36 | .33 |
| Convolution | .09 | .05 | .10 |
| Weighted additive | .44 | .41 | .34 |
| Dilation | .44 | .41 | .38 |
| Target unit | .43 | .34 | .29 |
| Head only | .43 | .17 | .24 |
| Humans | .52 | .49 | .55 |

Why does multiplication work?

- these vectors are built from co-occurrence counts (like in the first part of Assignment 2)
- so element-wise multiplication is like performing an AND operation on context counts
- when using skip-gram word vectors (or other neural network-derived vectors), addition often works better

A Comparison of Vector-based Representations for Semantic Composition

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Abstract

In this paper we address the problem of modeling compositional meaning for phrases and sentences using distributional methods. We experiment with several possible combinations of representation and composition, exhibiting varying degrees of sophistication. Some are shallow while others operate over syntactic structure, rely on parameter learning, or require access to very large corpora. We find that shallow approaches are as good as more computationally intensive alternatives with regards to two particular tests: (1) phrase similarity and (2) paraphrase detection. The sizes of the involved training corpora and the

word sense discrimination (Schütze, 1998), language modeling (Bellegarda, 2000), and the identification of analogical relations (Turney, 2006).

While much research has been directed at the most effective ways of constructing representations for individual words, there has been far less consensus regarding the representation of larger constructions such as phrases and sentences. The problem has received some attention in the connectionist literature, particularly in response to criticisms of the ability of connectionist representations to handle complex structures (Smolensky, 1990; Plate, 1995). More recently, several proposals have been put forward for computing the meaning of word combina-

Results

| | dim. | c.m. | Adj-N | N-N | V-Obj |
|--------------|------|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| SDS (BNC) | 2000 | + | 0.37 | 0.38 | 0.28 |
| | 2000 | ⊙ | 0.48 | 0.50 | 0.35 |
| | 100 | RAE | 0.31 | 0.30 | 0.28 |
| NLM (BNC) | 50 | + | 0.28 | 0.26 | 0.24 |
| | 50 | ⊙ | 0.26 | 0.22 | 0.18 |
| | 100 | RAE | 0.19 | 0.24 | 0.28 |

Table 3: Correlation coefficients of model predictions with subject similarity ratings (Spearman’s ρ); columns show dimensionality: fixed or varying (see Section 2.1), composition method: + is additive vector composition, \odot is component-wise multiplicative vector composition, RAE is Socher et al. (2011a)’s recursive auto-encoder.

SDS = simple
distributional
semantic

NLM = neural
language model

Topical

Paraphrastic

Bigrams

BigramSim
(Mitchell and Lapata, 2010)

Topical

Paraphrastic

Bigrams

BigramSim
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| | | BigramSim |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|
| television programme | tv set | 5.8 |
| training programme | education course | 5.7 |
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Topical

Paraphrastic

Bigrams

BigramSim

(Mitchell and Lapata, 2010)

BigramPara

(Wieting et al., 2015)

| | | BigramSim | BigramPara |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| television programme | tv set | 5.8 | 1.0 |
| training programme | education course | 5.7 | 5.0 |
| bedroom window | education officer | 1.3 | 1.0 |

Topical

Paraphrastic

PhrasePara

| | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|-----|
| can not be separated from | is inseparable from | 5.0 |
| hoped to be able to | looked forward to | 3.4 |
| come on , think about it | people , please | 2.2 |
| how do you mean that | what worst feelings | 1.6 |

Phrases

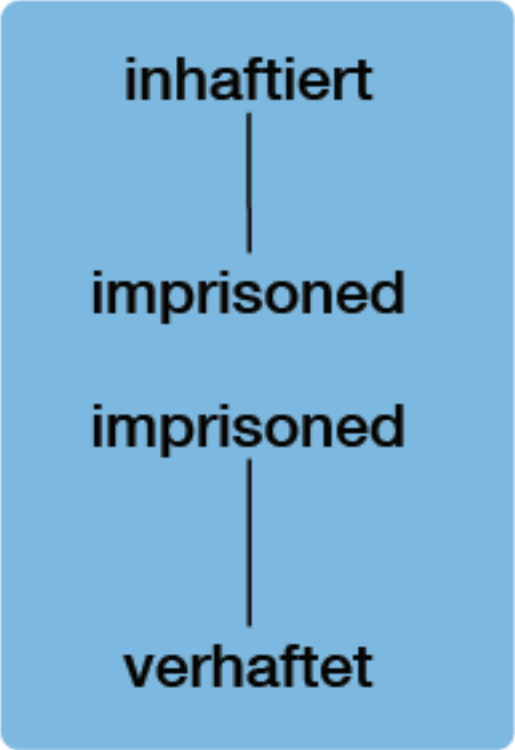
PhrasePara
(Wieting et al., 2015)

Training Data: Paraphrase Database

(Ganitkevitch, Van Durme, and Callison-Burch, 2013)

journalisten wurden
/ /
journalists have been

... harrassed and
/ /
... ausgesetzt und



, ebenso auch ...
/ /
, as have ...

, can not ...

.

from Ganitkevitch and Callison-Burch (2014)

- currently there is a lot of work on designing functional architectures for bigram, phrase, and sentence similarity
 - e.g., word averaging, recurrent neural networks, LSTMs, recursive neural networks, etc.
- our recent results find that, for sentence similarity, word averaging is a surprisingly strong baseline

TOWARDS UNIVERSAL PARAPHRASTIC SENTENCE EMBEDDINGS

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| Model | Pavlick et al. (2015) (test) |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| PARAGRAM-PHRASE | 60.0 |
| iRNN | 60.0 |
| projection | 58.4 |
| DAN | 60.1 |
| RNN | 60.3 |
| LSTM (o.g.) | 60.9 |
| LSTM (no o.g.) | 61.3 |
| skip-thought | 39.3 |
| GloVe | 44.8 |
| PARAGRAM-SL999 | 55.3 |

on similar data to training data, LSTM does best

word
averaging



adding layers
to word
averaging



| Dataset | 50% | 75% | Max | PP | iRNN | proj. | DAN | RNN | LSTM (o.g.) | LSTM (no o.g.) | ST | GloVe | PSL |
|------------------|------|------|------|-------------|------|-------------|-------------|------|----------------|-------------------|------|-------|------|
| STS 2012 Average | 54.5 | 59.5 | 70.3 | 58.7 | 58.4 | 60.0 | 56.0 | 48.1 | 46.4 | 51.0 | 30.8 | 52.5 | 52.8 |
| STS 2013 Average | 45.3 | 51.4 | 65.3 | 55.8 | 56.7 | 56.8 | 54.2 | 44.7 | 41.5 | 45.2 | 24.8 | 42.3 | 46.4 |
| STS 2014 Average | 64.7 | 71.4 | 76.7 | 70.9 | 70.9 | 71.3 | 69.5 | 57.7 | 51.5 | 59.8 | 31.4 | 54.2 | 59.5 |
| STS 2015 Average | 70.2 | 75.8 | 80.2 | 75.8 | 75.6 | 74.8 | 72.7 | 57.2 | 56.0 | 63.9 | 31.0 | 52.7 | 60.0 |
| 2014 SICK | 71.4 | 79.9 | 82.8 | 71.6 | 71.2 | 71.6 | 70.7 | 61.2 | 59.0 | 63.9 | 49.8 | 65.9 | 66.4 |
| 2015 Twitter | 49.9 | 52.5 | 61.9 | 52.9 | 52.9 | 52.8 | 53.7 | 45.1 | 36.1 | 47.6 | 24.7 | 30.3 | 36.3 |

but when evaluating on other datasets,
word averaging models do best!

“You can’t cram the meaning of a whole sentence into a single vector!”

--Ray Mooney

“You can’t map all sentences into a cold, sterile space of meaningless, uninterpretable dimensions. Symbolic representations can encode meaning much more efficiently.”

--my interpretation

“You can’t cram the meaning of a whole sentence into a single vector!”

--*Ray Mooney*

Why must we choose?

Neural architectures for text understanding can combine discrete (symbolic) and continuous representations

Syntax and Semantics

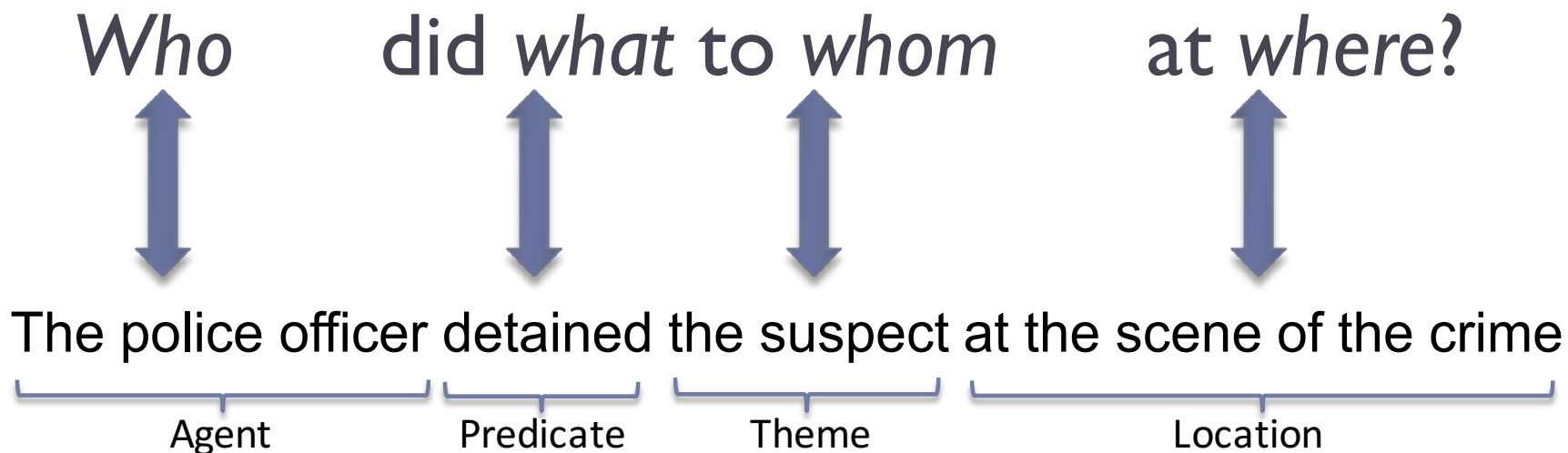
- **syntax**: rules, principles, processes that govern sentence structure of a language
- **semantics**: what the sentence means

- we saw syntactic parsing, which produces a syntactic structure of a sentence
 - helps to disambiguate attachments, coordinations, sometimes word sense
- now we'll look at semantic parsing, which roughly means “produce a semantic structure of a sentence”

Several Kinds of Semantic Parsing

- semantic role labeling (SRL)
- frame-semantic parsing
- “semantic parsing” (first-order logic)
- abstract meaning representation (AMR)
- dependency-based compositional semantics

Semantic Role Labeling



Can we figure out that these have the same meaning?

XYZ corporation **bought** the stock.

They **sold** the stock to XYZ corporation.

The stock was **bought** by XYZ corporation.

The **purchase** of the stock by XYZ corporation...

The stock **purchase** by XYZ corporation...

A Shallow Semantic Representation: Semantic Roles

Predicates (bought, sold, purchase) represent an **event**
semantic roles express the abstract role that arguments of a predicate can take in the event



Getting to semantic roles

Neo-Davidsonian event representation:

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Sasha broke the window | $\exists e, x, y \text{ Breaking}(e) \wedge \text{Breaker}(e, \text{Sasha})$ $\wedge \text{BrokenThing}(e, y) \wedge \text{Window}(y)$ |
| Pat opened the door | $\exists e, x, y \text{ Opening}(e) \wedge \text{Opener}(e, \text{Pat})$ $\wedge \text{OpenedThing}(e, y) \wedge \text{Door}(y)$ |

Subjects of break and open: **Breaker** and **Opener**

Deep roles specific to each event (breaking, opening)

Hard to reason about them for applications like QA

Thematic roles

- **Breaker** and **Opener** have something in common!
 - Volitional actors
 - Often animate
 - Direct causal responsibility for their events
- Thematic roles are a way to capture this semantic commonality between *Breakers* and *Eaters*
 - they are both AGENTS
- The *BrokenThing* and *OpenedThing* are THEMES.
 - prototypically inanimate objects affected in some way by the action

A Typical Set of Thematic Roles

| Thematic Role | Definition | Example |
|---------------|---|--|
| AGENT | The volitional causer of an event | <i>The waiter</i> spilled the soup. |
| EXPERIENCER | The experiencer of an event | <i>John</i> has a headache. |
| FORCE | The non-volitional causer of the event | <i>The wind</i> blows debris from the mall into our yards. |
| THEME | The participant most directly affected by an event | Only after Benjamin Franklin broke <i>the ice</i> ... |
| RESULT | The end product of an event | The city built a <i>regulation-size baseball diamond</i> ... |
| CONTENT | The proposition or content of a propositional event | Mona asked “ <i>You met Mary Ann at a supermarket?</i> ” |
| INSTRUMENT | An instrument used in an event | He poached catfish, stunning them <i>with a shocking device</i> ... |
| BENEFICIARY | The beneficiary of an event | Whenever Ann Callahan makes hotel reservations <i>for her boss</i> ... |
| SOURCE | The origin of the object of a transfer event | I flew in <i>from Boston</i> . |
| GOAL | The destination of an object of a transfer event | I drove <i>to Portland</i> . |

Problems with Thematic Roles

Hard to create standard set of roles or formally define them

Often roles need to be fragmented to be defined.

Levin and Rappaport Hovav (2015): two kinds of INSTRUMENTS

intermediary instruments that can appear as subjects

The cook opened the jar with the new gadget.

The new gadget opened the jar.

enabling instruments that cannot

Shelly ate the sliced banana with a fork.

*The fork ate the sliced banana.

Alternatives to thematic roles

- 1. Fewer roles:** generalized semantic roles, defined as prototypes (Dowty 1991)

PROTO-AGENT

PROTO-PATIENT

[PropBank](#)

- 2. More roles:** Define roles specific to a group of predicates

[FrameNet](#)

Semantic role labeling (SRL)

- The task of finding the semantic roles of each argument of each predicate in a sentence.
- FrameNet versus PropBank:

[You] can't [blame] [the program] [for being unable to identify it]
COGNIZER TARGET EVALUEE REASON

[The San Francisco Examiner] issued [a special edition] [yesterday]
ARG0 TARGET ARG1 ARGM-TMP

History

- semantic roles as a intermediate semantics, used early in
 - machine translation (Wilks, 1973)
 - question-answering (Hendrix et al., 1973)
 - spoken-language understanding (Nash-Webber, 1975)
 - dialogue systems (Bobrow et al., 1977)
- early SRL systems
 - Simmons 1973, Marcus 1980:
 - parser followed by hand-written rules for each verb
 - dictionaries with verb-specific case frames (Levin 1977)

Why Semantic Role Labeling?

- A useful shallow semantic representation
- Improves NLP tasks like:
 - question answering
Shen and Lapata 2007, Surdeanu et al. 2011
 - machine translation
Liu and Gildea 2010, Lo et al. 2013

PropBank

- Palmer, Martha, Daniel Gildea, and Paul Kingsbury. 2005. The Proposition Bank: An Annotated Corpus of Semantic Roles. *Computational Linguistics*, 31(1):71–106

PropBank Roles

Following Dowty 1991

Proto-Agent

- Volitional involvement in event or state
- Sentience (and/or perception)
- Causes an event or change of state in another participant
- Movement (relative to position of another participant)

Proto-Patient

- Undergoes change of state
- Causally affected by another participant
- Stationary relative to movement of another participant

PropBank Roles

- Following Dowty 1991
 - Role definitions determined verb by verb, with respect to the other roles
 - Semantic roles in PropBank are thus verb-sense specific.
- Each verb sense has numbered argument: Arg0, Arg1, Arg2, ...
 - Arg0: PROTO-AGENT
 - Arg1: PROTO-PATIENT
 - Arg2: usually: benefactive, instrument, attribute, or end state
 - Arg3: usually: start point, benefactive, instrument, or attribute
 - Arg4 the end point
 - (Arg2-Arg5 are not really that consistent, causes a problem for labeling)*

PropBank Frame Files

agree.01

Arg0: Agreeer

Arg1: Proposition

Arg2: Other entity agreeing

Ex1: [Arg0 The group] *agreed* [Arg1 it wouldn't make an offer].

Ex2: [ArgM-TMP Usually] [Arg0 John] *agrees* [Arg2 with Mary]
[Arg1 on everything].

Advantage of a ProbBank Labeling

increase.01 “go up incrementally”

Arg0: causer of increase

Arg1: thing increasing

Arg2: amount increased by, EXT, or MNR

Arg3: start point

Arg4: end point

This would allow us to see the commonalities in these 3 sentences:

[Arg0 Big Fruit Co.] increased [Arg1 the price of bananas].

[Arg1 The price of bananas] was increased again [Arg0 by Big Fruit Co.]

[Arg1 The price of bananas] increased [Arg2 5%].

Modifiers or adjuncts of the predicate: Arg-M

| | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|---|
| ArgM-TMP | when? | yesterday evening, now |
| LOC | where? | at the museum, in San Francisco |
| DIR | where to/from? | down, to Bangkok |
| MNR | how? | clearly, with much enthusiasm |
| PRP/CAU | why? | because ... , in response to the ruling |
| REC | | themselves, each other |
| ADV | miscellaneous | |
| PRD | secondary predication | ...ate the meat raw |

Capturing descriptions of the same event by different nouns/verbs

[Arg1 The price of bananas] increased [Arg2 5%].

[Arg1 The price of bananas] rose [Arg2 5%].

There has been a [Arg2 5%] rise [Arg1 in the price of bananas].

FrameNet

- Baker et al. 1998, Fillmore et al. 2003, Fillmore and Baker 2009, Ruppenhofer et al. 2006
- Roles in PropBank are specific to a verb
- Role in FrameNet are specific to a **frame**: a background knowledge structure that defines a set of frame-specific semantic roles, called **frame elements**,
 - includes a set of predicates that use these roles
 - each word evokes a frame and profiles some aspect of the frame

“Change position on a scale” Frame

frame consists of words that indicate change of ITEM’s position on a scale (the ATTRIBUTE) from starting point (INITIAL VALUE) to end point (FINAL VALUE)

[ITEM Oil] *rose* [ATTRIBUTE in price] [DIFFERENCE by 2%].

[ITEM It] has *increased* [FINAL_STATE to having them 1 day a month].

[ITEM Microsoft shares] *fell* [FINAL_VALUE to 7 5/8].

[ITEM Colon cancer incidence] *fell* [DIFFERENCE by 50%] [GROUP among men].

steady increase [INITIAL_VALUE from 9.5] [FINAL_VALUE to 14.3] [ITEM in dividends]

[DIFFERENCE 5%] [ITEM dividend] *increase...*

“Change position on a scale” Frame

| | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|-------------|-----------------|
| VERBS: | dwindle | move | soar | escalation | shift |
| advance | edge | mushroom | swell | explosion | tumble |
| climb | explode | plummet | swing | fall | |
| decline | fall | reach | triple | fluctuation | ADVERBS: |
| decrease | fluctuate | rise | tumble | gain | increasingly |
| diminish | gain | rocket | | growth | |
| dip | grow | shift | NOUNS: | hike | |
| double | increase | skyrocket | decline | increase | |
| drop | jump | slide | decrease | rise | |

“Change position on a scale” Frame

Core Roles

| | |
|---------------|--|
| ATTRIBUTE | The ATTRIBUTE is a scalar property that the ITEM possesses. |
| DIFFERENCE | The distance by which an ITEM changes its position on the scale. |
| FINAL_STATE | A description that presents the ITEM’s state after the change in the ATTRIBUTE’s value as an independent predication. |
| FINAL_VALUE | The position on the scale where the ITEM ends up. |
| INITIAL_STATE | A description that presents the ITEM’s state before the change in the ATTRIBUTE’s value as an independent predication. |
| INITIAL_VALUE | The initial position on the scale from which the ITEM moves away. |
| ITEM | The entity that has a position on the scale. |
| VALUE_RANGE | A portion of the scale, typically identified by its end points, along which the values of the ATTRIBUTE fluctuate. |

Some Non-Core Roles

| | |
|----------|--|
| DURATION | The length of time over which the change takes place. |
| SPEED | The rate of change of the VALUE. |
| GROUP | The GROUP in which an ITEM changes the value of an ATTRIBUTE in a specified way. |