# **Textual Similarity for Word Sequences**

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**Abstract.** In this work, we introduce new kinds of sentence similarity, called *Euclid similarity* and *Levenshtein similarity*, to capture both word sequences and semantic aspects. This is especially useful for Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) so that we could retrieve SNS texts, short sentences or something including collocations. We show the usefulness of our approach by some experimental results.

**Keywords:** Euclid similarity · Levenshtein similarity · Semantic textual similarity

## **1 Introduction**

Nowadays there exist a variety of documents spread over internet. One of the typical examples is Social Networking Service (SNS), which is provided through some platform to build community or social relations among people sharing interests, activities, backgrounds or real-life connections in terms of messages, tweets or documents (*Wiki*). A social network service is provided using some mechanisms such as Blog and Twitter, some profiles and social links. These messages are characteristic because they consist of short texts chained many followers (or *retweets*), contain a few duplicate but special buzzwords (i.e., lol, :)) and ignore grammatical rules very often.

Information retrieval for these kinds of information have been widely discussed. Among others, a model of *Bag-of-Words* is common in text information processing. That is, every document is described as a vector over words with an assumption of Distributed Semantic Model (DSM) [\[5\]](#page-5-0) which means words in similar contexts carry similar semantics. However, there exist serious deficiencies for SNS texts since sentences in SNS are generally short and sparse so that word sequences may carry characteristic semantics. For example, in two statements "I hope to marry her" and "I hope to divorce her", we have same words except one, thus the statements have completely different semantics.

In this work, we introduce new kinds of similarity, *Euclid similarity* and *Levenshtein similarity* between sentences to provide a new approach towards information retrieval of sentences including BLOG/Twitter. The basic idea comes from *semantic* distance. Euclid similarity allows us to obtain better similarity based on multiple word expression (as n-gram and collocation) considered

<sup>-</sup>c Springer International Publishing Switzerland 2015

G. Amato et al. (Eds.): SISAP 2015, LNCS 9371, pp. 244–249, 2015.

DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-25087-8 23

as a unit. They happen to co-occur often closely positioned. We also introduce semantic similarity into Levenshtein distance and the new difference of two words reflect the similarity. This provides us with independence of sentence length for similarity. In fact, we may have same context but much differnce of size<sup>[1](#page-1-0)</sup> and we see the approach works better than dependent ones.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we describe semantic similarity for sentences as well as some related works. Section 3 contains a framework of our approach including extended Levenshtein distance. Section 4 contains some experimental results. In section 5 we conclude this work.

### **2 Semantic Similarity**

*Semantic Textual Similarity* (STS) provides us with new kinds of text retrieval. In fact, it allows us to capture semantic structure directly by means of word/phrase sense and the interrelationship same as grammatical structure instead of word distribution (Bag-Of-Words, BOW) model. For instance, *a small elephant looks at a big ant* is completely different in size from *a big elephant looks at a small ant*, but the two are same from the viewpoint of BOW model.

Here we like to focus attention on sequences as a new feature. The typical issue is *collocation*, which is a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance (*WIKI*). Note that an *idiom* means a phrase carrying semantics different from the constituents[2](#page-1-1), and that *collocation* means an expression of several words which likely happens more often<sup>[3](#page-1-2)</sup>.

On the contrary, we have different expression to describe identical situation. For example, two sentences "His lecture came across well." and "His lecture resonated well." talk about identical fact since come across means resonate though different length. We should examine words and collocation enough for powerful retrieval.

There have been several work of the similarity proposed so far. Tubaki et al. discuss a fundamental model based on word-vector space and sentence structures[\[5\]](#page-5-0). In fact, they examine model how to learn word description using sentence structure optimization and decomposition, and propose semantic similarity defined by kernel functions.

Islam et al. has proposed another similarity putting attention on word strings and word similarity[\[2](#page-5-1)]. By this approach *miss-spell* aspects could be involved.

Feng et al. has discussed similarity between sentences using *similarity of word sequences*[\[1](#page-5-2)]. The approach provides us with some improvement caused by short sentences, although they ignore collocation aspects. However, let us note that these approach show the results depending on the length (the number of words) heavily. Also no discussion is found about collocation.

<span id="page-1-0"></span><sup>1</sup> Some texts of different size talk about same content many times: "Please don't let this get you down", "Keep fighting and never give up", "Be strong". Love from Britain, Dec.12, 2014 in FaceBook message for Julia Lipnitskaya.

<span id="page-1-1"></span> $^2$  " $\!I$   $eat$   $eyeball"$  means " $\!I$   $am$   $scolded"$  but not have any food.

<span id="page-1-2"></span><sup>3</sup> We may say "*something like that*" more likely as a custom.

## **3 Semantic Distance**

In this section, we discuss how we should think about semantic distance between sentences putting attention on *sequence* of words and introduce 2 kinds of similarity, *Euclid similarity* and *Levenshtein similarity* to do that. Here we consider similarity as a certain value in  $0 \sim 1$  and the smaller value means less similar.

### **3.1 Euclid Similarity**

Assume word similarity  $Sim_E(w_i, \bar{w}_i)$  for any two words  $w_i$  and  $\bar{w}_i$  and we like to extend the definition for capturing sentence similarity between  $S_1, S_2$ . If both  $S_1, S_2$  contain the same number (say, k) of words where each *i*-th word is  $w_i$ and  $\bar{w}_i$  respectively. Then we define the similarity  $Sim_E(S_1, S_2)$ , called *Euclid* 

Similarly, as follows: 
$$
Sim_E(S_1, S_2) = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k Sim(w_i, \bar{w}_i)^2}}{k}, w_i \in S_1, \bar{w}_i \in S_2.
$$

Next, let us define similarity of any two sentences using Euclid similarity. Note we assume the same number of words in two sentences in the definition of Euclid similarity. In a sentence S, we call consecutive n words in S by a *shingle*. To introduce the similarity, first we decompose the two sentences into the same number  $(k)$  of shingles, and then we give the similarity between the two shingles.

In English, it is well-known that any collocation  $(n\text{-gram})$  may carry its own meaning with the length at most  $n = 4$ . We decompose S into the sequence of shingles of  $n = 1, \dots, 4$  so that we have  $s/4 \sim s$  shingles. To decompose two sentences  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  into k shingles, we obtain possible range of the decomposition and select the common possibility suitable for both  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ .

We obtain two ranges  $I_1, I_2$  for  $S_1, S_2$  respectively and calculate a new range  $I_0$  as  $I_1 \cap I_2$  We say the similarity is 0 if no possibility is found (i.e.,  $I_0 = \phi$ ).

For each k in  $I_0$ , we decomopose  $S_1, S_2$  into k shingles  $(w_1, \ldots, w_k)$  and  $(w'_1,..,w'_k)$ . Let  $w, \bar{w}$  be two shingles and define the similarity  $Sim_E(w, \bar{w})$  of the two shingles. Any shingle may or may not contain collocations which we can be see by examining dictionary. If the case, we put the constituent words together into one so that we still consider the shingle as a sequence of words. When we have several collocations in the shingle, we *make* copies of shingle containing different collocations to obtain similarity alternatively. Now the similarity  $Sim_E(w, \bar{w})$  is defined as follows:  $Sim_E(w, \bar{w}) = \max_{i,j} Path(a_i, b_j)$ . Here

 $a_i, b_j$  mean each word/collocation in w and  $\bar{w}$  respectively, none of the two is *stopword* or something like that<sup>[4](#page-2-0)</sup>.  $Path(a_i, b_j)$  is calculated using WordNet<sup>[5](#page-2-1)</sup>[\[4\]](#page-5-3).

### **3.2 Levenshtein Similarity**

Here let us introduce another kind of sentence similarity *Levenshtein similarity*, denoted by  $Sim<sub>L</sub>(S<sub>1</sub>, S<sub>2</sub>)$ . Compared to Euclid similarity, we examine all the pairs of words appeared in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  while keeping word sequences.

<span id="page-2-0"></span>In our approach, we extract only nouns and verbs so that, for instance, pronouns are removed.

<span id="page-2-1"></span><sup>5</sup> <http://wordnet.princeton.edu/>

For sentences  $S_1, S_2$ , we define *Levenshtein similarity* between  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , denoted by  $Sim<sub>L</sub>(S<sub>1</sub>, S<sub>2</sub>)$ , as follows:



In the definition we examine WordNet many times for whole sentence. This means our Levenshtein definition captures semantic similarity instead of character matching. Let us note we examine all the word pairs looking at WordNet.

#### **3.3 Using Semantic Distances**

Clearly it is hard to decide how well we obtain sentence similarity, because the result depends on contexts, domains and language nature. In this work, we model the situation by a parameter  $\lambda$  as well as the two similarities where  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.0$ :  $Sim(S_1, S_2) = \lambda \times Sim_E(S_1, S_2) + (1 - \lambda) \times Sim_L(S_1, S_2).$ 

The parameter  $\lambda$  tells us how well sequences give similarity, it is impossible to estimate  $\lambda$  automatically. In the following section, we show some experimental results of our model.

### **4 Experiments**

In this experiment, we examine 30 pairs of nouns among 65 pairs discussed in [\[3](#page-5-4)] and referred in [\[1](#page-5-2)], [\[2\]](#page-5-1), [\[3\]](#page-5-4). Then we have interpreted these nouns with the *first* interpretation in the Collins Cobuild dictionary  $\delta$  and applied TreeTagger<sup>[7](#page-3-1)</sup> for morphological processing in advance.

We examine extended semantic distance. We construct Levenshtein similarity distinguishing nouns from verbs by giving weight 0.5 for Euclid similarity, 0.3 for Levenshtein similarity on nouns and 0.2 for Levenshtein similarity on verbs. These values have been devised through preliminary experiments.

To evaluate the experiment, we examine precision of ranking proposed by [\[3\]](#page-5-4) with two baseline results  $[1], [2]$  $[1], [2]$  $[1], [2]$ .

Let us illustrate all the results of Precisions and Ranking in tables [1](#page-4-0) and [3](#page-4-1) respectively. In table [1,](#page-4-0) TopRank means the number of pairs ranked highly. A table [1](#page-4-0) shows that, compared to our result, Islam approach works 10 percent worse and Feng et al. approach equally.

In table [3,](#page-4-1) we see that our approach contains a pair of "coast&forest" in top 10 rank which is 21th in Answer, and that our approach doesn't contain any pair in top 10 rank which is 21th or below in Answer.

<span id="page-3-0"></span><sup>6</sup> <http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english-cobuild-learners>

<span id="page-3-1"></span><sup>7</sup> [http://www.cis.uni-muenchen.de/](http://www.cis.uni-muenchen.de/~schmid/tools/TreeTagger/)∼schmid/tools/TreeTagger/

#### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**Table 1.** Precision





<span id="page-4-2"></span>

coast & shore		
Position	"coast"	"shore"
	the	the, shore, or the
$\overline{2}$	coast	shore, of, a, sea
3	is	lake, or, wide, river
$\overline{4}$	an, area	is, the, land, along
$\overline{5}$	of, land	the, edge, of, it
6	that, is	some one, who, is on, shore
	next, to	is_on, the, land, rather
8	the, sea	than, on, a ship
coast & forest		
Position	"coast"	"forest"
	the	a, forest, is
$\overline{2}$	coast, is, an, area	a, large, area
3	of, land, that, is	where, trees
4	next, to, the, sea	grow, close, together

<span id="page-4-1"></span>**Table 3.** Ranking



To examine our approach and the baselines, let us discuss the differences. In table [3,](#page-4-1) our approach says "coast  $\&$  shore" and "coast  $\&$  forest" are ranked as 19th and 7th respectively which are 6th and 22th in Answer.

Explanatory notes (in the Collins) of the words "coast", "shore" and "forest" are *The coast is an area of land that is next to the sea."*, *"The shores* *or the shore of a sea, lake, or wide river is the land along the edge of it. Someone who is on shore is on the land rather than on a ship."* and *"A forest is a large area where trees grow close together."* respectively.

First we see big difference of the notes length of "coast & shore". Table [2](#page-4-2) contains the unified result of the notes. We examine "shore" and obtain collocation, in fact, we have Paths values in similarities.  $Path(cost, shore) = 0.5$ ,  $Path(area, land) = 0.08, Path(sea, ship) = 0.08. Note that 1st, 3rd, 5th, 6th$ and 7th have similarity 0.

As for "coast & forest", we get almost same lengh of the explanatory notes (of "coast" and "forest"). Again a table [2](#page-4-2) contains the unified result of the notes. Also Path values show  $Path(area, area) = 1$  and  $Path(land, tree) = 0.17$ . The 1st and 4th words contain similarity 0.

Similarly Path values see that "land & tree" are more similar rather than "area &land" and "sea & ship". That's why "coast & shore" is ranked lower and "coast & forest" higher. Though the result heavily depends on the notes (in the Collins), we might expect our approach generally collects possible notation fluctuations about focused terms in a sentence.

## **5 Conclusion**

In this work, we introduced two kinds of similarity, Euclid similarity and Levenshtein similarity to model sequence and semantics of words for the purpose of STS and short text retrieval. Then we introduced semantic similarity between sentences.

Our experimental result shows that the precision results are generally nice results, say 10 percent better than Islam[\[2](#page-5-1)] in top 10 pairs, for example.

## **References**

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