

WWW sits the SAT: Measuring Relational Similarity on the Web

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Abstract. Measuring relational similarity between words is important in numerous natural language processing tasks such as solving analogy questions and classifying noun-modifier relations. We propose a method to measure the similarity between semantic relations that hold between two pairs of words using a web search engine. First, each pair of words is represented by a vector of automatically extracted lexical patterns. Then a Support Vector Machine is trained to recognize word pairs with similar semantic relations. We evaluate the proposed method on SAT multiple-choice word-analogy questions. The proposed method achieves a score of 40% which is comparable with relational similarity measures which use manually created resources such as WordNet. The proposed method significantly reduces the time taken by previously proposed computationally intensive methods, such as latent relational analysis, to process 374 analogy questions from 8 days to less than 6 hours.

1 Introduction

Similarity can be broadly categorized into two types: *attributional* and *relational* [4, 14]. Attributional similarity is correspondence between attributes and relational similarity is correspondence between relations. When two words have a high degree of attributional similarity, they are called *synonymous*. When two pairs of words show a high degree of relational similarity, they are called *analogous*. For example, the two analogous word-pairs: ostrich:bird and lion:cat – both implying the relation **X is a large Y** – has a high relational similarity.

Relational similarity measures are useful for numerous tasks in natural language processing such as detecting word analogies and classifying semantic relations in noun-modifier pairs. Word analogy questions have been used as a component of Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) to evaluate applicants to the U.S. college system for decades. A SAT analogy question comprises a source-pairing of concepts/terms and a choice of (usually five) possible target pairings, only one of which accurately reflects the source relationship. A typical example is shown below.

Question: Ostrich is to Bird as:

- a. Cub is to Bear
- b. *Lion is to Cat*
- c. Ewe is to Sheep
- d. Turkey is to Chicken
- e. Jeep is to Truck

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Here, the relation *is a large* holds between the two words in the question (e.g. Ostrich and Bird), which is also shared between the two words in the correct answer (e.g. Lion *is a large* Cat). SAT analogy questions have been used as a benchmark to evaluate relational similarity measures in previous work on relational similarity [19, 14].

Noun-modifier pairs such as *flu virus*, *storm cloud*, *expensive book*, etc are frequent in English language. In fact, WordNet contains more than 26,000 noun-modifier pairs. Natase and Szpakowicz [6] classified noun-modifiers into five classes according to the relations between the noun and the modifier. Turney [14] used a relational similarity measure to compute the similarity between noun-modifier pairs and classify them according to the semantic relations that hold between a noun and its modifier.

We propose a method to measure the relational similarity between two given pairs of words using text-snippets returned by a web search engine. Snippets provide useful information about the relations that hold between words. For example, Google⁴ returns the snippet *...the ostrich is the largest bird in the world and can be found in South Africa...* for the conjunctive query *ostrich AND bird*. This snippet alone suggests that ostrich is a large bird. The proposed method automatically extracts lexical patterns that describe the relation implied by the two words in a word-pair and computes the relational similarity between two word-pairs using a machine learning approach.

Relational similarity is a dynamic phenomenon. In particular, relations between named entities change over time and across domains. Therefore, it is costly or even impossible to manually update language resources to reflect those changes. The proposed method does not require language resources such as taxonomies or dictionaries which makes it attractive when measuring relational similarity between words that do not appear in manually created resources.

Using SAT analogy questions as training data, we propose an algorithm to automatically extract lexical patterns to represent the numerous relations implied by two words. The proposed method requires a lesser number of search engine queries (one query per word-pair) and does not require computationally intensive large matrix manipulations as required by the previously proposed latent relational analysis (LRA) [12], thereby reducing the time taken to answer 374 SAT analogy questions from 8 days by LRA to less than 6 hours.

2 Related work

The Structure-mapping theory (SMT) [2] claims that an analogy is a mapping of knowledge from one domain (base) into another (target) which conveys that a system of relations known to hold in the base also holds in the target. The target objects do not have to resemble their corresponding base objects. This structural view of analogy is

⁴ <http://code.google.com/apis>

based on the intuition that analogies are about relations, rather than simple features. Although this approach works best when the base and the target are rich in higher-order causal structures, it can fail when structures are missing or flat [20].

Turney et al. [16] combined 13 independent modules by considering the weighted sum of the outputs of each individual module to solve SAT analogy questions. The best performing individual module was based on Vector Space Model (VSM). In the VSM approach to measuring relational similarity [15], first a vector is created for a word-pair $X:Y$ by counting the frequencies of various lexical patterns containing X and Y . In their experiments they used 128 manually created patterns such as “ X of Y ”, “ Y of X ”, “ X to Y ” and “ Y to X ”. These patterns are then used as queries to a search engine and the number of hits for each query is used as elements in a vector to represent the word-pair. Finally, the relational similarity is computed as the cosine of the angle between the two vectors representing each word-pair. This VSM approach achieves a score of 47% on college-level multiple-choice SAT analogy questions. A SAT analogy question consists of a target word-pair and five choice word-pairs. The choice word-pair that has the highest relational similarity with the target word-pair in the question is selected by the system as the correct answer.

Turney [12, 14] proposes Latent Relational Analysis (LRA) by extending the VSM approach in three ways: a) lexical patterns are automatically extracted from a corpus, b) the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) is used to smooth the frequency data, and c) synonyms are used to explore variants of the word-pairs. LRA achieves a score of 56.4% on SAT analogy questions. Both VSM and LRA require a large number of search engine queries to create a vector representing a word-pair. For example, with 128 patterns, VSM approach requires at least 256 queries to compute relational similarity. LRA considers synonymous variants of the given word pairs, thus requiring even more search engine queries. Despite efficient implementations, singular value decomposition of large matrices is time consuming. In fact, overall LRA takes over 8 days to process the 374 SAT analogy questions [14], which can be problematic when used in many real world NLP tasks.

Veale [19] proposed a relational similarity measure based on taxonomic similarity in WordNet. He evaluates the quality of a candidate analogy $A:B::C:D$ by comparing the paths in WordNet, joining A to B and C to D . Relational similarity is defined as the similarity between the $A:B$ paths and $C:D$ paths. However, WordNet does not fully cover named entities such as personal names, organizations and locations, which becomes problematic when using this method to measure relational similarity between named entities.

Using a relational similarity measure, Turney [13] proposed an unsupervised learning algorithm to extract patterns that express implicit semantic relations from a corpus. His method produces a ranked set of lexical patterns that unambiguously describes the relation between the two words in a given word-pair. Patterns are ranked according to their expected relational similarity (i.e. pertinence), computed using an algorithm similar to LRA. To answer SAT a analogy question, first, ranked lists of patterns are generated for each of the six word pairs (one stem word-pair and five choice word-pairs). Then each choice is evaluated by taking the intersection of its patterns with the stem’s patterns. The shared patterns are scored by the average of their rank in the stem’s lists and the choice’s lists. The algorithm picks the choice with the lowest scoring shared pattern as the correct answer. This method reports a SAT score of 54.6%.

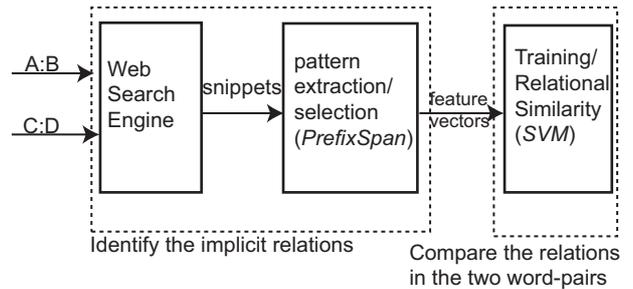


Figure 1. Outline of the proposed method.

3 Method

3.1 Outline

The proposed relational similarity measure is outlined in Fig.1. It can be described in two main steps: *identifying the implicit relations* between the two words in each word-pair and *comparing the relations* that exist in each word-pair. In order to measure the relational similarity between two word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$, we must first identify the relations implied by each word-pair. For example, the relation X is-a-large Y holds between the the two words in pairs *ostrich:bird* and *lion:cat*. We propose the use of *PrefixSpan* [7], a sequential pattern mining algorithm, to extract implicit relations from snippets returned by a web search engine for two words. We train a Support Vector Machine (SVM) [18] using SAT multiple-choice analogy questions as training data to compare the extracted relations and identify analogous word-pairs.

3.2 Pattern Extraction and Selection

We represent the implicit relations indicated by the two words in a word-pair $X:Y$ using automatically extracted lexical patterns. Although automatic pattern extraction methods [9, 11] have been proposed based on dependency parsing of sentences, extracting lexical patterns from snippets using such methods is difficult because most snippets are not grammatically correct complete sentences. However, lexical syntactic patterns have been successfully used to extract semantic information such as qualia structures [1] from web text snippets. Consequently, in this paper we employ a shallow pattern extraction method based on sequential pattern mining.

To identify the implicit relations between two words X and Y , we first query a web search engine using the phrasal query “ $X*****Y$ ”. Here, the wildcard operator “*” would match any word or nothing. This query retrieves snippets that contain both X and Y within a window of 7 words. For example, Google returns the snippet shown in Fig.2 for the word-pair *lion:cat*. We use *PrefixSpan*

...lion, a large heavy-built social cat of open rocky areas in Africa ...

Figure 2. A snippet returned by Google for the query “lion*****cat”.

(i.e., prefix-projected sequential pattern mining) [7] algorithm to extract frequent subsequences from snippets that contain both X and Y . *PrefixSpan* extracts all word subsequences which occur more than a specified frequency in snippets. We select subsequences that contain

both query words (eg. *lion* and *cat*) and replace the query words respectively with variables X and Y to construct lexical patterns. For example, some of patterns we extract from the snippet in Fig.2 are “ X a large Y ”, “ X a large Y of” and “ X , a large social Y ”. PrefixSpan algorithm is particularly suitable for the current task because it can efficiently extract a large number of lexical patterns.

We used the SAT analogy questions dataset which was first proposed by Turney and Littman [15] as a benchmark to evaluate relational similarity measures, to extract lexical patterns. The dataset contains 2176 unique word-pairs across 374 analogy questions. For each word-pair, we searched Google and download the top 1000 snippets. From the patterns extracted by the above mentioned procedure, we select ones that occur more three times and have less than seven words. The variables X and Y in patterns are swapped to create a reversed version of the pattern. The final set contains 9980 unique patterns. However, out of those patterns only 10% appear in both for a question and one of its choices. It is impossible to learn with such a large number of sparse patterns. Therefore, we perform a pattern selection procedure to identify those patterns that convey useful clues about implicit semantic relations.

First, for each extracted pattern v , we count the number of times where v appeared in any of the snippets for both a question and its correct answer (p_v) and in any of the snippets for both a question and any one of its incorrect answers (n_v). We then create a contingency table for each pattern v , as shown in Table 1. In Table 1, P denotes the total frequency of all patterns that occur in snippets for a question and its correct answer ($P = \sum_v p_v$) and N is the same for incorrect answers ($N = \sum_v n_v$). If a pattern occurs many times in a question

Table 1. Contingency table for a pattern v

| | v | patterns other than v | Total |
|---|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| Freq. in snippets for question and correct answer | p_v | $P - p_v$ | P |
| Freq. in snippets for question and incorrect answer | n_v | $N - n_v$ | N |

and its correct answer, then such patterns are reliable indicators of latent relations between words. To evaluate the reliability of an extracted pattern as an indicator of a relation, we calculate the χ^2 [3] value for each pattern using Table 1 as,

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(P + N)(p_v(N - n_v) - n_v(P - p_v))^2}{PN(p_v + n_v)(P + N - p_v - n_v)}.$$

Patterns with χ^2 value greater than a specified threshold are used as features for training. Some of the selected patterns are shown later in Table 3.

3.3 Training

For given two pairs of words $A:B$ and $C:D$, we create a feature vector using the patterns selected in section 3.2. First, we record the frequency of occurrence of each selected pattern in snippets for each word-pair. We call this the *pattern frequency*. It is a local frequency count, analogous to *term frequency* in information retrieval [10]. Secondly, we combine the two pattern frequencies of a pattern (i.e., frequency of occurrence in snippets for $A:B$ and that in snippets for $C:D$) using various feature functions to compute the feature-values for training. The different feature functions experimented in the paper are explained in section 4.

We model the problem of computing relational similarity as a one of identifying analogous and non-analogous word-pairs, which can be solved by training a binary classifier. Using SAT analogy questions as training data, we train a two-class support vector machine (SVM) as follows. From each question in the dataset, we create a positive training instance by considering $A:B$ to be the word-pair for the question and $C:D$ to be the word-pair for the correct answer. Likewise, a negative training instance is created from a question word-pair and one of the incorrect answers.

The trained SVM model can then be used to compute the relational similarity between two given word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$ as follows. First, we represent the two word-pairs by a feature vector F of pattern frequency-based features. Second, we define the relational similarity $\text{RelSim}(A : B, C : D)$ between the two word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$ as the posterior probability $\text{Prob}(F|\text{analogous})$ that feature vector F belongs to the analogous-pairs (positive) class,

$$\text{RelSim}(A : B, C : D) = \text{Prob}(F|\text{analogous}).$$

Being a large margin classifier, the output of an SVM is the distance from the decision hyper-plane. For the purpose of solving SAT questions, we can directly use the distance from the decision hyper-plane and rank the candidate answers. However, distance from the decision hyper-plane is not a calibrated posterior probability that lies between $[0, 1]$ range. We use sigmoid functions to convert this uncalibrated distance into a calibrated posterior probability (see [8] for a detailed discussion on this topic).

4 Experiments

For the experiments in this paper we used the 374 SAT college-level multiple-choice analogy questions dataset which was first proposed by Turney et al. [16]. We compute the total score for answering SAT questions as follows,

$$\text{score} = \frac{\text{no. of correctly answered questions}}{\text{total no. of questions}}. \quad (1)$$

Formula 1 does not penalize a system for marking incorrect answers.

4.1 Feature Functions

Evidence from psychological experiments suggest that similarity can be context-dependent and even asymmetric [17, 5]. Human subjects have reportedly assigned different similarity ratings to word-pairs when the two words were presented in the reverse order. However, experimental results investigating the effects of asymmetry reports that the average difference in ratings for a word pair is less than 5 percent [5]. Consequently, in this paper we assume relational similarity to be symmetric and limit ourselves to symmetric feature functions. This assumption is in line with previous work on relational similarity described in section 2.

Let us assume the frequency of a pattern v in two word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$ to be f_{AB} and f_{CD} , respectively. We compute the value assigned to the feature corresponding to pattern v in the feature vector that represents the two word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$ using the following four feature functions.

$|f_{AB} - f_{CD}|$: The absolute value of the difference of pattern frequencies is considered as the feature-value.

$(f_{AB} - f_{CD})^2$: The square of the difference of pattern frequencies is considered as the feature-value.

$f_{AB} \times f_{CD}$: The product of the pattern frequencies is considered as the feature-value.

JS divergence: Ideally, if two word-pairs are analogous we would expect to see similar distributions of patterns in each word-pair. Consequently, the *closeness* between the pattern distributions can be regarded as an indicator of relational similarity. We define a feature function based on Jensen-Shannon divergence [3] as a measure of the closeness between pattern distributions. Jensen-Shannon (JS) divergence $D_{JS}(P||Q)$, between two probability distributions P and Q is given by,

$$D_{JS}(P||Q) = \frac{1}{2}D_{KL}(P||M) + \frac{1}{2}D_{KL}(Q||M). \quad (2)$$

Here, $M = (P + Q)/2$ and D_{KL} is the Kullback-Leibler divergence, which is given by,

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \sum_v P(v) \log \frac{P(v)}{Q(v)}. \quad (3)$$

Here, $P(v)$ denotes the normalized pattern frequency of a pattern v in the distribution P . Pattern frequencies are normalized s.t. $\sum_v P(v) = 1$ by dividing the frequency of each pattern by the sum of frequencies of all patterns. We define the contribution of each pattern towards the total JS-divergence in Formula 2 as its feature value, $JS(v)$. Substituting Formula 3 in 2 and collecting the terms under summation, we derive $JS(v)$ as,

$$JS(v) = \frac{1}{2} (p \log \frac{2q}{p+q} + q \log \frac{2p}{p+q}).$$

Here, p and q respectively denote the normalized pattern frequencies of f_{AB} and f_{CD} .

Table 2. Performance with various feature weighting methods

| Feature function | Score |
|------------------------|-------|
| $ f_{AB} - f_{CD} $ | 0.30 |
| $(f_{AB} - f_{CD})^2$ | 0.30 |
| $f_{AB} \times f_{CD}$ | 0.40 |
| $JS(v)$ | 0.32 |

To evaluate the effect of various feature functions on performance, we trained a linear kernel SVM with each of the feature functions. We randomly selected 50 questions from the SAT analogy questions for evaluation. The remainder of the questions (374-50) are used for training. Experimental results are summarized in Table 2. Out of the four feature functions in Table 2, product of pattern frequencies performs best. For the remainder of the experiments in the paper we used this feature function. Patterns with the highest linear kernel weights

Table 3. Patterns with the highest SVM linear kernel weights

| pattern | χ^2 | SVM weight |
|---------------|----------|------------|
| and Y and X | 0.8927 | 0.0105 |
| Y X small | 0.0795 | 0.0090 |
| X in Y | 0.0232 | 0.0087 |
| use Y to X | 0.5059 | 0.0082 |
| from the Y X | 0.3697 | 0.0079 |
| to that Y X | 0.1310 | 0.0077 |
| or X Y | 0.0751 | 0.0074 |
| X and other Y | 1.0675 | 0.0072 |
| a Y or X | 0.0884 | 0.0068 |
| that Y on X | 0.0690 | 0.0067 |

are shown in Table 3 alongside their χ^2 values. The weight of a feature in the linear kernel can be considered as a rough estimate of the

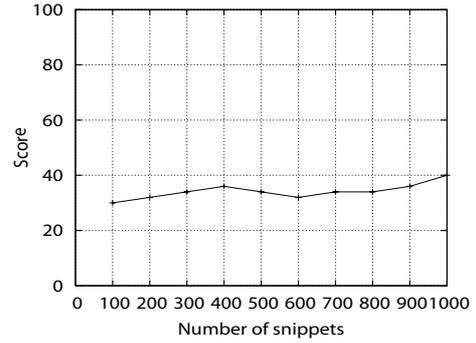


Figure 3. Performance with the number of snippets

influence it imparts on the final SVM output. Patterns shown in Table 3 express various semantic relations that can be observed in SAT analogy questions.

We experimented with different kernel types as shown in Table 4. Best performance is achieved with the linear kernel. A drop of performance occurs with more complex kernels, which is attributable to over-fitting. Figure 3 plots the variation of SAT score with the

Table 4. Performance with different Kernels

| Kernel Type | Score |
|---------------------|-------|
| Linear | 0.40 |
| Polynomial degree=2 | 0.34 |
| Polynomial degree=3 | 0.34 |
| RBF | 0.36 |
| Sigmoid | 0.36 |

number of snippets used for extracting patterns. From Fig.3 it is apparent that overall the score improves with the number of snippets used for extracting patterns. Typically, with more snippets to process, the number of patterns that can be extracted for a word-pair increases. That fact enables us to represent a word-pair with a rich feature vector, resulting in better performance.

Table 5 summarizes various relational similarity measures proposed in previous work. All algorithms in Table 5 are evaluated on the same SAT analogy questions. Score is computed by Formula 1. Because SAT questions contain 5 choices, a random guessing algo-

Table 5. Comparison with previous relational similarity measures.

| Algorithm | score | Algorithm | score |
|----------------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| 1 Phrase Vectors | 0.382 | 11 Holonym:member | 0.200 |
| 2 Thesaurus Paths | 0.250 | 12 Similarity:dict | 0.180 |
| 3 Synonym | 0.207 | 13 Similarity:wordsmyth | 0.294 |
| 4 Antonym | 0.240 | 14 Combined [16] | 0.450 |
| 5 Hypernym | 0.227 | 15 Proposed (SVM) | 0.401 |
| 6 Hyponym | 0.249 | 16 WordNet [19] | 0.428 |
| 7 Meronym:substance | 0.200 | 17 VSM [15] | 0.471 |
| 8 Meronym:part | 0.208 | 18 Pertinence [13] | 0.535 |
| 9 Meronym:member | 0.200 | 19 LRA [12] | 0.561 |
| 10 Holonym:substance | 0.200 | 20 Human | 0.570 |

gorithm would obtain a score of 0.2 (lower bound). The score reported by average senior high-school student is about 0.570 [15] (upper bound). We performed 5-fold cross validation on SAT questions to evaluate the performance of the proposed method. The first 13 (rows 1-13) algorithms were proposed by Turney et al. [16], in which they combined these modules using a weight optimization method. For

given two word-pairs, the phrase vector (row 1) algorithm creates a vector of manually created pattern-frequencies for each word-pair and compute the cosine of the angle between the vectors. Algorithms in rows 2-11 use WordNet to compute various relational similarity measures based on different semantic relations defined in WordNet. **Similarity:dict** (row 12) and **Similarity:wordsmith** (row 13) respectively use `Dictionary.com` and `Wordsmyth.net` to find the definition of words in word-pairs and compute the relational similarity as the overlap of words in the definitions. The proposed method outperforms all those 13 individual modules reporting a score of 0.401, which is comparable with Veale’s [19] WordNet-based relational similarity measure.

Table 6. Comparison with LRA on runtime

| LRA | Hrs:Mins | Hardware |
|------------------------------|-----------------|----------|
| Find alternatives | 24 : 56 | 1 CPU |
| Filter phrases and patterns | 143 : 33 | 16 CPUs |
| Generate a sparse matrix | 38 : 07 | 1 CPU |
| Calculate entropy | 0 : 11 | 1 CPU |
| Singular value decomposition | 0 : 43 | 1 CPU |
| Evaluate alternatives | 2 : 11 | 1 CPU |
| Total | 209 : 41 | |
| Proposed | Hrs:Mins | Hardware |
| Download snippets | 2 : 05 | 1 CPU |
| Pattern extraction | 0 : 05 | 1 CPU |
| Pattern selection | 2 : 56 | 1 CPU |
| Create feature vectors | 0 : 46 | 1 CPU |
| Training | 0 : 03 | 1 CPU |
| Testing | 0.01 | 1 CPU |
| Total | 5 : 56 | |

Although LRA (row 19 in Table 5) reports the highest SAT score of 0.561 it takes over 8 days to process the 374 SAT analogy questions [14]. On the other hand the proposed method requires less than 6 hours using a desktop computer with a 2.4 GHz Pentium4 processor and 2GB of RAM. In Table 6 we compare the proposed method against LRA on runtime. The runtime figures for LRA are obtained from the original paper [14] and we have only shown the components that consume most of the processing time. The gain in speed is mainly attributable to the lesser number of web queries required by proposed method. To compute the relational similarity between two word-pairs $A:B$ and $C:D$ using LRA, we first search in a dictionary for synonyms for each word. Then the original words are replaced by their synonyms to create alternative pairs. Each word-pair is represented by a vector of pattern-frequencies using a set automatically created 4000 lexical patterns. Pattern frequencies are obtained by searching for the pattern in a web search engine. For example, to create a vector for a word-pair with three alternatives, LRA requires 12000 (4000×3) queries. On the other hand, the proposed method first downloads snippets for each word-pair and then searches for patterns only in the downloaded snippets. Because multiple snippets can be retrieved by issuing a single query, the proposed method requires only one search query to compute a pattern-frequency vector for a word-pair. Processing snippets is also efficient as it obviates the trouble of downloading web pages, which might be time consuming depending on the size of the pages. Moreover, LRA is based on singular value decomposition (SVD), which requires time consuming complex matrix computations.

5 Conclusion

We proposed a relational similarity measure that uses a web search engine to find the relations that exists between words. We represent two word-pairs by a feature vector using automatically extracted lexical patterns. Then an SVM is trained using SAT analogy questions as training data. The proposed method achieved SAT scores comparable to previously proposed WordNet-based relational similarity measures while significantly reducing the processing time. In future, we intend to integrate WordNet-based similarity measures with the proposed SVM-based method to construct more accurate relational similarity measures.

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