Abstract

This paper presents our submissions for semantic textual similarity task in SemEval 2016. Based on several traditional features (i.e., string-based, corpus-based, machine translation similarity and alignment metrics), we leverage word embedding from macro (i.e., first get representation of sentence, then measure the similarity of sentence pair) and micro views (i.e., measure the similarity of word pairs separately) to boost performance. Due to the various domains of training data and test data, we adopt three different strategies: 1) U-SEVEN: an unsupervised model, which utilizes seven straight-forward metrics; 2) S1-All: using all available datasets; 3) S2: selecting the most similar training sets for each test set. Results on test sets show that the unified supervised model (i.e., S1-All) achieves the best averaged performance with a mean correlation of 75.07%.

1 Introduction

Estimating the degree of semantic similarity between two sentences is the building block of many Natural Language Processing (NLP) applications, such as question answering, textual entailment, text summarization etc. Therefore, Semantic Textual Similarity (STS) has received an increasing amount of attention in recent years, e.g., the STS tasks in Semantic Evaluation Exercises have been held from 2012 to 2016.

To identify semantic similarity of sentence pairs, most existing works adopt at least one of the following feature types: 1) string based similarity (Bär et al., 2012; Jimenez et al., 2012) which employs common functions to calculate similarities over string sequences extracted from original strings, e.g., lemma, stem, or n-grams sequences; 2) corpus based similarity (Šarić et al., 2012) where distributional models such as Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA), are used to derive the distributional vectors of words from a large corpus according to their occurrence patterns, afterwards, similarities of sentence pairs are calculated using these vectors; 3) knowledge based method (Agirre et al., 2015b) which estimates the similarities with the aid of external resources, such as WordNet. Among them, Sultan et al. (2015) leverage different word alignment strategies to bring word-level similarity to sentence-level similarity.

Traditional NLP feature engineering often treat sentence as a bag of words or term frequency, and endeavor to evaluate the similarity according to the co-occurrence of words or other replacement words. For example, Zhao et al. (2014) built a supervised model using ensemble of heterogeneous features and achieved great performance on STS Task 2014. However, it is difficult to evaluate semantic relatedness if all the word in both sentences is unique. For example: A storm will spread snow over Shanghai; The earthquakes have shaken parts of Oklahoma. These sentences have no words in common, although they convey the similar information.

In this work, we first borrow the aforementioned effective types of similarity measurements including string-based, corpus-based, machine translation similarity and alignment measures to capture the semantic similarity between two sentences. Besides, we also present our highly interpretable and
hyper-parameter free word embedding features from macro and micro views to boost the performance. Then we adopt three different strategies of the usage of training data: 1) U-SEVEN: an unsupervised model, which utilizes seven straight-forward metrics (i.e., longest common sequence, alignment feature, corpus-based feature, and others are all from word embedding features); 2) S1-All: use all available datasets and train a unified regression model after deleting unnecessary features; 3) S2: select the most similar training sets for each test set, according to the source of the dataset, average sentence length, and similarity distance (i.e., word mover’s distance, discussed in Section 2.3).

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes various similarity measurements used in our systems. Section 3 gives the datasets and system setups. Results on training set and test set will show in Section 4 and 5 respectively, and finally conclusion is given in Section 6.

2 Semantic Similarity Measurements

Previous excellent work (Zhao et al., 2014; Sultan et al., 2015) have shown great performance for STS tasks. Following their works, we engineer the traditional widely used features for semantic similarity measurements (i.e., string-based, corpus-based, machine translation similarity and alignment measures). In this work, we also present our highly interpretable and hyper-parameter free word embedding features from macro and micro views to boost the performance.

2.1 Preprocessing

Several text preprocessing operations are performed before feature engineering: 1) Converting the contractions to their formal writing, e.g., “doesn’t” is rewritten as “does not”. 2) The WordNet-based Lemmatizer implemented in Natural Language Toolkit\(^1\) is used to lemmatize all words to their nearest based forms in WordNet, e.g., “was” is lemmatized to “be”. 3) Stanford CoreNLP (Manning et al., 2014) is adopted to get the Part-Of-Speech (POS) tag and Named Entity Recognition (NER) tag.

\(^1\)http://www.nltk.org

2.2 Traditional NLP Feature Engineering

2.2.1 String-Based Similarity

Length Features (len): We record the length information of given sentence pairs using the following eight measure functions: \(|A|, |B|, |A - B|, |B - A|, |A \cup B|, |A \cap B|, \frac{|A-B|}{|B|}, \frac{|B-A|}{|A|}\), where \(|A|\) stands for the number of non-repeated words in sentence \(A\).

Syntactic Features (pos): Since two sentences with similar syntax structure convey similar meaning, we estimate the similarities of syntax structure. We firstly use Stanford CoreNLP toolkit (Manning et al., 2014) to obtain the POS tags of each sentence. Afterwards, we use eight measure functions mentioned in the Length Features on the sets of POS tags to calculate Syntactic Features.

Longest Common Sequence (lcs): In consideration of the different length of sentence pairs, we divide the maximum length of the common subsequence of two sentences by the length of the shorter one.

\(n\)-grams Overlap Features (\(n\)-grams): We obtain \(n\)-grams at three different level (i.e., the original word level, the lemmatized word level and the character level). Then Jaccard similarity is used for calculating the similarity of these \(n\)-grams pairs. In our experiments, \(n = \{1, 2, 3\}\) are used for the word level whereas \(n = \{2, 3, 4\}\) are used for the character level.

Named Entities Features (ner): Besides of the surface similarities between words, we also calculate the relatedness of named entities in two sentences using lcs function. Seven types of named entities (i.e., location, organization, data, money, person, time, percent), recognized by Stanford CoreNLP toolkit (Manning et al., 2014), are considered.

2.2.2 Machine Translation Similarity

Machine Translation (MT) evaluation metrics are designed to assess whether the output of a MT system is semantically equivalent to a set of reference translations. The two given sentences are viewed as one input and one output of a MT system, then we get two MT scores of each MT measure (i.e., WER, TER, PER, NIST, ROUGE-L, GTM-1). Two strategies is employed to get MT similarity features, 1).
average two MT scores in each MT measure; 2).
concatenate two MT scores in each MT measure.

2.2.3 Corpus-based Features

WordNet Rank Features (wordnet): The above semantic similarities only consider the surface similarities rather than their relations in corpus. Hence, we use graph-based lexical relatedness, which performs with a pre-existing Knowledge Base (KB) (i.e., WordNet), to get the relations of words. Then Personalized PageRank is applied on the Lexical Knowledge Base (LKB) to rank the vertices of the LKB. The details of the method are described in Agirre et al. (2015b). It outputs a ranking vector of the sentence over KB nodes and the values of the weights are normalized so that all link weights of particular headword sum to one. Finally, we calculate the Cosine, Manhattan, Euclidean, Jaccard of the two sentence vectors.

Vector Space Sentence Similarity (lsa): This measure is motivated by the idea of compositionality of distributional vector (Mitchell and Lapata, 2008). we adopt two distributional word sets released by TakeLab (Šarić et al., 2012), where Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) was performed on the New York Times Annotated Corpus (NYT)² and Wikipedia. Then two strategies are used to convert the distributional meaning of words to sentence level: 1). simply summing up. 2). using tf to weigh each word vector.

2.2.4 Alignment Measures

(Sultan et al., 2015) used delicate word aligner to compute proportion of aligned words across the two input sentences. It aligned words based on their semantic similarity in the two sentences, as well as the similarity between local semantic contexts, which relies on dependencies and surface-form neighbors. The paraphrase Database (PPDB) (Ganitkevitch et al., 2013) was used to identify semantically similar words. Word pairs are aligned with greedy strategy, in descending order of their similarity.

Global Alignment Features (global): Given sentences $S_1$ and $S_2$, single proportion over all words is computed over all words:

$$\text{sim}(S_1, S_2) = \frac{n_a(S_1) + n_a(S_2)}{n(S_1) + n(S_2)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $n(S_i)$ is the number of non-repeated words in $S_i$, while $n_a(S_i)$ is the number of aligned content words in $S_i$.

Specific Alignment Features (pos-specific): Taking weight of POS tag of aligned words into consideration, score of aligned noun word pair is surely higher than the adjective. Using this property, we propose the specific alignment feature, to calculate the aligned words proportion specifically according to POS tag (i.e., noun, verb, adjective, adverb).

2.3 Word Embedding Feature Engineering

Recently, the distributed representations of words (i.e., word embedding) learned by neural networks over a large raw corpus have been shown that they performed significantly better than Latent Semantic Analysis for preserving linear regularities among words (Mikolov et al., 2013). The training on very large datasets allows the model to learn complex word relationships such as $\text{vec}($Berlin$) – \text{vec}($Germany$) + \text{vec}($France$) \approx \text{vec}($Paris$)$ (Mikolov et al., 2013).

As discussed in Section 1, it is very hard to evaluate semantic similarity if no words in the sentence pair in common. Obviously, word embedding features supply the gap. For example, A storm will spread snow over Shanghai; The earthquakes have shaken parts of Oklahoma. while storm is similar to earthquake and spread is analogous to shaken, Shanghai and Oklahoma both are locations.

In order to evaluate semantic similarity of a sentence pair, we define the function $\text{INFO}$ is the semantic information of a word or a sentence carried.

![Figure 1](https://catalog.ldc.upenn.edu/LDC2008T19)

Figure 1: An illustration of the word centroid distance. Points in red is the word from sentence 1 (stopwords is ignored), while blue from sentence 2. $S_i$ is the centroid of points from sentence i.
Thus the semantic similarity of sentence pair can be regarded as the distance between their \( \text{INFOs} \). In other words, given sentence \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \),

\[
\text{sts}(S_1, S_2) = \text{INFO}(S_1) - \text{INFO}(S_2) \tag{2}
\]

where \( \text{INFO}(S_i) \) is the semantic information of sentence \( S_i \). We study the above formula from macro and micro views.

**Macro Information Distance:** From macro view, we first get the \( \text{INFO} \) of each sentence (i.e., semantic information), and then calculate the distance between them. As follows:

\[
\text{sts}(S_1, S_2) = \text{INFO} \left( f(w_1^{S_1}, w_2^{S_1}, \ldots, w_{\text{len}(S_1)}) \right) - \text{INFO} \left( f(w_1^{S_2}, w_2^{S_2}, \ldots, w_{\text{len}(S_2)}) \right) \tag{3}
\]

where \( w_i^{S_j} \) is the word embedding of word \( i \) in sentence \( j \) and function \( f \) is to obtain the sentence representation from word embeddings, such as sum, average or convolution. Assuming that if two sentences are similar, one word in a sentence should have the similar meaning word with another, we use the centroid of word embedding to symbolise the macro \( \text{INFO} \) of the sentence. As showed in Figure 1, \( S_i \) represents for sentence \( i \), and the distance between \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) represents for the similarity of the sentence pair. What is more, \( \text{storm} \) and \( \text{earthquakes} \) are the most important word in the sentence pair, we surely should give them more weight. As they are similar, the distance centroid tend to be close (the dashed lines). We use \( \text{idf} \) from datasets to weigh the importance.

**Micro Information Distance:** As for micro view, we first get the \( \text{INFO} \) of each word, and evaluate the distance between the sentence pair according to the distance of micro information distance.

\[
\text{sts}(S_1, S_2) = \text{INFO}(w_1^{S_1}) + \text{INFO}(w_2^{S_1}) + \ldots + \text{INFO}(w_{\text{len}(S_1)}) - \text{INFO}(w_1^{S_2}) - \text{INFO}(w_2^{S_2}) - \ldots - \text{INFO}(w_{\text{len}(S_2)}) \tag{4}
\]

Our goal is to incorporate the semantic similarity between each word pairs into the micro information distance of sentence. Here, we adopted word mover’s distance (Kusner et al., 2015), the minimum cumulative distance that all word in sentence 1 need to travel to exactly match sentence 2, showed in Figure 2. For more details, see Kusner et al. (2015).

**Word Embedding Features**: Zhao et al. (2014) shows that heterogenous feature outperform a single feature, and we use three embeddings (Turian et al., 2010; Mikolov et al., 2013; Pennington et al., 2014) as our initial word vector input. Incidentally, the distance is substitutable, and we replace it with different measurements (i.e., cosine distance, Manhattan distance, Euclidean distance, Pearson coefficient, Spearman coefficient, Kendall tau coefficient). Specially, because of the high time complexity of word mover’s distance, we only train it on \text{word2vec} (Mikolov et al., 2013), although other embeddings are also plausible.

### 3 Experiments

#### 3.1 Datasets

We collect all the datasets from 2012 to 2015 as training data. Each dataset consists of a number of sentence pairs and each pair has a human-assigned similarity score in the range \([0,5]\) which increases with similarity. The datasets are collected from different but related domains. We briefly describe data in Table 1, Refer Agirre et al. (2015a) for details. We emphasize dataset with symbol * for that this dataset appears both in training and test sets, which is very useful to our third submission \textbf{S2} (see Section 3.4 for more details).

#### 3.2 Evaluation Measurement

In order to evaluate the performance of different algorithms, we adopt the official evaluation measure, i.e. Pearson correlation coefficient for each individual test set, and a weighted sum of all correlations is used as final evaluation metric. It weights according to the number of gold sentence pairs. The weight of
a test set is equal to the rate of the gold sentences pairs in all the gold sentences.

3.3 Learning Algorithm

We conduct a series of experiments using all features discussed in Section 2.2 and 2.3 to obtain the optimized learning algorithm. Three supervised learning methods are explored: Support Vector Regression (SVR), Random Forest (RF) and Gradient Boosting (GB). These supervised learning algorithms are implemented using scikit-learn toolkit (Buitinck et al., 2013). We use all the datasets from STS Task 2015 as development data while others from STS Task 2012 to 2014 as training data.

To configure the parameters in the regression algorithm, i.e., the trade-off parameter $c$ in SVR, the number of trees $n_{RF}$ in RF and the number of boosting stages $n_{GB}$ in GB, we make a grid search for $c$ in $[0.01, 0.1, 1, 10]$, $n_{RF}$ from 5 to 100 with step 5 and $n_{GB}$ from 10 to 300 with step 10.

Table 2 shows the best result of each algorithm, as well as the top runs on STS 2015 test data. GB(n=140) outperformed other algorithms on all datasets. We choose GB(n=140) as our final regression algorithm on our next series experiments. Also, without any specific training dataset selections or choosing suitable features, we achieve the considerable results compare to the top runs on STS 2015 Task. Sultan et al. (2015) has shown that specific training datasets with similar domains and enough data will yield better results than an all-inclusive training datasets. And next we endeavor to select specific training sets and suitable features.

3.4 System Setups

We build three different systems according to the usage of training datasets as follows.

U-SEVEN: This is an unsupervised system based on the word aligner described in (Sultan et al., 2015) without any training data. We evaluate semantic similarity by adopting straight-forward measurements (i.e., longest common sequence, alignment feature, corpus-based feature, all four features from word embedding features), which are averaged to get the final score. We adopt cosine distance, Pearson coefficient, Spearman coefficient as the distance measurements, which perform better results on our preliminary experiments.

S1-All: We use all the training datasets and build a single global regression model regardless of domain information of different test datasets. In order to make better use of these features and improve the performance, we construct feature selection procedure on development set (i.e., test set of STS 2015 Task) and vote for the preserved feature sets. As for feature selection strategy, we adopt hill climbing: keep adding one type feature at a time until no further improvement can be achieved.

S2: Sultan et al. (2015) has shown that taking all the training datasets into consideration may hurt the performance since training and test sets are from different domains. Hence, for each test set, we select the datasets which are most similar, taking source, different domains. Hence, for each test set, we select the datasets which are most similar, taking source, average length of sentences and word mover’s distance (discussed in Section 2.3) into consideration. For the data set with symbol * (i.e., headlines), we use all headlines pairs. For answers-answers and question-question, we use belief, deft-forums, answers-students, answers-forums pairs. For postediting, we use SMTeuropar and MSRpar pairs. For plagiarism, we use onWN and FNWN pairs.
4 Results on Training Data

According to the above preliminary experimental results, we employ GB(n=140) algorithm as our final regression algorithm. In order to explore the influences of word embedding features and make better use of all the above features, we construct feature selection experiment on development set (i.e., test set of STS 2015 Task) and vote for the preserved feature sets.

| Feature         | belief | answers -students | headlines | image | answers -forums |
|-----------------|--------|-------------------|-----------|-------|-----------------|
| String-based    | len    | -                 | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 | pos    | -                 | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 | lcs    | ✓                 | -         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 | n-grams| -                 | ✓         | -     | ✓               |
|                 | ner    | -                 | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
| Machine         | translation | average | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 |         | concat | -         | -     | -               |
| Corpus-based    | wordnet | bia      | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
| Alignment       | global  | pos-specific | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
| Word Embedding  | (Macro) | word2vec | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 |         | glove    | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
|                 |         | munen’s | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |
| Word Embedding  | (Micro) | wnd      | ✓         | ✓     | ✓               |

| Our Results     | 0.7835 | 0.7713 | 0.8455 | 0.7636 | 0.7780 |
| Best Scores     | 0.7717 | 0.7879 | 0.8413 | 0.8274 | 0.8669 |

Table 3: Results of feature selection experiments on STS 2015 test data. The last row shows the the best scores of all submitted system on STS 2015 task.

Table 3 shows the results of feature selection experiments on STS 2015 test data. From the table, we find that 1) Word embedding features, the positive complementary of macro perspective and micro perspective, indeed improve results. 2) Specific alignment features can compensate for the weaknesses of global alignment features. 3) Since concatenate MT metrics and glove features does not perform well on all five data sets, we remove them from our feature sets and train our S1-All model with the preserved features.

5 Results on Test Data

Table 4 summarizes the results of our submitted runs on test datasets officially released by the organizers, as well as the top runs. In terms of weighted mean of Pearson measurement, system S1-All performs the best while our corpus-specific system S2 performs the worst. We think the measurement to choose training data from the candidate datasets in main task are ill-suited. It is noteworthy that on plagiarism and postediting, our unsupervised model U-SEVEN achieves much better results than the supervised model (i.e., S1-All, S2), which indicates the efficiency of the ensemble of similar measurements.

| Dataset          | U-SEVEN | S1-All | S2  | Best  |
|------------------|---------|--------|-----|-------|
| answers-answers  | 0.4774  | 0.5697 | 0.5715 | 0.6923 |
| plagiarism       | 0.8301  | 0.8250 | 0.7733 | 0.8413 |
| headlines        | 0.7668  | 0.8121 | 0.7903 | 0.8274 |
| postediting      | 0.8423  | 0.8234 | 0.7496 | 0.8669 |
| question-question| 0.7191  | 0.7311 | 0.6763 | 0.7470 |
| weighted mean    | 0.7242  | 0.7507 | 0.7116 | 0.7780 |

Table 4: The results of our three runs on STS 2016 test datasets. The rightmost column shows the best score by any system. The last row shows the value of the officially evaluation metric.

On answer-answer set, the gap between top systems and our systems is about 12%. According to our investigations on this set, we find that certain sentence pairs are similar in syntactical structure but express different meanings. For example,

\{ You should do it. \} \{ It’s pretty much up to you. \}
\{ You can do it, too. \} \{ It’s much better to ask. \}

Our assumption (i.e., two sentences with similar syntax structure convey similar meaning) does not apply to the above condition.

6 Conclusion

We use the traditional NLP features including string-based features, corpus-based features and alignment features for textual similarity estimation, as well as efficient word embedding features. It is also worth pointing out that our word embedding features are highly interpretable and hyper-parameter free, as well as they are straight-forward to measure semantic textual similarity. The difference between top system and our best system is about 2.8%, which means our systems are promising. Noticing the gap between top system and our systems on answer-answer set, we will explore to find the central words of sentences in future work.

Acknowledgments

This research is supported by grants from Science and Technology Commission of Shanghai Municipality (14DZ2260800 and 15ZR1410700), Shanghai Collaborative Innovation Center of Trustworthy Software for Internet of Things (ZF1213).
References

Eneko Agirre, Carmen Banea, Claire Cardie, Daniel Cer, Mona Diab, Aitor Gonzalez-Agirre, Weiwei Guo, Inigo Lopez-Gazpio, Montse Maritxalar, Rada Mihalcea, German Rigau, Larraitz Uria, and Janyce Wiebe. 2015a. Semeval-2015 task 2: Semantic textual similarity, english, spanish and pilot on interpretability. In Proceedings of the 9th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2015), pages 252–263, Denver, Colorado, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Eneko Agirre, Ander Barrena, and Aitor Soroa. 2015b. Studying the wikipedia hyperlink graph for relatedness and disambiguation. CoRR, abs/1503.01655.

Daniel Bär, Chris Biemann, Iryna Gurevych, and Torsten Zesch. 2012. Ukp: Computing semantic textual similarity by combining multiple content similarity measures. In Proceedings of the First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics-Volume 1: Proceedings of the main conference and the shared task, and Volume 2: Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation, pages 435–440. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Lars Buitinck, Gilles Louppe, Mathieu Blondel, Fabian Pedregosa, Andreas Mueller, Olivier Grisel, Vlad Niculae, Peter Prettenhofer, Alexandre Gramfort, Jaques Grobler, Robert Layton, Jake VanderPlas, Arnaud Joly, Brian Holt, and Gaël Varoquaux. 2013. API design for machine learning software: experiences from the scikit-learn project. In ECML PKDD Workshop: Languages for Data Mining and Machine Learning, pages 108–122.

Juri Ganitkevitch, Benjamin Van Durme, and Chris Callison-Burch. 2013. PPDB: The paraphrase database. In Proceedings of NAACL-HLT, pages 758–764, Atlanta, Georgia, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Sergio Jimenez, Claudia Becerra, and Alexander Gelbukh. 2012. Soft cardinality: A parameterized similarity function for text comparison. In Proceedings of the First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics-Volume 1: Proceedings of the main conference and the shared task, and Volume 2: Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation, pages 449–453. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Matt Kusner, Yu Sun, Nicholas Kolkin, and Kilian Q Weinberger. 2015. From word embeddings to document distances. In Proceedings of the 32nd International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML-15), pages 957–966.

Christopher D. Manning, Mihai Surdeanu, John Bauer, Jenny Finkel, Steven J. Bethard, and David McClosky. 2014. The Stanford CoreNLP natural language processing toolkit. In Proceedings of 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: System Demonstrations, pages 55–60.

Tomas Mikolov, Ilya Sutskever, Kai Chen, Greg S Corrado, and Jeff Dean. 2013. Distributed representations of words and phrases and their compositionality. In Advances in neural information processing systems, pages 3111–3119.

Jeff Mitchell and Mirella Lapata. 2008. Vector-based models of semantic composition. In Proceedings of ACL-08: HLT, pages 236–244, Columbus, Ohio, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher D. Manning. 2014. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In Proceedings of the 2014 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2014), pages 1532–1543.

Md Arafat Sultan, Steven Bethard, and Tamara Sumner. 2015. Dls@cu: Sentence similarity from word alignment and semantic vector composition. In Proceedings of the 9th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2015), pages 148–153, Denver, Colorado, June. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Joseph Turian, Lev Ratinov, and Yoshua Bengio. 2010. Word representations: a simple and general method for semi-supervised learning. In Proceedings of the 48th annual meeting of the association for computational linguistics, pages 384–394. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Frane Šarić, Goran Glavaš, Mladen Karan, Jan Šnajder, and Bojana Dalbelo Bašić. 2012. Takelab: Systems for measuring semantic text similarity. In Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2012), pages 441–448, Montréal, Canada, 7-8 June. Association for Computational Linguistics.

Jiang Zhao, Tiantian Zhu, and Man Lan. 2014. Ecnu: One stone two birds: Ensemble of heterogeneous measures for semantic relatedness and textual entailment. In Proceedings of the 8th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2014), pages 271–277, Dublin, Ireland, August. Association for Computational Linguistics and Dublin City University.