

# (Computational) Lexical Semantics

MLP Course, winter term 11/12

based on chapters 19/12, Jurafsky and Martin

December 21, 2011

# Outline

## 1 Lexical Semantics (Chapter 19, J+M)

- Word senses
- Relations between word senses
- WordNet
- Lexical semantics of verbs
- Challenges

## 2 Computational Lexical Semantics (Chapter 20, J+M)

- Word Sense Disambiguation
- Word Similarity
- Semantic Roles Labeling
- Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics (Rohrdantz et al 2011)

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## Word senses

### 'the bow'

*"The **bow** should be tall enough to prevent water from washing over the ship."*

*"The **bow** consists of a specially shaped stick and a ribbon stretched between its ends and is used to stroke the strings and create sound."*

*"Robin Hood used **bow** and arrow to fight the rich."*

*"The level and duration of the **bow** depends on status, age and other factors."*

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*"The **bow** should be tall enough to prevent water from washing over the ship."*

- a ship's bow

*"The **bow** consists of a specially shaped stick and a ribbon stretched between its ends and is used to stroke the strings and create sound."*

- the bow of a musical instrument

*"Robin Hood used **bow** and arrow to fight the rich."*

- the bow as a weapon

*"The level and duration of the **bow** depends on status, age and other factors."*

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- The noun *bow* has at least **four senses**

# Word Senses

- one word, but its senses are completely unrelated
  - ▶ e.g. *bank*
  - ▶ homonyms → homonymy
- one word, its senses are semantically related
  - ▶ *bow* as in weapon and part of a musical instrument
  - ▶ polysems → polysemy

→ gradual distinction between homonymy and polysemy

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→ gradual distinction between homonymy and polysemy

- one aspect of a concept refers to another aspect of that concept
  - ▶ e.g. usage of *White House* when referred to the administration with offices in the White house
  - ▶ metonymy

# Relations between word senses

- two words with (almost) identical senses
  - ▶ *couch/sofa, to vomit/to throw up*
  - ▶ synonymy
  - ▶ more formally: *two words are synonymous if they are substitutable without changing the truth conditions of the sentence*
  
- two words with opposed senses
  - ▶ *short/long, rise/fall*
  - ▶ antonymy

## Relations between word senses

- one sense is more specific than another sense
  - ▶ *hyponymy*
- one sense is less specific than another sense
  - ▶ *hypernymy*

hypernym	vehicle	fruit	furniture
hyponym	car	mango	chair

- senses are related by a part-whole relation
  - ▶ *leg/chair, wheel/car*
  - ▶ “part” = *leg* = meronym, “whole” = *chair* = holonym

→ these concepts are the building blocks of a taxonomy, i.e. a tree-like structure of senses

# WordNet

- the most commonly used lexical resource for English words is WordNet (Fellbaum, 1998)
- based on the relations of senses as just discussed
- three separate databases for nouns, verbs and adjectives/adverbs
- WordNet 3.0 has 117097 nouns, 11488 verbs, 22141 adjectives and 4601 adverbs

Demo

## Lexical semantics of verbs

Representation of an event in a neo-Davidsonian way:

Jane broke the window.

$\exists e, x, y \text{ Breaking}(e) \wedge \text{Jane}(x) \wedge \text{window}(y) \wedge$

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- Breaker and BrokenThing are **deep** roles and are specific to each event
- BUT: in order to build computational systems we need to have a more general classification of arguments
- different approaches:
  - ▶ thematic roles (Fillmore 1968 and Gruber 1965)
  - ▶ proto roles as in PropBank
  - ▶ frame-specific roles as in FrameNet

# Lexical semantics of verbs

## Thematic roles (Fillmore 1968 and Gruber 1965)

<b>Thematic Role</b>	<b>Definition</b>
AGENT	The volitional causer of an event
EXPERIENCER	The experiencer of an event
FORCE	The non-volitional causer of the event
THEME	The participant most directly affected by an event
RESULT	The end product of an event
CONTENT	The proposition or content of a propositional event
INSTRUMENT	The instrument used in an event
BENEFICIARY	The beneficiary of an event
SOURCE	The origin of the object of a transfer event
GOAL	The destination of an object of a transfer event

## Lexical semantics of verbs

Representation of verb arguments with thematic roles:

Jane broke the window.

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Representation of verb arguments with thematic roles:

Jane broke the window.

Jane = Agent, the window = Theme

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Jane broke the window with a rock.

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The window was broken by Jane.

## Lexical semantics of verbs

Representation of verb arguments with thematic roles:

Jane broke the window.

Jane = Agent, the window = Theme

Jane broke the window with a rock.

Jane = Agent, the window = Theme, the rock = Instrument

The window was broken by Jane.

the window = Theme, Jane = Agent

- Possible arguments of *to break*: AGENT, THEME, INSTRUMENT

## Lexical semantics of verbs

But verbs can vary according to which thematic roles they assign in what position:

(1) a. Jane broke the window.

b. The window broke.

(2) a. Jane cut the cake.

b. \*The cake cut.

alternation

Conative

## Lexical semantics of verbs

But verbs can vary according to which thematic roles they assign in what position:

(4) a. Jane broke the window.

b. The window broke.

(5) a. Jane cut the cake.

b. \*The cake cut.

alternation

Conative

(6) a. Jane gave the book to James.

b. Jane gave James the book.

Dative alternation

- Levin (1993) is a reference book that lists all verb alternations for English and detects semantic classes of verbs based on their syntactic behavior → basis for the English Verbnet (Demo)

# Lexical semantics of verbs

## The Proposition Bank (PropBank)

- the PennTreebank annotated with semantic roles
- semantic roles are defined with respect to an individual verb sense
- roles in PropBank are numbered rather than labeled, e.g. Arg0, Arg1 etc.

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### agree.01

---

Agr0: Agreeer

Agr1: Proposition

Agr2: Other entity agreeing

---

Ex1: [<sub>Agr0</sub> The group ] *agreed* [<sub>Agr1</sub> it wouldn't make an offer unless it had Georgia Gulf's consent ].

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

# Lexical semantics of verbs

## Problems with PropBank

- ✓ [*Arg0* The group ] *agreed* [*Arg1* it wouldn't make an offer unless it had Georgia Gulf's consent ].
- ✓ [*ArgM-TMP* Usually ] [*Arg0* John ] *agrees* [*Arg2* with Mary] [*Arg1* on everything].

# Lexical semantics of verbs

## Problems with PropBank

✓ [ $Arg_0$  The group ] *agreed* [ $Arg_1$  it wouldn't make an offer unless it had Georgia Gulf's consent ].

✓ [ $ArgM-TMP$  Usually ] [ $Arg_0$  John ] *agrees* [ $Arg_2$  with Mary] [ $Arg_1$  on everything].

? [ $ArgM-TMP$  Usually ] [ $Arg_0$  John ] *consents* [ $Arg_2$  with Mary] [ $Arg_1$  on everything].

? There is an agreement of [ $Arg_0$  John] with [ $Arg_2$  with Mary].

We would like to represent these roles in a uniform way, across different verbs and also across nouns and verbs → FrameNet

# Lexical semantics of verbs

## FrameNet

- semantic role labeling project that attempts to address the problems of thematic roles and PropBank (Baker et al. 1998, Lowe et al. 1997 and Ruppenhofer et al. 2006)
- verbs are grouped in frames where specific roles hold
- e.g. frame *make\_agreement\_on\_action*

## Demo

# Challenges

Two main challenges in the computational treatment of lexical semantics:

- selectional restrictions
  - ▶ semantic constraint that the verb imposes on the concepts that are allowed to fill its argument structure
- metaphors
  - ▶ relation between two completely different domains of meaning - generating an independent meaning

# Challenges

## Selectional restrictions:

- (7) a. I want to eat Malaysian food.  
b. I want to eat somewhere.

How do we know that *somewhere* is not the direct object of the sentence?

- intransitive and transitive version of *to eat*
- the direct object of *to eat* must be an edible entity
- *somewhere* is a location and not edible

# Challenges

- (8) a. Does American Airlines still serve a hot meal?  
b. Does American Airlines still serve Denver?

Senses of serve:

- cooking/providing food
- providing a commercial service
- and probably other senses, too

→ the set of concepts needed to represent selectional restrictions is almost open-ended

→ no resource available that encodes a full range of these concepts (does a finite set of these concepts exist at all?)

# Challenges

Can we get around the problem of selectional restrictions?

## 1. Usage of WordNet?

- ▶ for the case of *to eat* we could refer to the synset *food, nutrient* for its direct object
- ▶ but then we also need to account for cases like *I ate rabbit the other day* item include the synset *animal* as well?

## 2. Decomposing the meaning of words into their primitive semantic elements?

- ▶ What would these elements be for *cow, bull, calf*?

# Challenges

## A further problem for computers: metaphors

(9) It doesn't scare Microsoft that Apple's new iPad is out.

- here, the company is viewed as a person that can experience fear
- problem for the computer: when is an expression metaphorically used and when is it ill-formed?
  - ▶ ?Apple is scared of mice.

# Quick recap

- Relations between word senses:
  - ▶ synonymy
  - ▶ antonymy
  - ▶ hyponymy/hypernymy
  - ▶ meronymy
- verb lexical semantics
  - ▶ thematic roles
  - ▶ proto-roles
  - ▶ frame roles

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# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## Two main approaches:

### 1. lexical sample approach

- ▶ a small pre-selected set of target words to be disambiguated
- ▶ set of senses for each word from a lexicon
- ▶ corpus instances of the target words are hand-labelled with the correct senses
  - ★ e.g. *line-hard-serve* corpus (Leacock et al. 1993), *interest* corpus (Bruce and Wiebe 1994) and SENSEVAL corpora
- ▶ classifier systems are trained on these instances
- ▶ unlabeled instances are then tagged with the classifier

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### 2. all-words approach

- ▶ a system is given a text and a lexicon with senses of the words of the text
  - ★ e.g. SemCor (Miller et al. 1993, Landes et al. 1998) and SENSEVAL-3 (Palmer et al. 2001)
- ▶ then every content word of the text is disambiguated

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## 1. Supervised learning:

### 1. extraction of features that are predictive of word senses

- ▶ collocational features: position-specific relation to the target word
- ▶ bag-of-words features: unordered set of words, exact position is ignored

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*An electric guitar and **bass** player stand off to one side, just as a sort of nod to gringo expectation perhaps.*

Collocational feature vector with target word  $w_i$ :

$[w_{i-2}, \text{POS}_{i-2}, w_{i-1}, \text{POS}_{i-1}, w_{i+1}, \text{POS}_{i+1}, w_{i+2}, \text{POS}_{i+2}]$

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[guitar, NN, and, CC, player, NN, stand, VB]

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## 1. Supervised learning:

*An electric guitar and **bass** player stand off to one side, just as a sort of nod to gringo expectation perhaps.*

**Vocabulary vector** of the 10 most frequent content words in *bass* sentences:  
[*fishing, sound, player, fly, rod, double, runs, playing, guitar, band*]

**Bag-of-words feature vector** with binary features:

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These vectors are then input to machine learning algorithms.

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## Naive Bayes classifier:

- $\hat{s} = \operatorname{argmax} P(s_i) \prod_{j=1}^n P(f_j|s_i)$
- training a naive Bayes classifier means estimating each of these probabilities
- $P(s_i) = \frac{\text{count}(s_i, w_j)}{\text{count}(w_j)}$  = prior probability of each sense
  - ▶ counting the number of times sense  $s_i$  occurs, divided by the total number of target word  $w_j$
  - ▶ If the target word *bass* appears 150 times in the corpus and it has sense *bass*<sup>1</sup> in 60 cases, what is the prior probability of the sense?

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- $P(f_j|s) = \frac{\operatorname{count}(f_j, s)}{\operatorname{count}(s)}$  = individual feature probabilities
  - ▶ If a feature such as [ $w_{i-2} = \text{guitar}$ ] occurs three times for sense *bass*<sup>1</sup>, and sense *bass*<sup>1</sup> occurs 60 times in the corpus, what is its individual feature probability?

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## Naive Bayes classifier:

- $\hat{s} = \operatorname{argmax} P(s_i) \prod_{j=1}^n P(f_j | s_i)$
- putting in the values computed before for
  - ▶  $P(s_i) = \frac{\text{count}(s_i, w_j)}{\text{count}(w_j)}$  = prior probability of each sense
  - ▶  $P(f_j | s) = \frac{\text{count}(f_j, s)}{\text{count}(s)}$  = individual feature probabilities
- What is the probability of guitar occurring with sense *bass*<sup>1</sup>?

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## Evaluation of WSD systems:

- a WSD system can be evaluated with respect to **sense accuracy**
  - ▶ the percentage of words that are tagged identically to the hand-labeled sense tags in the test set
- usually compared to two measures:
  - ▶ baseline
    - ★ e.g. simply take the most frequent sense for each word
  - ▶ ceiling
    - ★ e.g. human inter-annotator agreement

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## 2. Dictionary and Thesaurus Methods

- The Lesk algorithm: family of algorithms for dictionary-based sense disambiguation
- Simplified Lesk algorithm (Kilgarriff and Rosenzweig 2000):
  - ▶ which sense gloss shares the most words with the target word's neighbourhood?

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*The **bank** can guarantee deposits that will eventually cover future tuition costs because it invests in adjustable-rate mortgage securities.*

---

bank<sup>1</sup> Gloss: a financial institution that accepts deposits  
and channels the money into lending activities

bank<sup>2</sup> Gloss: sloping land (especially the slope beside a body of water)

---

Which sense is taken?

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## 2. Dictionary and Thesaurus Methods

- Original Lesk algorithm (Lesk 1986):
  - ▶ the gloss of the target word is compared to the glosses of the surrounding words
  - ▶ the sense with the most overlapping words is chosen

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*pine cone*

---

pine <sup>1</sup>	Gloss:	kinds of evergreen trees with needle-shaped leaves
pine <sup>2</sup>	Gloss:	waste away through sorrow or illness
cone <sup>1</sup>	Gloss:	solid body which narrows to a point
cone <sup>2</sup>	Gloss:	something of this shape whether solid or hollow
cone <sup>3</sup>	Gloss:	fruit of certain evergreen trees

---

Which sense is taken?

# Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD)

## The caveat of large hand-built resources

- both the supervised approach and the dictionary-based approach require large amounts of labeled data
- what can be done if these resources are not available?

→ e.g. Yarovsky algorithm (1995)

- ▶ small seedset of labeled instances of each sense and a much larger unlabeled corpus
- ▶ first training of an initial classifier on the seedset
- ▶ then parsing of the unlabeled data with this classifier
- ▶ selection of the most confident labeled instance and addition to the training set
- ▶ with each iteration, the training set grows and the unlabeled corpus shrinks

# Word Similarity

- to compute word similarity is useful for many natural language applications

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  - ▶ machine translation
  - ▶ information retrieval
  - ▶ question answering
  - ▶ text summarization

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- to compute word similarity is useful for many natural language applications
  - ▶ machine translation
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  - ▶ question answering
  - ▶ text summarization
- two classes of algorithms: **thesaurus-based algorithms** and **distributional algorithms**

# Word Similarity

## 1. Thesaurus-based algorithms:

- usage of the structure of a thesaurus to define word similarity
- word similarity  $\neq$  word relatedness
  - ▶ word relatedness characterizes a larger set of potential relationship between words
  - ▶ e.g. antonyms are related but not similar
- Path-length-based similarity: measuring the edges between two concepts

$$\text{sim}_{\text{path}}(c_1, c_2) = \text{pathlen}(c_1, c_2)$$

- Log transform of path-length-based similarity

$$\text{sim}_{\text{path}}(c_1, c_2) = -\log \text{pathlen}(c_1, c_2)$$

# Word Similarity

- problem with path-length algorithms:

- ▶ assumption that each link in the thesaurus represents a uniform distance

→ information-content word-similarity algorithms (following Resnik 1995)

- ▶ the lower a concept in a hierarchy, the lower its probability
- ▶  $P(c)$  is the probability that a randomly selected word in a corpus is an instance of concept  $c$
- ▶  $P(\text{root}) = 1$  (any word is subsumed by the root concept)

$$P(c) = \frac{\sum_{w \in \text{words}(c)} \text{count}(w)}{N}$$

# Word Similarity

- two additional definitions are needed:
  - ▶ informaton concent (IC) of a concept:  $IC(c) = -\log P(c)$
  - ▶ lowest common subsumer (LCS) of two concepts:  $LCS(c_1, c_2)$ 
    - ★ the lowest node in the hierarchy that subsumes (is a hypernym of) both  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ .
- Resnik similarity measure:

$$\text{sim}_{resnik}(c_1, c_2) = -\log P(LCS(c_1, c_2))$$

→ information content of the lowest common subsumer of the two nodes

# Word Similarity

## 2. Distributional Algorithms

- Intuition: the meaning of a word is related to the distribution of words around it
  - ▶ “You shall know a word by the company it keeps.” (Firth 1957)

A bottle of *warzyku* is on the table  
Everybody likes *warzyku*  
*Warzyku* makes you drunk  
We make *warzyku* out of corn.

- “word meaning” as a feature vector  $\vec{w}$  with a binary features  $f_n$
- the words in the context are  $v_n$
- if  $v_1$  is present, the feature  $f_1$  is 1
- here:  $w = \text{warzyku}$ ,  $v_1 = \text{bottle}$ ,  $v_2 = \text{like}$ ,  $v_3 = \text{drunk}$ ,  $v_4 = \text{corn}$ ,  $v_5 = \text{matrix}$

# Word Similarity

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- word vector:  $\vec{w} = (1, 1, 1, 1, 0)$

# Word Similarity

- applying distributional algorithms for word similarity measure means deciding about the following facts:
  1. how are the co-occurrence terms defined (i.e. what counts as a neighbor)?
  2. how are these terms weighted?
  3. what vector distance metrics are used?

# Word Similarity

## 1. What counts as a neighbor?

- neighborhoods range from small windows (2 words before and after the target word) to very large context windows (500 words)
- Schütze (2001)'s experiments show that a context window of 50 words is enough for word sense disambiguation
- usually, stop words are removed
- grammatical dependencies and relations can also be used for context vectors

# Word Similarity

## 2. How are the terms weighted?

	<i>relation, w'</i>	<i>subj-of, make</i>	<i>obj-of, like</i>	<i>obj-of, make</i>
<i>target word w</i> warzyku	<i>f</i>	2	4	1

- vector of  $N \times R$  features, where  $R$  is the number of possible relations
- here: feature  $f$  are frequencies (a better indicator than binary values)
- $f = (r, w')$
- $P(f | w) = \frac{\text{count}(f, w)}{\text{count}(w)}$  (the probability of feature  $f$  given a target word  $w$ )

# Word Similarity

target word $w$		<i>relation, <math>w'</math></i>	<i>subj-of, make</i>	<i>obj-of, like</i>	<i>obj-of, make</i>
warzyku	$f$	2	4	1	

- $P(f, w) = \frac{\text{count}(f, w)}{\sum_{w'} \text{count}(w')}$  (the joint probability of feature  $f$  given a target word  $w$  and a context word  $w'$ )

# Word Similarity

## 3. What vector distance metrics are used?

- measure for taking two such vectors and giving a measure of vector similarity

- Levensthein distance:  $\text{dist}_L(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^N |v_i - w_i|$

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- both measures are rarely used for word similarity, because extreme values change the measure significantly

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- BUT: we normalize for the vector length
- vector length:  $|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^N v_i^2}$
- normalized dot product:

$$\text{sim}_{\text{norm-dot-product}}(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \frac{\vec{v} \times \vec{w}}{|\vec{v}| |\vec{w}|} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N v_i - w_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^N v_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^N w_i^2}}$$

# Semantic Role Labeling

- current approaches rely on on adequate amounts of training and testing data
- General (simplified) approach:
  - 1 parsing the sentence
  - 2 finding all predicates (here: verbs)
  - 3 traversing the tree to determine the roles of the constituents with respect to that predicate

→ feature vector

# Semantic Role Labeling

- these observations (feature vectors) are then divided in test and training set
- training of classifier which then yields good results on unlabeled data
- training is mostly done in different stages
  - ▶ elimination of some possible role constituents based on simple heuristics (pruning) → speeds up training
  - ▶ binary identification of each node as being either ARG or NONE
  - ▶ classification of the ARG labeled constituents

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Motivation

- ① increasing amount of diachronic data electronically available
- ② demand of historical linguists to process these corpora and see developments and patterns over time at-a-glance

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Tracking of overall developments of language and also allowing to delve into the details of the data.

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Tracking of overall developments of language and also allowing to delve into the details of the data.

## Research question

Can we create tools that aid during the analysis of language change, can they test existing hypotheses of change and can they even generate new ones?

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

The object under investigation is **semantic change** (here: in English)

But what is semantic change?

- if a word changes its meaning over time, it has undergone semantic change.
- some types of semantic change:
  - ▶ *narrowing* (the meaning of a word becomes restricted), e.g. skyline
  - ▶ *widening* (the meaning of a word widens), e.g. horn
- semantic change in the last 20 years: words related to the computer and the internet

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

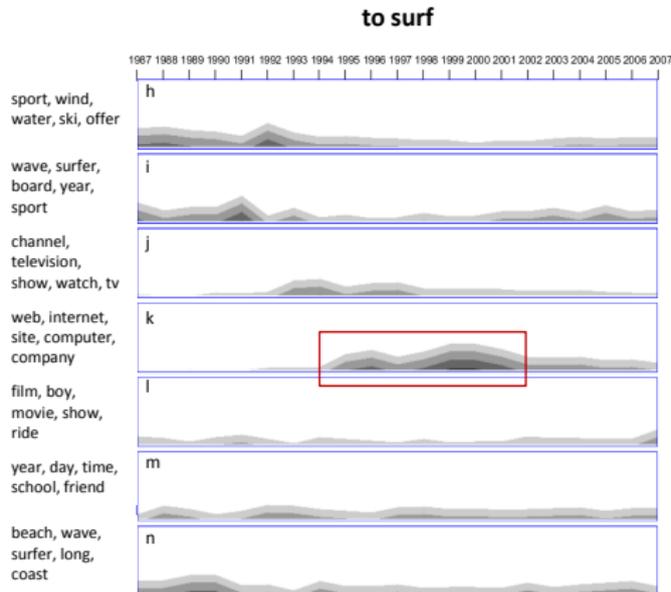
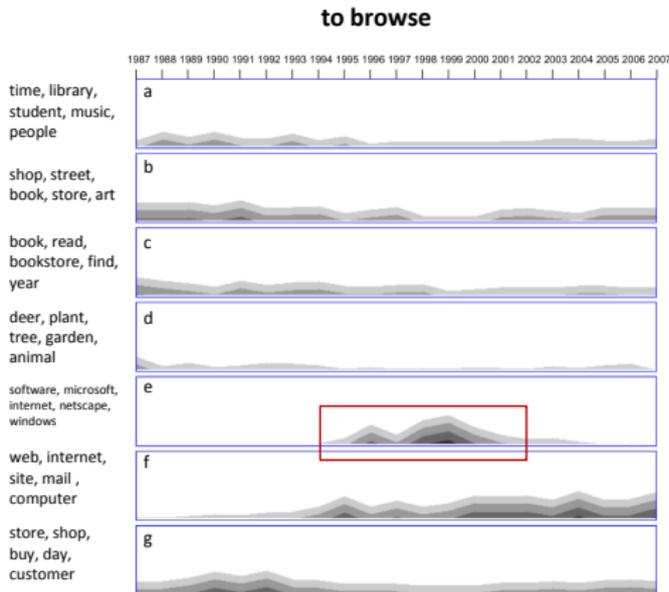
## Methodology

- search New York Times corpus
  - ▶ 1.8 million newspaper articles from 1987 to 2007
  - ▶ each article has a specific time stamp
- extract context of 25 words before and after the lexical item under investigation
- use statistics to model word senses on the basis of word contexts
  - ▶ Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) (Blei et al., 2003)
    - ★ not applied on documents but on contexts
  - ▶ we predefine the number of senses, each context is assigned to one sense
- add a visualization layer that graphically interprets the information from the statistical analysis and makes it accessible to historical linguists

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## First visualization approach

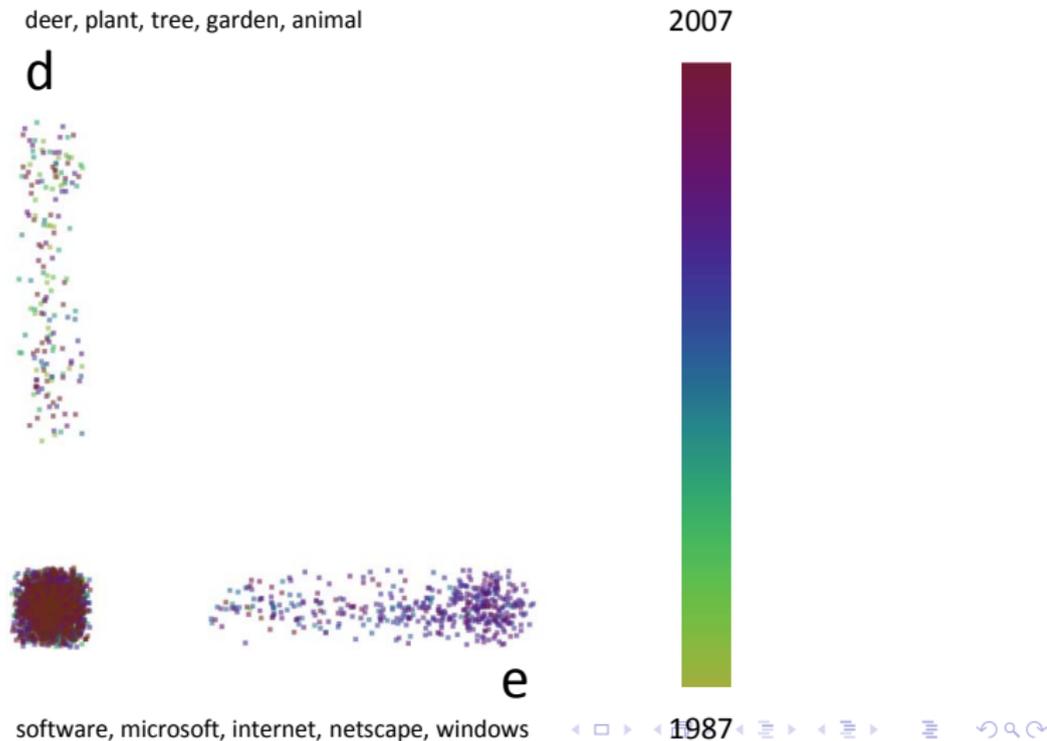
- aggregated view on the data



# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Second visualization approach

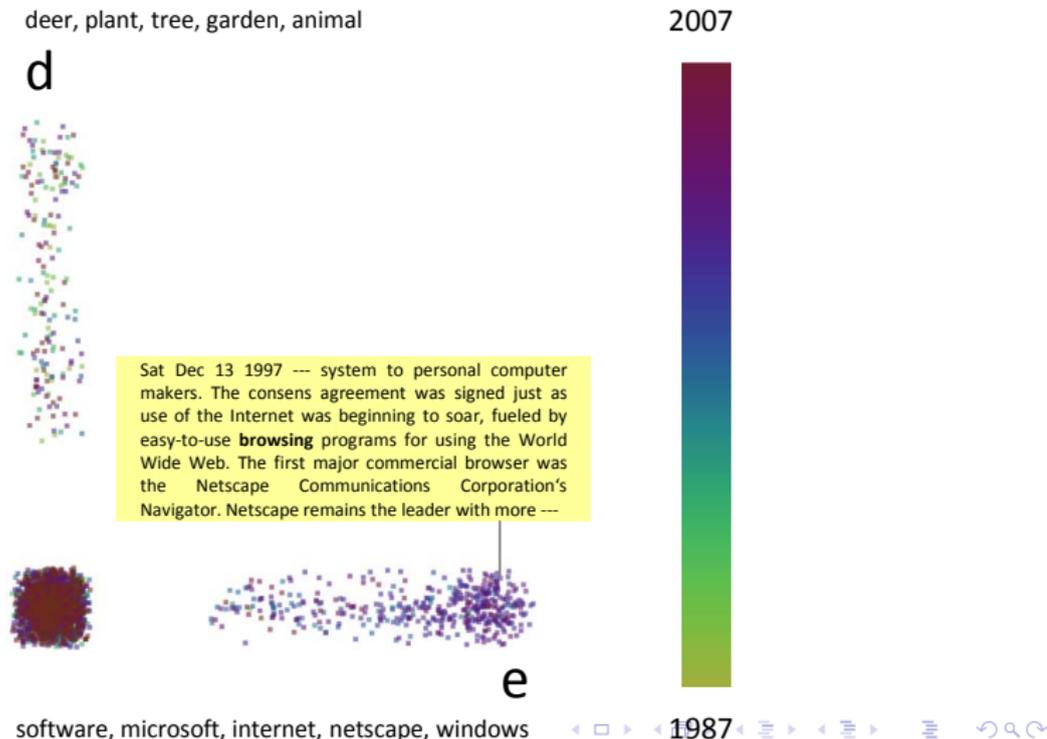
- individual plotting of the contexts of *to browse*



# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

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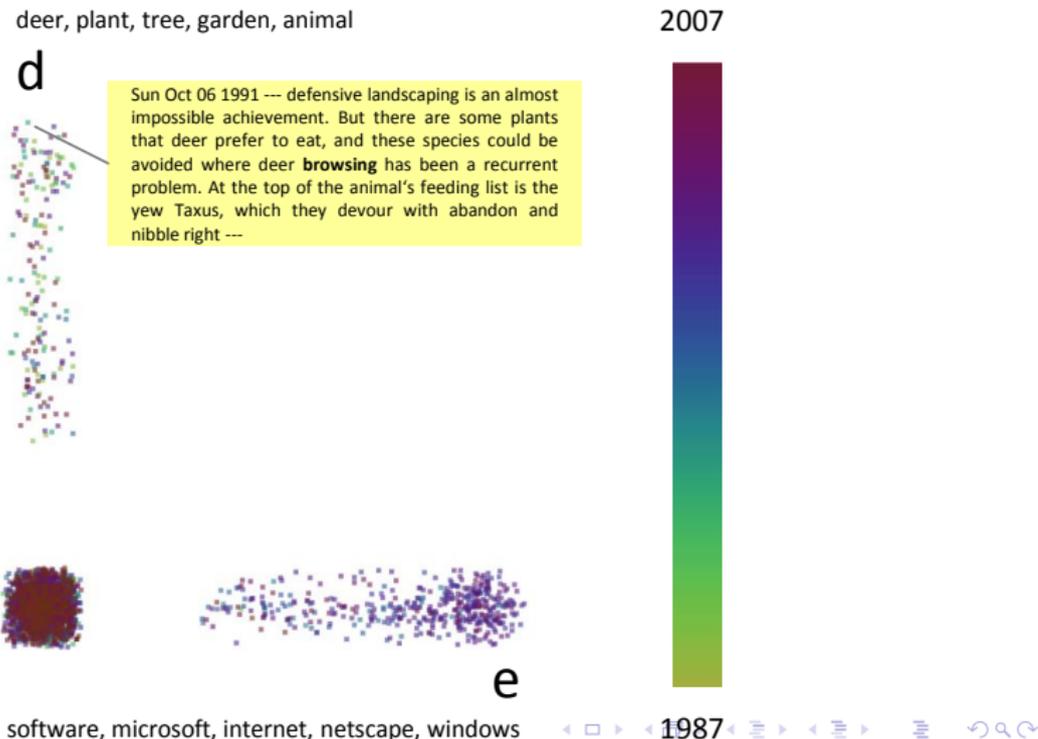
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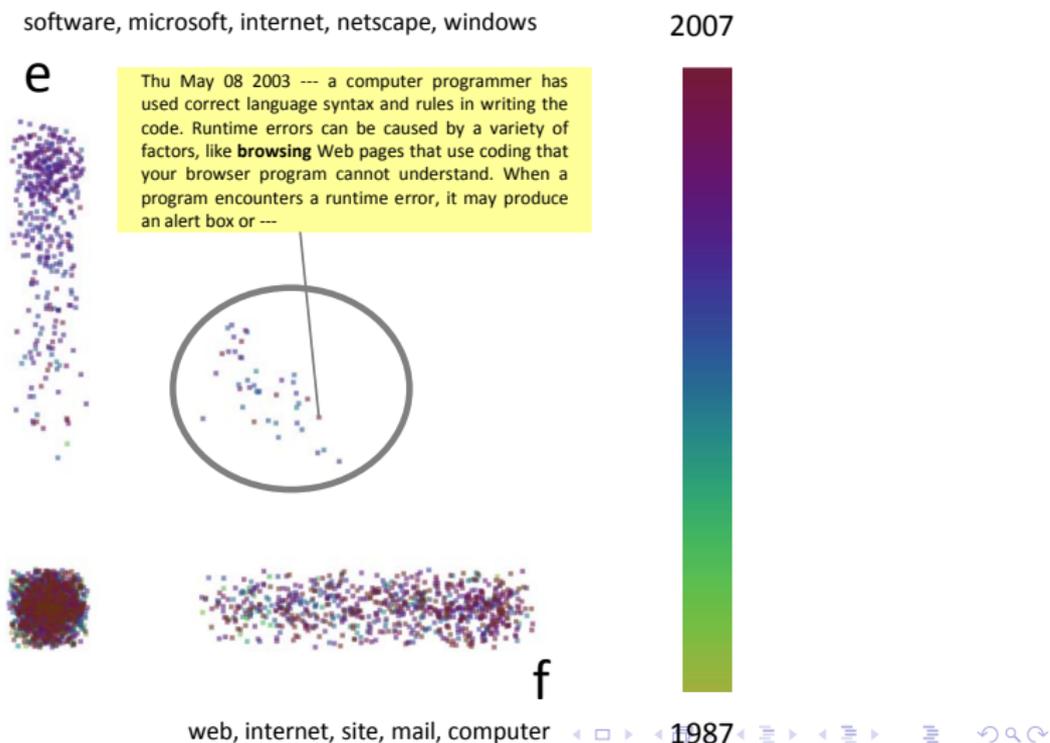
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# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Second visualization approach

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# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Evaluation

- generally difficult (if not impossible) to fully evaluate statistical approaches to meaning change
- one attempt: compare the findings from the visualization with information from dictionaries from different time periods
  - ▶ Longman Dictionary from 1987 (LONG)
  - ▶ WordNet from 1998 (WN)
  - ▶ Collins dictionary from 2007 (COLL)

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Evaluation

	to browse		to surf		messenger		bookmark	
	# of word senses		# of word senses		# of word senses		# of word senses	
	DIC	VIS	DIC	VIS	DIC	VIS	DIC	VIS
1987 (LONG)	2	3	1	1	1	2	1	1
1998 (WN)	5	4	3	3	1	3	1	2
2007 (COLL)	3	4	3	2	1	4	2	2

Table: Evaluation of visualized senses against dictionary senses

- in general, the number of our senses corresponds to the information coming from the dictionary
- in the case of “messenger” the visualization proves to be even more detailed

# Towards tracking semantic change by visual analytics

## Evaluation

	messenger	
	# of word senses	
1987	LONG: a person who brings a message	VIS: bike messenger messenger (genetics)
1997	WN: a person who carries a message	VIS: bike messenger messenger (genetics) religious messenger
2007	COLL: a person who brings a message	VIS: bike messenger messenger (genetics) religious messenger instant messenger

Table: Sense development of *messenger* from 1987 to 2007