

Title	Semantic Class Disambiguation for All Words
Author(s)	Truong Vo, Huu Thien
Citation	
Issue Date	2016-09
Type	Thesis or Dissertation
Text version	author
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/10119/13744
Rights	
Description	Supervisor: 白井 清昭, 情報科学研究科, 修士

Semantic Class Disambiguation for All Words

Truong Vo Huu Thien

School of Information Science
Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology
September, 2016

Master's Thesis

Semantic Class Disambiguation for All Words

1410219 Truong Vo Huu Thien

Supervisor : Associate Professor Kiyoaki Shirai
Main Examiner : Associate Professor Kiyoaki Shirai
Examiners : Associate Professor Nguyen Le Minh
Professor Satoshi Tojo

School of Information Science
Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology

August, 2016

Acknowledgement

Foremost, I would first like to thank my thesis supervisor **Associate Professor Kiyoaki Shirai** of the Information Science at **Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology**. I am gratefully indebted for his guidance, inspiration, and support from the very beginning to the thesis accomplishment.

Besides, I would like to thank the rest of my thesis committee members: **Associate Professor Nguyen Le Minh** and **Professor Satoshi Tojo** for their encouragement, valuable comments and insightful questions.

During the time I conducted my research, I received several useful comments and suggestions from members in **Shirai Laboratory**. My most sincere thanks and wishes to all of them.

I also would like to show my gratitude to **JAIST**, **Viet Nam National University**, and **Japanese Government JASSO** for giving me the opportunity to study, research, expense of wonderful life experiences in Japan.

Last but not least, my beloved family and friends are always my strong motivation for me to overcome all of challenges I have taken on the road I passed and to come. I want to express my great appreciation to all of them for all of the support they have given.

Truong Vo Huu Thien
August 26, 2015

Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Background and Motivation	1
1.2	Goal	2
1.3	Organization of the thesis	3
2	Related Work	4
2.1	Word Sense Disambiguation	4
2.2	Semantic Class Disambiguation	6
2.3	Discussion	7
3	Proposed method	8
3.1	Semantic Class	8
3.2	Ariyakornwijit’s method	8
3.3	Proposed Architecture	12
3.4	Features	14
3.4.1	Local Context	14
3.4.2	Part of Speech	16
3.4.3	Collocations	16
3.4.4	Syntactic Features	18
3.5	Learning Algorithm	20
3.6	Selection of Semantic Class	21
3.7	Feature Selection	22
3.7.1	Frequency Based Feature Selection	22
3.7.2	Pearson’s chi-squared Test	22
4	Evaluation	24
4.1	Test Data	24
4.2	Training Data	28
4.2.1	Experiment I	29
4.2.2	Experiment II	30
4.3	Results	32
4.3.1	Results of Experiment I	32
4.3.2	Results of Experiment II	33
4.3.3	Discussion	35

5	Conclusion and Future Work	36
5.1	Conclusion	36
5.2	Future Work	37

This dissertation was prepared according to the curriculum for the Collaborative Education Program organized by Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology and Ho Chi Minh National University.

List of Figures

3.1	Traditional Approach of WSD	10
3.2	Ariyakornwijit's Approach [1]	10
3.3	Ariyakornwijit's Architecture [1] (OVR-SCD)	11
3.4	Example of Target Word and Its Context(1)	12
3.5	Proposed Architecture (PW-SCD)	13
3.6	Training Procedures	15
3.7	Example of Target Word and Its Context (2)	15
3.8	Example of Target Word and Its Context (3)	16
3.9	POS feature	16
3.10	Part of Speech of "immunisation" in the Context	17
3.11	An example of POS feature	17
3.12	Collocation Feature	17
3.13	Example of Collocation Feature	17
3.14	Example of Extraction of Collocation Feature from Different Target Words	18
3.15	Example of Syntactic Feature	20
3.16	Support Vector Machine separators	21
4.1	An Sample of Target Word 'difference' in Test Data	25
4.2	An Sample of Target Word 'begin' in Test Data	26

List of Tables

3.1	List of Semantic Classes in WordNet	9
3.2	Average Number of Samples in OVR-SCD	14
3.3	Average Number of Samples in PW-SCD	14
3.4	Type Dependencies and Collapsed Typed Dependencies Extracted by Stanford Parser	19
3.5	Example of Majority Voting	22
3.6	Contingency Table of Feature and Semantic Class	23
4.1	Lexical Entry of the Noun ‘different’	27
4.2	Lexical Entry of the Verb ‘begin’	27
4.3	List of Target Word	28
4.4	Statistics of Training Data in Experiment I	30
4.5	Statistics of Training Data in Experiment II	31
4.6	Accuracy of Semantic Class Disambiguation in Experiment I	33
4.7	Accuracy of Semantic Class Disambiguation	34

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD) is a task to identify a sense of a word in a given context when the word has multiple meanings. Unlike human brain which is quite proficient at recognizing the correct meaning of a word in a sentence, the computer scientist faces a serious problem to develop word sense disambiguation ability for computers that can interact with human. To illustrate how WSD is performed, let's consider an example below.

The word 'bank' in the dictionary¹ has two senses:

1. A raised shelf or ridge of ground; a long, high mound with steeply sloping sides; one side or slope of such a ridge or mound.
2. The shop, office, or place of business of a money changer or moneylender.

There are two example sentences containing the target word 'bank':

1. The boy leapt from the **bank** into the cold water.
2. I have money in the **bank**.

It is not difficult for human to realize the word "bank" in the first sentence has the first sense and in the second sentence it has the second sense. WSD is a method to replicate this incredible human ability into the computers.

WSD plays an important role in Natural Language Processing (NLP). It is one of the fundamental techniques used for many NLP applications such as machine translation, information retrieval, and opinion mining. It is also considered as one of the oldest problems in the early day of machine translation formulated in the 1940s.

Therefore, many approaches have been proposed to solve this problem: a dictionary-based method that uses lexical resources containing glosses or definition sentences of the word senses, supervised machine learning based method that uses a manually sense

¹<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>

tagged corpus as the training data, and an unsupervised learning based method that trains a classifier of WSD from unannotated text. Recently, supervised machine learning shows the best performance among various approaches for WSD.

However, supervised learning requires a considerable amount of training data, i.e. a collection of texts annotated with the gold senses of the words. Since manual annotation of the senses requires much cost and time, it is often difficult to prepare enough data for training. This problem is known as “Knowledge Acquisition Bottleneck” problem or “Data Sparseness” problem. Mihalcea and Chklovski estimated that it took 80 years for a person to manually build labeled training data for 20,000 words in a common English dictionary [15].

In the ordinary approaches of WSD, a classifier is trained for each target word, since sense inventory is unique to the target word. It is necessary to train many WSD classifiers to disambiguate the senses of all words in the text, however, it is difficult to prepare the annotated training data for all words, especially for the low frequent word. On the other hand, an alternative approach was proposed to tackle this problem. In this approach, a set of semantic classes is used as a common sense inventory for all words. The semantic class refers to an abstract concept of the words, such as ‘plant’, ‘shape’, and ‘time’. Instead of training individual classifiers for the target words, the universal classifiers that can determine the semantic class of any words including the low frequent word are trained. It can alleviate knowledge acquisition bottleneck problem, since a small number of the classifiers are required to train.

As the semantic class only expresses more general concept than the sense, semantic class disambiguation (a coarse grained WSD in other words) is insufficient for some NLP applications such as machine translation. However, it is obviously useful for many applications, such as information retrieval and acquisition of domain knowledge [18].

To understand how useful Semantic Class Disambiguation (SCD) is in information retrieval, we can consider an example of the word ‘apple’ containing 3 senses: apple as a fruit, apple as a tree and apple as a company. A correct disambiguation of the word ‘apple’ in the query sentence and the sentences in a document collection improves the performance of information retrieval system. When a user want to search the information about a product of Apple company, the semantic class disambiguation can prevent the system from retrieving irrelevant documents about apple fruit and apple tree. Moreover, SCD is successfully applied in CRYSTAL [22], which can surpass human intuition in creating reliable information extraction rules.

1.2 Goal

This paper proposes a novel method to disambiguate the semantic classes of all words. In the previous method of semantic class disambiguation, the training data often consists of imbalanced positive and negative samples. The system trained from such data tends to classify a new input into the majority class. It causes decline of performance of semantic class disambiguation. Our new architecture enables us to train the classifiers from more balanced training data.

The dimension of feature vector in this method is very high. Using all of features might not be good because some of them are noisy and decrease the performance. Various techniques to choose the important features, called feature selection, was proposed to improve the performance of supervised learning. In this research, 2 feature selection techniques are used and empirically evaluated: frequency based method and Pearsons chi-squared test.

1.3 Organization of the thesis

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows:

- Chapter 2 introduces related work and clarifies the originally of the proposed method.
- Chapter 3 describes our new method for semantic class disambiguation.
- Chapter 4 reports results of an experiment to evaluate our method.
- Finally, Chapter 5 concludes the paper and discusses future work.

Chapter 2

Related Work

In this chapter, we introduce essential knowledge of word sense disambiguation and some previous approach on semantic class or coarse grained word sense disambiguation.

2.1 Word Sense Disambiguation

First, we explain more precise definition of word sense disambiguation (WSD). The senses of a word is defined by a dictionary or lexical database. It is generally called ‘sense inventory’. WSD is a task to choose the appropriate sense of a target word in a given context from the senses of the target word in the sense inventory. Here ‘target word’ refers to a word whose sense is aimed at being disambiguated. Obviously, the target word is an ambiguous word that has two or more senses in the sense inventory. The input of the WSD is the target word in a certain context (sentence, paragraph or document) as well as the sense inventory, and the output is one of the senses of the target word in the sense inventory. There are two major tasks in WSD: lexical sample task and all words task.

- **Lexical sample:** is a task to disambiguate a small sample of the target words.
- **All words:** is a task to disambiguate all the words in the text.

All words task is more difficult than the lexical sample task. When the supervised learning is applied to the lexical sample task, a collection of the sentences that includes the gold senses for a limited number of the target words is required. On the other hand, a sense tagged corpus that contains the gold senses of all words is required for all words task, which requires much costs to construct.

The difficulty and significance of WSD problem was recognized and understood by machine translation researchers in late 1940s. After that, large-scale lexical database and resources useful for WSD, such as the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (OALD) [7], were built. Several researchers investigated knowledge based and dictionary based methods, which utilized the information derived from the lexical database for word sense disambiguation. However, the performance of them is not actually as high as expectation. Next, machine learning techniques are highlighted in the field of natural

language processing. Because many tasks in NLP can be regarded as a classification problem for which machine learning can be applicable. WSD is also a problem that supervised learning has been successfully applied.

There are two major approaches for WSD: deep approach and shallow approach.

- **Deep approach:** assumes that we have comprehensive knowledge. For instance, we suppose to have knowledge “you have money in place of business of a money changer or moneylender, not in a long, high mound with steeply sloping sides.” We can choose the appropriate sense of the target word ‘bank’ using this knowledge. However, such common sense knowledge is very hard to describe in a computer readable format. It is also hard to accumulate comprehensive knowledge in the world. Therefore, the deep approach is not successful in real applications.
- **Shallow approach:** only considers surrounding words of the ambiguous word instead of trying to understand the context precisely. In theory, the shallow approach might not as powerful as the deep approach, but it performs much better in practice due to the limitation of computational power. Hence, many researchers take shallow approaches for WSD.

The most of conventional approaches for WSD can be categorized into the following four methods [19].

- **Dictionary-based and Knowledge-based methods :** This technique explores dictionary, thesauri, and lexical knowledge without using any corpus to disambiguate the senses of the word. Banerjee and Pedersen presented a new measure of semantic similarity between concepts that is based on the overlaps in their glosses in a dictionary [2]. The research showed the new measure was effectively applied for word sense disambiguation.
- **Semi-supervised methods or minimal supervised methods:** This utilizes both label and unlabel data. Because the lack of labeled data, many previous researches tend to use this approach. This approach uses a small annotated corpus as a seed data in a bootstrapping process. Mihalcea and Faruque introduced a minimal supervised sense tagger, called SenseLearner, which can disambiguate all content words in a text using WordNet [17]. This method used SemCor, a sense annotated corpus, as the training data to learn a WSD model for the words in SemCor corpus, while a memory based learner was applied to train another model for WSD of unseen words in SemCor corpus by generalizing the words under syntactic relations as training samples. The method achieved 64.6 % of an average accuracy.
- **Supervised methods:** Machine learning algorithms are used for training WSD classifiers from sense tagged corpora.
- **Unsupervised methods:** This technique works mostly on a raw corpora with assumption that similar senses appear in similar contexts. Hence, they can induce word sense from unlabeled text by clustering word occurrences and classify

the occurrences of a new word into the induced cluster. A novel approach was recently proposed by Bordag which performed word sense induction based on word triplets [3]. This method was based on “one sense per collocation” assumption and clustered triplets of words instead of pairs using sentence co-occurrences as features.

The shallow approaches using supervised learning show the advantage; it surpasses other approaches in performance. In recent research, Support Vector Machines [11] is the most successful approaches because it may be able to handle high dimensionality of feature space which is usually huge in WSD. However, supervised method faces a knowledge acquisition bottleneck because it depends on a large manually sense tagged corpora which consume huge cost and time.

2.2 Semantic Class Disambiguation

As described above, the senses of the target word are defined by a dictionary. The dictionary also defines granularity of the senses from a coarse to fine grained senses. The coarse grained senses represent broad meanings, while the fine grained senses distinguish subtle difference of the meaning. In fact, the disambiguation of the coarse grained sense is easier than the fine grained sense. Human is also better at WSD in coarse grained level than fine grained level. Furthermore, even the coarse grained sense disambiguation is useful for some NLP applications such as information retrieval. Hence, some research tried coarse grained distinction for evaluation. Using broader distinction also helps to alleviate the knowledge acquisition bottleneck problem in supervised learning techniques.

The semantic class or coarse grained word sense can be defined in various ways in previous approaches. Resnik proposed a method to build a set of conceptual classes for word senses using selectional preferences [21]. His method can automatically acquire linguistic predicate constraints from a raw corpus. Although his method was evaluated on fine-grained word disambiguation, coarse-grained WSD could apply his association scores for conceptual classes.

Levin proposed a method for English verb classification [12]. Supposing that a meaning of a verb influences its syntactic behavior, she defined a set of coherent verb classes and their alternations based on their syntactic behavior. This classification of the English verbs can be considered as a verb inventory.

Although Levin’s inventory is useful, it is based on syntactic properties unlike those in WordNet [6]. Korhonen proposed a mapping method from WordNet entries into Levin’s classes [10]. The accuracy of this method was 81% when automatically mapping 1,616 synsets arranged into hierarchy in WordNet to one of 32 Levin’s classes.

Although there are a lot of work on word sense disambiguation, disambiguation of the semantic classes was not paid attention so much. Nevertheless, a few studies of semantic class disambiguation have been devoted.

Izquierdo et al. presented a method to select Base Level Concepts (BLC) based on basic structural properties of WordNet [8]. Two different sets of BLC were derived by

considering 1) all types of relations in WordNet and 2) only the hyponymy relations. A naive classifier that chose the most frequent concept could perform a semantic tagging with 75% accuracy.

Kohomban and Lee proposed a method for WSD using general concepts [9]. Intuitively, the coarse grained WSD is an easier task than the fine grained WSD. To improve the performance, their method first performed the coarse grained WSD, then the chosen coarse sense was mapped to the fine grained sense using simple heuristics. The classifier was trained by memory-based learner using four useful features: local context, part-of-speech, collocation, and syntactic relation. They reported the accuracy reached over 77%.

The most important related work of this thesis is Ariyakornwijit and Shirai’s method [1]. Using four features presented in [9] with some modification, they trained a binary classifier for each semantic class that could judge if any given word in the context had the semantic class or not. Note that the number of the trained classifiers is much less than in the previous approach. In the ordinary WSD studies, one classifier is trained for each target word, while one classifier is trained for each semantic class in Ariyakornwijit’s method. Furthermore, they used the sentences including monosemous words, which has only one semantic class, as the training data. It enabled us to prepare the training data without manual annotation. Their method achieved 28.6% of exact match accuracy and 53.0% of partial match accuracy, which far surpassed the baseline. The details of this work are introduced in Section 3.2.

2.3 Discussion

Although Ariyakornwijit approach is promised to alleviate knowledge acquisition bottleneck since it requires much less trained classifiers than traditional WSD approach, the performance of the semantic class disambiguation of this method is still insufficient. They discussed that one of the reasons was imbalance of the positive and negative samples in the training data. This paper proposes a new architecture for semantic class disambiguation to tackle this problem.

Considering semantic class disambiguation, although many definitions of the coarse grained senses or semantic classes of the words have been proposed, there seems no universal set of semantic classes for all words. The appropriate set of the semantic classes may depend on the NLP applications. In this study, the semantic classes are defined based on WordNet. However, any semantic classes can be applicable in our method.

Moreover, it is useful to apply additional techniques such as feature selection and parameter optimization for improving the performance of the system. Since the feature space is huge and noisy, two feature selection methods, Pearsons chi-square test and frequency based feature selection, are experimented to reduce feature dimension. Although the feature selection is commonly used for various tasks in NLP, Ariyakornwijit and Shirai did not use it for semantic class disambiguation. This thesis reports the first attempt to investigate the effectiveness of the feature selection in the task of semantic class disambiguation.

Chapter 3

Proposed method

This chapter presents our proposed method and its advantages comparing to previous approach.

3.1 Semantic Class

In this study, WordNet [6] is used as an inventory of the semantic classes. WordNet is a famous lexical database for English, which is widely used as the sense repository in many WSD researches. It groups 155,287 words into 117,659 sets of synonyms, called synsets. The synsets composes a hierarchical structure where the synsets are connected by hypernym or other semantic relations. At the top level, WordNet defines 45 unique beginners of all synsets, which are considered as the coarsest senses. We define them as a set of the semantic classes. It consists of 26 semantic classes for noun, 15 for verb, 3 for adjective and 1 for adverb.

In this research, only nouns and verbs are considered for disambiguation of the target word because semantic classes of adjectives and adverbs rarely appear in the training corpus. A list of all semantic classes of the nouns and verbs with their identification number, name and definition is shown in Table 3.1.

3.2 Ariyakornwijit's method

This section describes more details of Ariyakornwijit's method for semantic class disambiguation [1]. Fig. 3.1 and Fig. 3.2 show the traditional approaches and Ariyakornwijit's approach for WSD, respectively.

In most WSD studies, the sense inventory is peculiar to the target word. In Figure 3.1, the set of the senses $\{S_{11}, \dots, S_{1n}\}$ of the target word w_1 and the set of the senses $\{S_{21}, \dots, S_{2n}\}$ of the target word w_2 are different. Therefore, a bulk of WSD classifiers are trained, where each classifier selects one sense from the sense inventory for the target word in the given context. On the other hand, in Ariyakornwijit's approach, the only one sense inventory $\{SC_1, \dots, SC_n\}$ that is common to all target words is defined, where SC_i

Table 3.1: List of Semantic Classes in WordNet

Id	Name	Definition
03	noun.Tops	unique beginner for nouns
04	noun.act	nouns denoting acts or actions
05	noun.animal	nouns denoting animals
06	noun.artifact	nouns denoting man-made objects
07	noun.attribute	nouns denoting attribute of people and objects
08	noun.body	nouns denoting body parts
09	noun.cognition	nouns denoting cognitive processes and contents
10	noun.communication	nouns denoting communicative processes and contents
11	noun.event	nouns denoting natural events
12	noun.feeling	nouns denoting feelings and emotions
13	noun.food	nouns denoting foods and drinks
14	noun.group	nouns denoting grouping of people or object
15	noun.location	nouns denoting spatial position
16	noun.motive	nouns denoting goals
17	noun.object	nouns denoting natural object (not man-made)
18	noun.person	nouns denoting people
19	noun.phenomenon	nouns denoting natural phenomena
20	noun.plant	nouns denoting plants
21	noun.possession	nouns denoting possession and transfer of possession
22	noun.process	nouns denoting natural processes
23	noun.quantity	nouns denoting quantities and units of measure
24	noun.relation	nouns denoting relations between people or things or ideas
25	noun.shape	nouns denoting two and three dimensional shapes
26	noun.state	nouns denoting stable states of affairs
27	noun.substance	nouns denoting substances
28	noun.time	nouns denoting time and temporal relations
29	verb.body	verbs of grooming, dressing and bodily care
30	verb.change	verbs of size, temperature change, intensifying, etc.
31	verb.cognition	verbs of thinking, judging, analyzing, doubting
32	verb.communication	verbs of telling, asking, ordering, singing
33	verb.competition	verbs of fighting, athletic activities
34	verb.consumption	verbs of eating and drinking
35	verb.contact	verbs of touching, hitting, tying, digging
36	verb.creation	verbs of sewing, baking, painting, performing
37	verb.emotion	verbs of feeling
38	verb.motion	verbs of walking, flying, swimming
39	verb.perception	verbs of seeing, hearing, feeling
40	verb.possession	verbs of buying, selling, owning
41	verb.social	verbs of political and social activities and events
42	verb.stative	verbs of being, having, spatial relations
43	verb.weather	verbs of raining, snowing, thawing, thundering

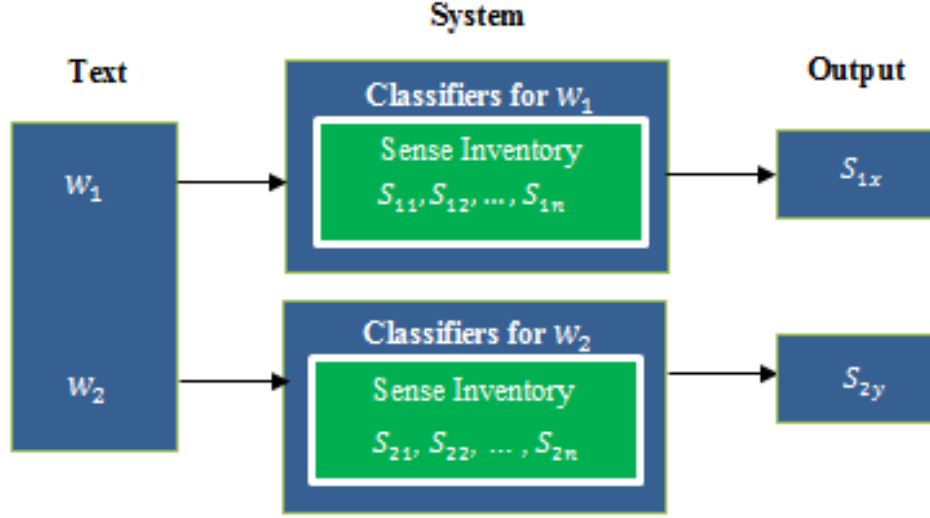


Figure 3.1: Traditional Approach of WSD

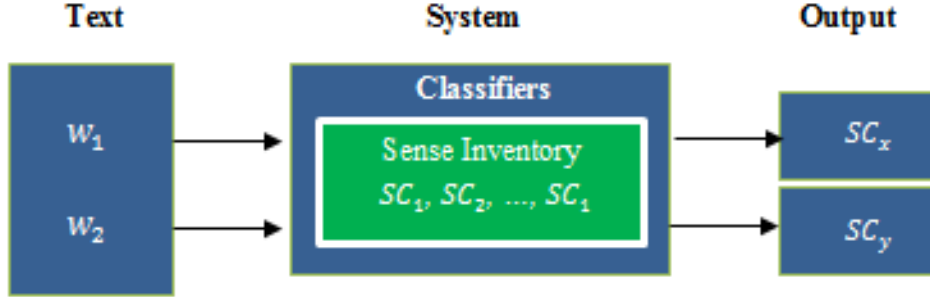


Figure 3.2: Ariyakornwijit's Approach [1]

stands for the semantic class. For any words in the text, the appropriate semantic classes are chosen from the common sense inventory.

The procedures to disambiguate the semantic class of the word are as follows. First, for each semantic class SC_i , the classifier CL_i is learned from the training data. CL_i is a binary classifier that judges if the target word in the given context has the semantic class SC_i or not. Monosemous words, which have only one semantic class, in a large corpus are used as the training data. To train CL_i , the monosemous words of SC_i are used as positive samples, while the monosemous words of the other semantic classes are used as negative samples. Then, for a given text, the semantic classes of the target words are determined in the following three steps. These steps are illustrated in Fig. 3.3.

- The input text is preprocessed. First, part-of-speech (POS) tagging is performed to determine POSs of the target word and the words in the context. Next, lemmatiza-

tion is performed to convert the inflected word to base form ¹. We use NLTK POS tagger and NLTK WordNet Lemmatizer [13].

- By looking up WordNet, all possible candidates of the semantic classes of the target word are obtained. In the example of Figure 3.3, three semantic classes SC_1 , SC_2 and SC_3 are chosen. In general, it is a subset of all semantic classes.
- For each candidate of the semantic class SC_i , the binary classifier is applied to judge if SC_i is appropriate for the target word in the given text. For classification, the features are derived from the context of the target word.
- Finally, the system chooses a set of semantic classes whose corresponding classifiers judge as ‘yes’. Note that the system selects one or more semantic classes for one target word.

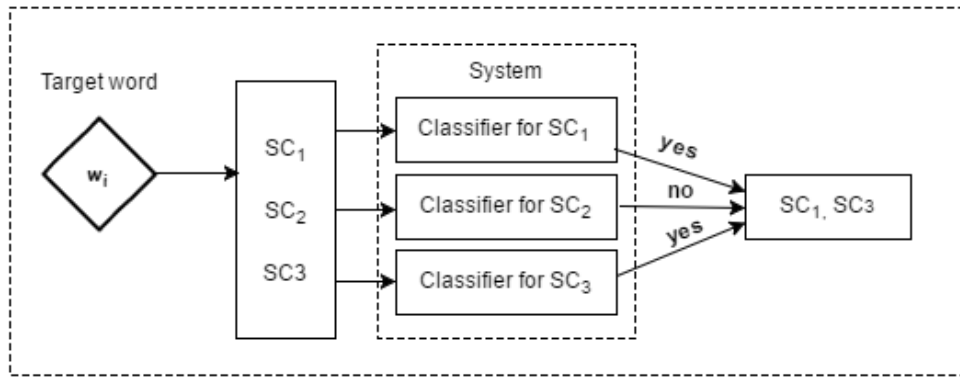


Figure 3.3: Ariyakornwijit’s Architecture [1] (OVR-SCD)

Figure 3.4 is an example of how the system works to disambiguate a target word “treat” in a context. Five candidate semantic classes of “treat” are verb.body, verb.change, verb.cognition, verb.communication and verb.social. The classifier for verb.body will judge if the target word has this semantic class. The classifier for other semantic classes will be also applied. These classifiers make a decision with respect to features extracted from the context of the target word. Finally, the system will output all of the semantic classes judged as ‘yes’ by the classifiers. When the classifier of verb.communication judges as ‘yes’ and other classifiers judge as ‘no’, only verb.communication is chosen as the semantic class of “treat”.

The number of classifiers in Ariyakornwijit’s method is equal to the total number of the semantic classes, which is much less than the traditional WSD approach where the classifiers are trained for every word. It can alleviate the data sparseness problem. Furthermore, the use of monosemous words as the training data is a promising way to create a large amount of the training data, since no manual annotation is required. However, it

¹In [1], lemmatization is not applied as preprocessing. In our implementation of Ariyakornwijit’s method in the experiment in Chapter 4, lemmatization is also applied.

Context: Is it criticism ? There is a massive amount of writing about art , only some of which can immediately be identified by a reader as criticism . Writing by the art critic of a newspaper is self - evidently criticism , in parallel with the writing of music and theatre critics ; an exhibition can be **treated** almost in the same way as a performance . Articles in magazines are less certainly described as criticism , for their main topics may be personalities or history , and art may be only a small part of the writers ' account . Books and catalogues may contain criticism ; but their writers may think of themselves as art historians , philosophers , aestheticians , anthropologists , historians or biographers , and there are many other possibilities ; their books may never be identified as art criticism .

Figure 3.4: Example of Target Word and Its Context(1)

is rather uncertain that the monosemous words are useful for classification of ambiguous words. Because the words in the training data (monosemous word) are totally different from the target word (polysemous or ambiguous word). Such gaps may cause negative influence on semantic class disambiguation.

Hereafter, we call Ariyakornwijit's method as One-versus-rest Semantic Class Disambiguation or OVR-SCD.

3.3 Proposed Architecture

In OVR-SCD, the monosemous words of one semantic class are used as the positive samples, and the monosemous words of all other semantic classes are used as the negative samples. It causes serious imbalance between the positive and negative samples, i.e. the number of negative samples is much greater than that of the positive samples. Such imbalance may cause decline of the performance of semantic class disambiguation, since the trained classifiers tend to almost always classify the target word as negative.

To overcome this problem, we proposed a new architecture shown in Figure. 3.5. In our approach, a binary classifier is trained for each pair of the semantic class SC_i and SC_j . It chooses one of two semantic classes for the given target word. If the target word has three or more potential semantic classes, the classifiers of all possible pairs are applied. The detail procedures to disambiguate the semantic class of the target word are as follows:

- Part-of-speech (POS) Tagging and lemmatization are performed as preprocessing.
- By looking up WordNet, all possible candidates of the semantic classes of the target word are obtained.
- For all pairs of the possible semantic classes, the classifiers are applied to judge if the target word has either semantic class. When SC_1 , SC_2 and SC_3 are obtained as the potential semantic classes in Figure 3.5, pairs of (SC_1, SC_2) , (SC_2, SC_3) and (SC_1, SC_3) are considered.

- Finally, from the results of these classifiers, the final output is chosen by a simple weighted majority voting. The detail of the majority voting will be explained in Section 3.6.

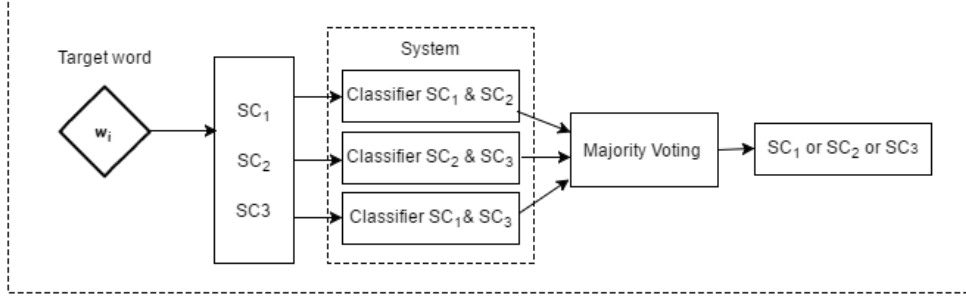


Figure 3.5: Proposed Architecture (PW-SCD)

Let us review the example in Figure 3.4. The target word “treat” has 5 semantic classes: verb.body, verb.change, verb.cognition, verb.communication and verb.social. In our method, a classifier is trained for each pair of the semantic classes. The possible pairs of the semantic classes are shown below².

(body,change), (body,cognition), (body,communication), (body,social),
 (change,cognition), (change,communication), (change,social),
 (cognition,communication), (cognition, social), (communication,social)

Therefore, 10 classifiers are trained. The classifiers choose either of two semantic classes. The final output is chosen from the results of these 10 classifiers by the majority voting, which will be described later.

The advantage of this approach is that the positive and negative samples in the training data can be well balanced. For the pair of SC_i and SC_j , the positive and negative samples are the monosemous words of SC_i and SC_j , respectively. The number of the monosemous words of two semantic classes is expected to be comparable. The disadvantage is that the number of the classifiers is more than OVR-SCD. However, it is much less than the traditional WSD where the classifiers should be trained for all target words. Hereafter, we call this architecture Pair-wise Semantic Class Disambiguation (PW-SCD).

Table 3.2 and 3.3 show statistics of OVR-SCD and PW-SCD, respectively. They show an average of the number of each positive and negative sample for the semantic class disambiguation classifiers, in terms of each noun and verb. The statistics are obtained from the Daily Yomiuri corpus [5], which is used in the experiment in Chapter 4. In statistics of PW-SCD, the fewer semantic class is regarded as the positive class in each pair-wise classifier. We can find excessive imbalance in OVR-SCD in Table 3.2. On the other hand, seeing Table 3.3, the number of two kinds of the training samples can be balanced better in our PW-SCD.

²The prefix ‘verb.’ is omitted.

Table 3.2: Average Number of Samples in OVR-SCD

POS	Positive	Negative
Noun	126,595	1,250,593
Verb	61,833	865,669

Table 3.3: Average Number of Samples in PW-SCD

POS	Positive	Negative
Noun	69,833	172,860
Verb	27,728	70,113

The procedures to train the semantic class disambiguation classifiers are shown in Figure 3.6. It consists of the following 5 steps.

- (1) For each semantic class SC_i , a list of the monosemous word (mw_{ij}) of SC_i is retrieved from WordNet.
- (2) From a large raw corpus, the sentences (s_{ij}) including the monosemous word of SC_i are retrieved. For each monosemous word in the sentences, SC_i is annotated as the gold semantic class.
- (3) Preprocessing is performed on the retrieved sentences. It consists of POS tagging and lemmatization. We use NLTK POS tagger and NLTK WordNet Lemmatizer [13].
- (4) From each monosemous word and its context, the features for machine learning are extracted. Thus we can obtain the instances of SC_i represented as the feature vectors (f_{ij}).
- (5) For each pair of the semantic class SC_i and SC_j , the classifier CL_{ij} , which judges if the word has either SC_i or SC_j , is trained from the feature vectors of SC_i and SC_j .

3.4 Features

We use the exactly same features in Ariyakornwijit’s method [1]. It consists of four features. These features are widely used for WSD task.

3.4.1 Local Context

Local context is represented by the words around the target word. It is so called Bag-of-words feature. The words in a context window whose size is N_c are extracted as the features, i.e. N_c words to the left and N_c words to the right of the target word. Precisely,

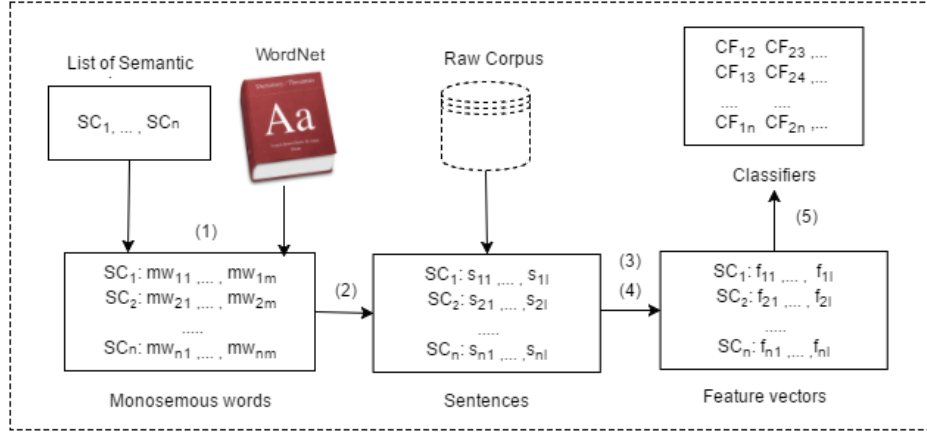


Figure 3.6: Training Procedures

lemmatized form of the content words are extracted in the context window as the local context feature. Note that the local context features are extracted from the sentence including the target word, that is, not extracted beyond the sentence boundary. Function words, punctuation and number are not extracted. An parameter of this feature is the size of the context window N_c . In the experiment, N_c was set as 5 since it worked fairly well with a small sample of data in a preliminary experiment.

Let us consider an example in Figure 3.4 where the target word is “immunisation” to explain how to extract the local context feature.

Context: After **immunisation** you must wait at least one month before becoming pregnant. Eat properly Eating well before and during pregnancy is very important. It keeps you fit and helps you to have a healthy baby. You don't need a special diet and eating for two could mean you put on too much weight.

Figure 3.7: Example of Target Word and Its Context (2)

The local features when the window size $N_c = 5$ are ‘after’, ‘must’, ‘wait’, ‘least’, ‘one’ and ‘month’.

Let us consider another example in Figure 3.8 where the target word is “add”.

Context: Very often they are pleased to invite ACET in as a church - based agency . Our educators present a personal message , each one having had experience of caring for those dying with AIDS at home . Furthermore our work in Uganda and Romania **adds** a wider perspective . The content of each lesson is agreed beforehand in consultation with teachers so it can be tailored to the priorities and individual needs of the school or class . Prejudices are challenged and myths exposed for example that only homosexual men and drug users are at risk .

Figure 3.8: Example of Target Word and Its Context (3)

In this example, the local features when the window size $N_c = 5$ are ‘romania’, ‘wider’, ‘Uganda’, ‘perspective’, ‘work’, ‘furthermore’, ‘content’, ‘home’, ‘lesson’, and ‘agreed’

3.4.2 Part of Speech

POS feature is 2-gram, 3-gram and 4-gram of the parts-of-speech including the target word. Since the monosemous words are used, the target words that have the semantic class SC_i are different in the training samples. Thus POSs of the target words are also different. Therefore, the POS of the target instance is always represented by the special character ‘T’, which refers to a wildcard matching any target instance. POS features can be represented as Figure 3.9.

2-gram: $\{p_{-1} T\}, \{T p_{-1}\}$

3-gram: $\{p_{-2} p_{-1} T\}, \{p_{-1} T p_1\}, \{T p_1 p_2\}$

4-gram: $\{p_{-3} p_{-2} p_{-1} T\}, \{p_{-2} p_{-1} T p_1\}, \{p_{-1} T p_1 p_2\} \{T p_1 p_2 p_3\}$

Figure 3.9: POS feature

In this figure, p_1 , p_2 , and p_3 are POSs of 1,2,3 words after the target word respectively. Similarly, p_{-1} , p_{-2} , and p_{-3} are POSs of 1,2,3 words before the target word. When there are not enough words to either side of the target word, the value ‘NULL’ is used to fill the vacancies.

To illustrate how POS features are extracted, we consider the example of Figure 3.7. Figure 3.10 shows POSs of all words in the context of the target word ‘immunisation’. Note that each word is separated by ‘/’, where the left is the word and the right is its POS. Then POS features are extracted as Figure 3.11.

3.4.3 Collocations

Collocation is a sequence of the words consisting of the target word and its surrounding words. In this research, 2-gram, 3-gram, and 4-gram of the words including the target

After/IN **immunisation**/NN you/PRP must/MD wait/VB at/IN least/JJS 1/CD month/NN before/RB becoming/VBG pregnant/JJ ./ . Eat/NNP properly/RB Eating/NNP well/RB before/IN and/CC during/IN pregnancy/NN is/VBZ very/RB important/JJ ./ . It/PRP keeps/VBZ you/PRP fit/VBP and/CC helps/NNS you/PRP to/TO have/VB a/DT healthy/JJ baby/NN ./ . You/PRP do/VBP n't/RB need/VB a/DT special/JJ diet/NN and/CC eating/VBG for/IN two/CD could/MD mean/VB you/PRP put/VB on/RP too/RB much/JJ weight/NN ./ .

Figure 3.10: Part of Speech of “immunisation” in the Context

2-gram: {IN T}, {T PRP}
3-gram: {NULL IN T}, {IN T PRP}, {T PRP MD }
4-gram: {NULL NULL IN T}, {NULL IN T PRP}, {IN T PRP MD} {T PRP MD VB}

Figure 3.11: An example of POS feature

instance itself are extracted as the collocation feature. Similar to the POS feature, the target instance is replaced with the wildcard symbol ‘T’. The collocation feature can be represented as Figure 3.12. w_0 is the target word. w_1 , w_2 , and w_3 are 1,2,3 words after the target word respectively. Similarly, w_{-1} , w_{-2} , and w_{-3} are 1,2,3 words before the target word. Similar to Part of Speech feature, symbol “NULL” will be filled the vacancies if there is not enough words on each side.

2-gram: $\{w_{-1} T\}$, $\{T w_{-1}\}$
3-gram: $\{w_{-2} w_{-1} T\}$, $\{w_{-1} T w_1\}$, $\{T w_1 w_2\}$
4-gram: $\{w_{-3} w_{-2} w_{-1} T\}$, $\{w_{-2} w_{-1} T w_1\}$, $\{w_{-1} T w_1 w_2\}$ $\{T w_1 w_2 w_3\}$

Figure 3.12: Collocation Feature

From the example shown in Figure 3.7, 2-gram, 3-gram and 4-gram of collocation feature are extracted as shown in Figure 3.13.

2-gram: {after T}, {T you}
3-gram: {null after T}, {after T you}, {T you must}
4-gram: {null null after T}, {null after T you}, {after T you must}, {T you must wait}

Figure 3.13: Example of Collocation Feature

To illustrate how the wildcard ‘T’ works, we show another example in Figure 3.14. Let us suppose there are two sentences S1 and S2 in the training data. Both ‘diet’ and ‘public’ are monosemous words that have only one semantic class ‘noun.act’. Thus these sentences can be used for training the classifier that judges if the target word has ‘noun.act’ or the other semantic class. Collocation features are extracted from S1 and S2 as shown in the bottom table in Figure 3.14. Note that several same features are extracted from these sentences, such as ‘the-T-of-the’ and ‘the-T-of’ and so on. The feature ‘the-T-of-the’ indicates that the semantic class ‘noun.act’ can be appeared in the context where the preceding word is “the” and the succeeding words are “of the”. If the target word is not represented by ‘T’, the different features will be extracted, failing to capture the similarity between these two training samples. By replacing the target word with the common symbol ‘T’, the exactly same features can be extracted from S1 and S2.

S1	The three species survived the winter and experts fear they might eat indigenous fish and the smaller fish that form the <u>diet</u> ($SC = \text{noun.act}$) of the local species.
S2	After the mayor collapsed from angina, several other officials held a press conference and informed the <u>public</u> ($SC = \text{noun.act}$) of the incident.

	S1	S2
2-gram	the-T, T-of	the-T, T-of
3-gram	form-the-T, the-T-of, T-of-the	informed-the-T, the-T-of, T-of-the
4-gram	that-form-the-T, form-the-T-of, the-T-of-the, T-of-the-local	and-informed-the-T, informed-the-T-of, the-T-of-the, T-of-the-incident

Figure 3.14: Example of Extraction of Collocation Feature from Different Target Words

3.4.4 Syntactic Features

Syntactic feature is direct grammatical relation between the target word and its surrounding word, such as subject-verb, object-verb and noun-adjective. It is well known that the words connected to the target words via syntactic relation are useful for WSD. Thus syntactic relation is one of the conventional feature for WSD.

First, the sentence is parsed by Stanford Parser [14]. Only the sentence containing the target word is analyzed. Stanford Parser offers two kinds of dependencies: typed dependencies and collapsed typed dependencies.

- **Typed Dependencies:** are representation where each word in the sentence (except the head of the sentence) is independently treated to the other word.

- **Collapsed Typed Dependencies:** are constructed by collapsing a pair of typed dependencies into a single typed dependency, whose name is abbreviated based on the word between two dependencies.

Table 3.4 shows the types dependencies and collapsed typed dependency from the sentence

After immunisation you must wait at least 1 month before becoming pregnant.

, which is the sentence including the target word in the example of Figure 3.7. Note that two relations of “prep(wait-5,After-1)” and “pobj(After-1,immunisation-2)” in types dependencies are merged into one relation “prep_after(wait-5,immunisation-2)” in collapsed typed dependencies. The relations “prep(wait-5,before-10)” and “pcomp(before-10,becoming-11)” are collapsed as “prep_before(wait-5,becoming-11)”, too.

Table 3.4: Type Dependencies and Collapsed Typed Dependencies Extracted by Stanford Parser

Stanford Sparser	
Typed Dependencies	Collapsed Typed Dependencies
prep(wait-5, After-1)	prep_after (wait-5, immunisation-2)
pobj(After-1, immunisation-2)	nsubj(wait-5, you-3)
nsubj(wait-5, you-3)	aux(wait-5, must-4)
aux(wait-5, must-4)	root(ROOT-0,wait-5)
root(ROOT-0, wait-5)	quantmod(1-8, at-6)
quantmod(1-8, at-6)	mwe(at-6, least-7)
mwe(at-6, least-7)	dobj(wait-5, 1-8)
dobj(wait-5, 1-8)	tmod(wait-5, month-9)
tmod(wait-5, month-9)	prep_before(wait-5, becoming-11)
prep(wait-5, before-10)	acomp(becoming-11, pregnant-12)
pcomp(before-10, becoming-11)	
acomp(becoming-11, pregnant-12)	

In this research, we use collapsed typed dependencies to represent syntactic feature. Stanford Parser produces a set of collapsed typed dependency in the form of ‘ $rel(w_1, w_2)$ ’ or ‘abbreviated_relation_name(*governor*, *dependent*)’, where w_1 is governor and w_2 is dependent under the relation ‘rel’. When the dependency including the target instance is extracted, it is replaced by the wildcard symbol ‘T’. That is, $rel(w_1, T)$ and $rel(T, w_2)$ are extracted as the syntactic feature. All of word indices in *governor* and *dependent* are removed.

Finally, Figure 3.15 shows all the syntactic features extracted from the example of Table 3.4.

prep_after(wait, T), nsubj(wait,you), aux(wait, must),root(ROOT, wait), quant-mod(1, at), mwe(at, least), dobj(wait, 1), tmod(wait, month), prep_before(wait, becoming), acomp(becoming, pregnant)

Figure 3.15: Example of Syntactic Feature

3.5 Learning Algorithm

In this research, Support Vector Machine (SVM) [4] is chosen as an algorithm for classification. SVM is a supervised learning which effectively analyzes and classifies patterns on high-dimensional feature space.

SVM is a binary classifier, that is, the number of the classes are two. They are often called as positive and negative classes. In classification, SVM makes a good separation by constructing a hyperlane that separates the positive and negative samples in the training data and has the largest distance between to the nearest training data points (also called functional margin). The points that are closest to the separating hyperplane are called as support vectors. The idea is based on the fact that the larger the margin is, less classification errors is found.

Figure 3.16 ³ illustrates how the largest functional margin can optimize the classification. The black and white points stand for the positive and negative samples, respectively. As we can see, the separator H_1 cannot separate the data of two classes. H_2 can separate the positive and negative samples, but it is not very good since the margin is small. If an unknown positive (or negative) data point is located near the positive (or negative) support vector, its position is likely to be in the area of negative (or positive) side, causing classification error. H_3 shows the best separation with the largest margin. Because an unknown data near the support vector is more likely to be located in the area of the same orientation side.

In this research, the classifier will work as follows:

- (1) First, the training data for each semantic class is prepared.
- (2) Then, the model will be built using the SVM algorithm.
- (3) The test data will be classified by the trained model.
- (4) The semantic class which is the most likely for the target word will be chosen as the output.

In the experiment, Sklearn library [20] is used to train SVM classifiers. SVM in Sklearn uses a kernel function to transform data in raw representation to feature vector representation. The kernel we use is the Gaussian radial basis function.

There are two parameters in Sklearn library: gamma and C. In this research, they are set as the default setting, i.e. gamma = 0.0001 and C=1000. The parameter C controls a

³By User:ZackWeinberg, based on PNG version by User:Cyc - This file was derived from: Svm separating hyperplanes.png, CC BY-SA 3.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=22877598>

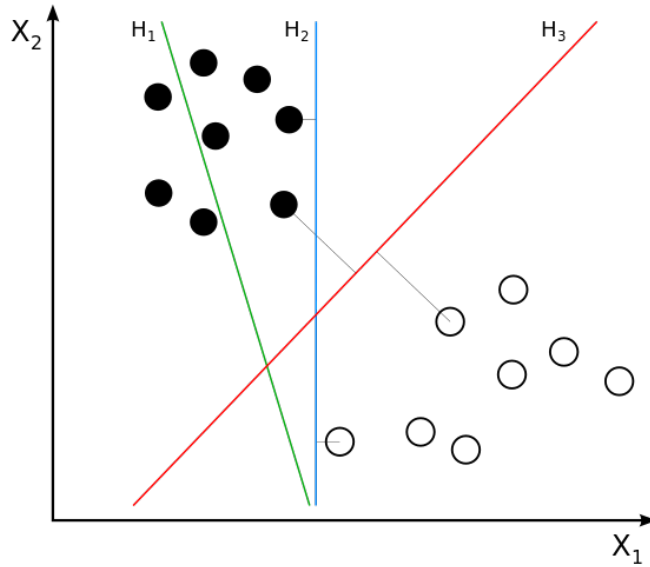


Figure 3.16: Support Vector Machine separators

trade-off between misclassification of training examples and the simplicity of the decision surface.

Sklearn library can output the probability of each class when it is applied for the classification of unknown data or test data. The probability is used to choose one semantic class as the final output as will be explained in the next section.

3.6 Selection of Semantic Class

The system chooses the only one semantic class for the given target word. The final step of the proposed method is to choose the most appropriate one from the results of several classifiers. A simple majority voting is introduced. Each classifier chooses one of two semantic classes. If the target word has two semantic classes and only one binary classifier is applied, the semantic class chosen by the classifier is the final output. When the target word has more than two semantic classes and two or more classifiers are applied, the semantic class that is most frequently selected by the classifiers is chosen as the final output. If two or more semantic classes are selected most frequently, a simple tie-break rule is applied. We choose the semantic class with the highest score, where the score is defined as the sum of the probabilities of the classification given by Sklearn library.

Here is an example of how majority voting system works. Suppose that we have a target word “add” which belongs to three semantic classes: verb.communication, verb.change, and verb.cognition. Three classifiers are required: Classifier 1 selects either verb.communication or verb.change, Classifier 2 selects either verb.communication or verb.cognition, and Classifier 3 selects either verb.change and verb.cognition. Table 3.5 shows the probabilities of the semantic classes produced by three classifiers.

In the example of Table 3.5, each semantic class is chosen once. Verb.communication is

Table 3.5: Example of Majority Voting

	Classifier 1	Classifier 2	Classifier 3	Score
verb.communication	0.4	0.9	–	1.3
verb.change	0.6	–	0.3	0.9
verb.cognition	–	0.1	0.7	0.8

chosen by Classifier 2, verb.change is chosen by Classifier 1, and verb.cognition is chosen by Classifier 3. So the tie break rule is applied. The score of three semantic classes are shown in the last column in Table 3.5. Since the score is the highest, verb.communication is chosen as the final output.

3.7 Feature Selection

Feature selection is a technique to automatically remove ineffective features to improve the performance of machine learning. It especially works well when the number of features is quite large, or the data samples are represented by high-dimensional feature vectors in other words. In this section, we present two methods for feature selection. One is a term-frequency based method, the other is Pearson’s Chi-squared Test.

3.7.1 Frequency Based Feature Selection

Term-frequency is the number of times each term occurs in a corpus. Term-frequency based feature selection [23] is an effective method for reducing high-dimensional feature vectors in text classification.

A term usually means a word in a text, but in this research, terms refer to the features in the training process. After counting the frequency of all terms (features), the method simply chooses the most frequent n features.

3.7.2 Pearson’s chi-squared Test

Pearson’s chi-squared test (χ^2 test) is a statistical test and is also a popular feature selection method that is widely applied for categorical data. This method evaluates the difference between the observed frequencies of the features and the expected frequencies under the null hypothesis H_0 that assumes the feature and category (semantic class in this study) are independent. If the difference is large, then we can reject the null hypothesis H_0 . It means that the feature is highly correlate with the category, implying the feature is effective for classification.

In chi-squared test, the contingency table of the feature and category is constructed. In this research, the table of the feature and semantic class is built as shown in Table 3.6.

In Table 3.6, O_{11} is the number of the data where the feature f appears in the context of the semantic class SC , O_{12} is the number of the data where the feature f appears in

Table 3.6: Contingency Table of Feature and Semantic Class

	SC	$\neq SC$
f	O_{11}	O_{12}
$\neq f$	O_{21}	O_{22}

the context of the other semantic classes, O_{21} is the number of the data where the feature f does not appear in the context of the semantic class SC , and O_{22} is the number of the data where the feature f does not appear in the context of the other semantic classes. Then, χ^2 value is calculated from statistical data in Table 3.6 as Equation (3.1):

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N(O_{11}O_{12} - O_{12}O_{21})^2}{(O_{11} + O_{12})(O_{11} + O_{21})(O_{12} + O_{22})(O_{21} + O_{22})} \quad (3.1)$$

where N is the total number of the data, or $N = O_{11} + O_{12} + O_{21} + O_{22}$.

For all extracted features, χ^2 values are calculated. Then the top n features with the highest χ^2 value are selected.

Chapter 4

Evaluation

In this chapter, we describe an experiment to evaluate our proposed method. First, the experimental setup including the preparation of the test and training data will be explained. Then, the results of the experiments will be reported and discussed.

4.1 Test Data

For the test data of the experiments, we used the training data of Senseval-3 English lexical sample task [16]¹. It is a collection of the sense tagged text for 57 target words. This data set contains only nouns, verbs, and adjectives as the target words. For each instance of the target word, the gold sense was mapped to the semantic class (the unique beginners in WordNet). However, only nouns and verbs were ambiguous in the semantic class level. Due to heavy computational costs for training SVM from a large data, it was difficult to conduct experiments for too many target words. Therefore, the nouns were not used in the experiment, either. In sum, the proposed method was evaluated for semantic class disambiguation of only verbs. However, this method can be applicable for any parts-of-speech.

¹Although both test and training data in this task were available, we chose the training data since it is larger than the test data.


```

<instance id="difference.n.bnc.00044017" docsrc="BNC">
<answer instance="difference.n.bnc.00044017" senseid="difference%1:07:00:">
<answer instance="difference.n.bnc.00044017" senseid="difference%1:11:00:">
<context>
Thoughts will be referred to as cognisant acts. The simplest and most fundamental aspect
of cognisance ( fundamental philosophically and developmentally ) is what is usually
referred to as self - world dualism : the knowledge that there is a physical world out there
of which I am an experiencer and that is distinct from me . Mental development , on the
constructivist view , consists in the elaboration of this knowledge ; so that if there is one
central <head>difference<head> between the mental processes of the baby , the child ,
and of the adult it is in terms of how self - world dualism is manifest in ( and to ) the
subject . The representational theory of mind treats the explanation of mental life as a
kind of engineering problem ; it starts from the inside , from the representational state ,
and asks how mental states interact with one another to produce something that we would
call knowledge ; the representational theorist proceeds like a sceptical philosopher who
thinks that what figures in our mental life is not reality but our mental representations
of it (recall my saying the Fodor described his position as methodological solipsism ) .
The constructivist starting - point could not be more different , and might be said to be
biological where the representational theory is engineering or machinological .
</context>
</instance>

```

Figure 4.1: An Sample of Target Word ‘difference’ in Test Data

We will show several examples of the instances in Senseval-3 data and explain how to prepare the test data in detail. Figure 4.1² and 4.2 show the examples of the instances of the target noun ‘difference’ and verb ‘begin’, respectively. In these figures, `<instance>` marks up an target instance, `<answer>` marks up a gold sense, `<context>` marks up a context of a target instance and `<head>` marks up a target instance itself. The ID of the target instance is represented in ‘id’ attribute of the `<instance>` tag or ‘instance’ attribute of the `<answer>` tag. The character ‘n’, ‘v’ or ‘a’ after the first period is an abbreviation for noun, verb or adjective.

In most cases, the `<answer>` tag appears once in a target instance as in Figure 4.2, but in some cases there are two or more `<answer>` tags as in Figure 4.1. It means that there are two or more gold senses per target instance. The annotators were allowed to assign multiple senses if they thought the target instance has two or more appropriate senses.

²Although the nouns were not used as the target word, we have completed preparation of the experiment for the nouns such as extraction of the monosemous words, construction of the feature vectors and so on. Therefore, we show the example of the noun here.

```

<instance id="begin.v.bnc.00008477" docsrc="BNC">
<answer instance="begin.v.bnc.00008477" senseid="369202">
<context>
They are thus not simply a mentality derived from popular religion but from a traditional
Roman catholicism which held sway in catholic Europe from the post - Reformation
period and remained unchallenged until the 1960s . As will be seen in Chapter 5 ,
understanding this religious social consciousness requires some grasp of the traditional
catholic teaching on the natural order and the good society , and how the nation is to
respect the divine order established by God. An example of this can be taken from the
recent contraception controversy in the Republic , which <head>began<head> in the
1960s . At that time , the Roman catholic archbishop of Dublin intervened in a pastoral
letter in the following revealing terms : If they who are elected to legislate for our society
should unfortunately decide to pass a disastrous measure of legislation that will allow
the public promotion of contraception and an access hitherto unlawful to the means of
contraception , they ought to know clearly the meaning of their action , when it is judged
by the norms of objective morality and the certain consequences of such a law
</context>
</instance>

```

Figure 4.2: An Sample of Target Word ‘begin’ in Test Data

The gold sense is marked up at ‘senseid’ attribute in ⟨answer⟩ tag. The different sense IDs are used for nouns and verbs. The sense ID of the noun such as ‘difference%1:07:00’ or ‘difference:%1:11:00’ stands for an ID of WordNet synset. The list of the senses of the word ‘difference’ in WordNet are shown in Table 4.1. The table shows the sense ID, its corresponding synset and gloss in WordNet. The WordNet synset ID can be formatted as ‘WORD:%X:Y:Z’, where two digit number ‘Y’ stands for the semantic class ID shown in Table 3.1. Thus the sense can be easily mapped to its corresponding semantic class.

On the other hand, the sense ID of the verb is not WordNet synset ID. It is represented as 6-digit numbers like ‘369202’ in Figure 4.2. In the Senseval-3 data, there is a table that defines the correspondence between the sense ID in Senseval-3 data and WordNet synset ID, as shown in Table 4.2. Using this table, the sense of the verb can be easily mapped to the WordNet synset ID and also its semantic class.

The target instance was removed from the test data if two or more gold senses were assigned for it and these senses were mapped to the different semantic classes. Because our proposed system is designed to choose only one semantic class for one target instance. For example, in Figure 4.1, since two senses were mapped to the semantic class 07 (noun.attribute) and 11 (noun.event), this instance was discarded.

Although there were 57 target words in Senseval-3 data set, not all of them were used in our experiment. As explained earlier, the adjectives and nouns were removed from the target word. Furthermore, if all instances of the target word has only one semantic class, it was not used for the evaluation. Because such target words were unambiguous in the semantic class level. In this way, 17 verbs remained as the target word in the experiment.

Table 4.1: Lexical Entry of the Noun ‘different’

sense ID	synset	gloss
difference%1:07:00::	difference	(the quality of being unlike or dissimilar: "there are many differences between jazz and rock")
difference%1:10:00::	dispute, difference, difference_of_opinion, conflict	(a disagreement or argument about something important; "he had a dispute with his wife"; "there were irreconcilable differences"; "the familiar conflict between Republicans and Democrats")
difference%1:11:00::	deviation, divergence, departure, difference	(a variation that deviates from the standard or norm; "the deviation from the mean")
difference%1:23:00::	remainder, difference	(the number that remains after subtraction; the number that when added to the subtrahend gives the minuend)
difference%1:24:00::	difference	(a significant change; "the difference in her is amazing"; "his support made a real difference")

Table 4.2: Lexical Entry of the Verb ‘begin’

sense ID	synset ID	synset	gloss
369201	begin%2:30:00::	begin, commence, set_about, start	to perform the first step in a process; start.
369202	begin%2:42:00::	begin, commence, originate, start	to come into being.
369203	begin%2:30:01::	begin, commence, kick_off, lead, open, set_about, start	to perform the first step of (something); start.
369204	begin%2:30:01::	begin, inaugurate, initiate, start, undertake	to cause to come into being.

The table 4.3 shows a list of the target word as well as its potential semantic classes and number of samples in test data.

Table 4.3: List of Target Word

Target	Semantic Classes	Test
activate	change, creation	170
add	communication, change, cognition	181
ask	communication, stative	95
eat	change, consumption	144
begin	change, stative	68
climb	change, motion	112
lose	competition, emotion, possession	36
treat	body, change, cognition, communication, social	107
receive	communication, perception, possession	48
encounter	competition, stative	61
hear	cognition, perception, social	24
remain	change, stative	135
rule	communication, social, stative	57
suspend	change, contact, social	116
watch	perception, social	92
win	competition, possession	42
write	communication, creation	30

4.2 Training Data

In this section, we present how we prepared training data for our proposed method. In this experiment, we only used monosemous words as the training data. Monosemous words are words which have only one semantic class in WordNet. Let us review the advantages and disadvantages to use monosemous words as the training data. The advantage of it is that we can use a raw text as the training data. Since the unique semantic class of the monosemous word can be regarded as the gold semantic class, no manual annotation is required for preparing labeled data. Therefore, it is easy to prepare a large amount of training data. The disadvantage is that the different words are used as the training samples of a certain semantic class. For example, as the samples of the semantic class ‘noun.act’, any words that have noun.act as its unique semantic class, such as ‘diet’ and ‘public’, are used. However, the effective features for semantic class disambiguation may be different for different words. In other words, the features intrinsic to the words are lost in the monosemous word data. Anyway, we utilized a collection of monosemous words as

the training data.

The Daily Yomiuri corpus [5] is used to construct the training data. It is a collection of English newspaper articles published in 2003. In the preparation process, all of monosemous words were extracted to separated files corresponding to one semantic class. In the files, each line represents a list of features extracted from a context of one target instance.

We conducted two different experiments to evaluate our proposed method, which will be described in the following two subsections in details.

4.2.1 Experiment I

Since it takes too long time to train the classifiers, we adopted the following three procedures to reduce the computational cost in this experiment.

The number of the training samples were reduced to 10,000 per semantic class. These training samples were randomly chosen. Therefore, $10,000 \times 2 = 20,000$ training samples were used to train the classifier for one pair of the semantic classes. Table 4.4 shows the statistics of the training data in Experiment I. The column ‘SC’ indicates the number of potential semantic classes of the target word. In OVR-SCD, each one-versus-rest classifier is trained from $10,000 \times 15 = 15,000$ samples, since there are 15 semantic classes of the verb. The total number of the training sample shown in Table 4.4 is 15,000 multiplied by the number of classifiers or potential semantic classes. In PW-SCD, each pair-wise classifier is trained from 20,000 samples as denoted above. The number of the pair-wise classifiers is equal to the number of pairs of the potential semantic classes. If SC are 2, 3 and 5, ${}_2C_2 = 2$, ${}_3C_2 = 3$ and ${}_5C_2 = 10$ are the number of classifiers, respectively. The total number of the training samples shown in Table 4.4 is 20,000 multiplied by the number of the classifiers.

Table 4.4: Statistics of Training Data in Experiment I

Target	SC	OVR-SCD	PW-SCD
activate	2	300,000	20,000
add	3	450,000	60,000
ask	2	300,000	20,000
eat	2	300,000	20,000
begin	2	300,000	20,000
climb	2	300,000	20,000
lose	3	450,000	60,000
treat	5	750,000	200,000
receive	3	450,000	60,000
encounter	2	300,000	20,000
hear	3	450,000	60,000
remain	2	300,000	20,000
rule	3	450,000	60,000
suspend	3	450,000	60,000
watch	2	300,000	20,000
win	2	300,000	20,000
write	2	300,000	20,000

Second, since the dimension of the feature vector was huge, the number of the features was limited. Frequency based feature selection, which was explained in Subsection 3.7.1, was applied. That is, the n most frequent features were selected, where n stands for the number of the features. We evaluated the baseline (Ariyakornwijit’s method) and our method with $n = 5000$, $n = 7,000$ and $n = 10,000$ in a preliminary experiment. Since the case of $n = 7,000$ was the best, we will show the results of the methods with 7,000 features in the Section 4.3.

Finally, since Sklearn library can control the maximum number of iteration in the training of SVM, we limit the iteration times. At first, SVM classifiers were trained by the maximum of 1,000 iteration, and the performance of the baseline and our method was compared. Then, for only our method, the classifiers were trained with an unlimited number of iteration to improve the performance. In this case, the iterative learning of SVM was continued until it converged.

4.2.2 Experiment II

In Experiment I, the number of the training samples per semantic class was fixed. However, such a setting is inappropriate to evaluate the proposed method. The motivation

of our method is to correct the imbalance of the positive and negative samples. In the training data constructed in Experiment I, the ratio of the positive and negative samples was not naturally but artificially determined. Therefore, we reconsidered the way how to reduce the computational costs. Experiment II was carried out as follows.

First, the size of the Daily Yomiuri corpus was reduced to 20,000 lines, where each line roughly corresponded to each sentence. The first 20,000 lines in the file of Daily Yomiuri were simply extracted to construct a reduced sized corpus. Then, the monosemous words were extracted as the training samples from it. Although the size was decreased, the distribution of the semantic classes in the whole corpus might be kept in the reduced sized corpus. The Table 4.5 shows the statistics of the training data in experiment II.

Table 4.5: Statistics of Training Data in Experiment II

Target	SC	OVR-SCD	PW-SCD
activate	2	531,346	16,366
add	3	797,019	29,219
ask	2	531,346	53,483
eat	2	531,346	19,512
begin	2	531,346	55,131
climb	2	531,346	12,822
lose	3	797,019	74,168
treat	5	1,328,365	70,010
receive	3	797,019	68,147
encounter	2	531,346	59,812
hear	3	797,019	78,705
remain	2	531,346	55,131
rule	3	797,019	97,979
suspend	3	797,019	30,715
watch	2	531,346	69,721
win	2	531,346	49,260
write	2	531,346	14,718

Next, the dimension of feature vector was limited to 7,000. For feature selection, Pearson’s chi-squared test based feature selection presented in Subsection 3.7.2 was applied.

Finally, the maximum number of iteration controlled by Sklearn library was increased to 5,000 iterations. Comparing to Experiment I, this experiment took more computational cost and time since the dimension of feature vector was the same but the training data and the maximum number of iterations was larger.

4.3 Results

An evaluation criterion is accuracy of prediction of the semantic classes. This is a traditional measurement widely used in most of the classification tasks. It is measured by the ratio of the number of correctly predicted instances to the total number of target instances.

$$Accuracy = \frac{\text{Number of correctly classified samples}}{\text{Total number of test samples}} \quad (4.1)$$

A baseline system is the Ariyakornwijit’s method (OVR-SCD) [1]. Their system originally chooses two or more semantic classes for each target instance. On the other hand, our system always chooses only one semantic class. To compare the baseline and our system, Ariyakornwijit’s method is revised to select one semantic class per instance in our implementation. If two or more classifiers judge as ‘yes’, the semantic class of the highest probability provided by Sklearn library is chosen. Since this revision is required for comparison with our system, we implemented Ariyakornwijit’s method as the baseline by ourselves.

4.3.1 Results of Experiment I

Table 4.6 reveals the accuracy of the baseline (OVR-SCD) and our method (PW-SCD) with the maximum 1,000 iteration training, and our method with no limit of iteration times (PW-SCD⁺). The last row indicates the micro average of the accuracy for 17 target words.

The overall performance of our proposed pair-wise semantic class disambiguation was better than the previous one-versus-rest approach. The micro average of PW-SCD was improved by 1.4 % comparing with OVR-SCD. The accuracy was quite high for several target words, for example, 87% for the target word ‘write’. For the other several words, however, the accuracy was low, e.g. 0.7% for ‘eat’ and 2.7% for ‘climb’. PW-SCD always chose the semantic class “change” for these two target words, but there were only 1 and 3 instances of “change” in the test data of ‘eat’ and ‘climb’, respectively. It might be caused by the limitation of training iteration, since the accuracy of PW-SCD⁺ was much improved.

Furthermore, the improvement by our method also highly depended on the target word. For the target word ‘begin’, ‘receive’, ‘encounter’, ‘suspend’, ‘watch’, and ‘write’, PW-SCD remarkably outperformed OVR-SCD by 15-65%. On the other hand, the accuracy greatly decreased for ‘ask’, ‘eat’, ‘remain’, and ‘rule’. These results indicate that the appropriate architecture of the semantic class disambiguation, one-versus-rest or pair-wise, might be different for the target word. If we could guess more appropriate method for the target word and apply it for disambiguation, the overall performance would be improved much. Investigation of this direction is our important future work.

Let us compare PW-SCD and PW-SCD⁺. When the number of iteration in SVM training was unlimited, the micro average was improved by 10% and reached around 50%.

Although the performance dropped for some target words (‘add’, ‘lose’, and ‘encounter’) due to maybe overfitting, the accuracy was drastically improved for some target words such as ‘ask’, ‘eat’, ‘climb’, and ‘win’. Therefore, it is important to continue the iterative training of SVM until it converges. On the other hand, the accuracy was same for several target words, because the training converged before 1,000 iteration.

Table 4.6: Accuracy of Semantic Class Disambiguation in Experiment I

Target	OVR-SCD	PW-SCD	PW-SCD ⁺
activate	0.77	0.77	0.77
add	0.33	0.49	0.42
ask	0.89	0.22	0.57
eat	0.21	0.007	0.35
begin	0.53	0.78	0.78
climb	0.93	0.027	0.37
lose	0.25	0.29	0.21
treat	0.22	0.33	0.14
receive	0.042	0.27	0.27
encounter	0.016	0.67	0.64
hear	0.52	0.48	0.48
remain	0.71	0.14	0.47
rule	0.47	0.21	0.26
suspend	0.20	0.35	0.35
watch	0.065	0.60	0.60
win	0.36	0.54	0.64
write	0.37	0.87	0.87
Micro Average	0.398	0.412	0.484

4.3.2 Results of Experiment II

Table 4.7 reveals the accuracy of the baseline and our method with the maximum 5,000 iteration training and feature selection by Pearson’s chi-squared test using the size limited corpus. The last row indicates the micro average of the accuracy for 17 target words. Let us call OVR-SCD2 and PS-SCD2 as One-versus-rest Semantic Class Disambiguation and Pair-wise Semantic Class Disambiguation respectively in the second experiment.

In this experiment, the overall performance of our proposed pair-wise semantic class disambiguation was still better than the previous one-versus-rest approach. The micro average of PW-SCD2 was improved by 7.3% comparing with OVR-SCD2. However, it

had the same problem of instability of the accuracy in Experiment I. The accuracy was quite high for several target words, for example, 98% for the target word ‘encounter’ and ‘watch’. On the other hand, the performance for some target words was quite low such as 0.7% for ‘eat’.

Our method requires no manual annotated training corpus because it can extract the features from a raw text using the monosemous words as the gold semantic class. In this approach, various domains with different topics in training corpus might cause the noise of the model. This such noise might cause the dependence of the system on target words since some words by chance has training and test samples in a similar domain. Therefore, a minor step which builds a classifier worked as a topic filter should be proposed to apply for both training and test processes. In this way, training and test samples can be filtered in a similar domain using an unsupervised algorithm.

Table 4.7: Accuracy of Semantic Class Disambiguation

Target	OVR-SCD2	PW-SCD2
activate	0.45	0.55
add	0.18	0.30
ask	0.26	0.15
eat	0.51	0.007
begin	0.40	0.78
climb	0.28	0.75
lose	0.33	0.72
treat	0.49	0.11
receive	0.46	0.73
encounter	0.59	0.98
hear	0.26	0.48
remain	0.32	0.14
rule	0.39	0.26
suspend	0.30	0.45
watch	0.35	0.98
win	0.50	0.38
write	0.60	0.13
Micro Average	0.392	0.465

4.3.3 Discussion

The average accuracy of our proposed method was better than the previous work in both experiments. However, the performance of our method was still not high. Although the training data of the monosemous words can be constructed with no human intervention, we guess that the gap of the contexts of the semantic class between the training and test data is the major causes of the errors. In other words, the contexts of the semantic class may be very different for the words even when the words have the same and unique semantic class. Since our method as well as previous approaches of WSD rely on the assumption that the same semantic class or sense will be appeared in the similar contexts, the difference of the contexts in the test and training data is serious problem. Therefore, a method to narrow such a gap should be investigated. For example, we expect that the contexts of the semantic class would be similar in the documents of the same topic. Therefore, if the system can identify the topics of the text in the test and training data, for example by Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), then filter the training samples so that the training data consists of the texts of the same topic in the test data, it can utilize the samples similar to the test data for training. This approach can contribute to improve the performance of semantic class disambiguation.

Next, we compare the results of Experiment I and II. The micro average of the accuracy of PW-SCD2 was 1.9% worse than PW-SCD⁺, but 5.3% better than PW-SCD. This might be mainly caused by changing the maximum number of iterations in two experiments. In addition, comparing two feature selection methods, Pearson’s chi-squared test seems better than the frequency based feature selection. Because the accuracy of PW-SCD2 and PW-SCD⁺ were comparable even though PW-SCD⁺ took much more time for training than PW-SCD2.

In Experiment I, PW-SCD⁺ achieved relatively high accuracy (more than 70%) for three words, ‘activate’, ‘begin’ and ‘write’. In PW-SCD2 in Experiment II, there were more target words (six words ‘begin’, ‘climb’, ‘lose’, ‘receive’, ‘encounter’ and ‘watch’) of which the accuracy was better than 70%. In contrast, PW-SCD2 poorly performed for more target words than PW-SCD⁺. The accuracy of only one target word (‘treat’) was less than 20% in PW-SCD⁺, while there were five target words (‘ask’, ‘eat’, ‘treat’, ‘remain’ and ‘write’) in PW-SCD2. Among these 5 words, we found that the accuracy of three words, i.e. ‘ask’, ‘eat’ and ‘remain’, was greatly improved by increasing the maximum number of iteration by comparing PW-SCD and PW-SCD⁺. We can expect that the performance of PW-SCD2 for these target words will be also improved by taking more time for training SVM.

On the other hand, the accuracy of OVR-SCD2 was better than 50% for only a few target words (‘eat’, ‘encounter’, ‘win’ and ‘write’). There were more target words of which the accuracy was higher than 50% in OVR-SCD, however, OVR-SCD was slightly outperformed OVR-SCD2 by 0.6% of the micro average of the accuracy.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Future Work

In this chapter, we summarize our contribution in this research and mention several plans to improve our work in the future.

5.1 Conclusion

In this research, we have proposed a new method to build semantic class disambiguation system that can be applicable to all words. Our architecture is based on the classifiers selecting one of two semantic classes, instead of the binary classifiers for each individual semantic class in the previous approach. For a given target instance, the several classifiers that chose one of the two semantic classes for any pairs of the potential semantic classes of the target word were applied. Finally, the most appropriate semantic class was chosen by the weighted majority voting of the outputs of these classifiers. Our proposed approach could alleviate imbalance of the positive and negative samples, which was considered as a reason for low performance in the previous method.

In addition, we also applied two feature selection methods: frequency based method and Pearson's chi-squared test based method. Two different procedures were also applied to reduce the computational cost and time.

The proposed method shows an improvement for the previous approach. In the experiment I, the proposed method (PW-SCD) outperformed Ariyakornwijits method (OVR-SCD) 1.4 % of accuracy. In the experiment II, the proposed method (PW-SCD2) improved 8% of accuracy comparing with Ariyakornwijits method (OVR-SCD2).

From the results of the experiments, we can conclude that:

- (1) The proposed method of the semantic class disambiguation outperformed the previous method. In Experiment II where 17 verbs were used for the evaluation, PW-SCD2 achieved 7.3% better accuracy than OVR-SCD2.
- (2) The proposed method were requires to train more classifiers. However the computational cost and time spent for each was much less than the previous method, since the size of the training data was much reduced comparing to the extremely

imbalanced the training data. Therefore, the proposed method was more likely to be practical and the reasonable for semantic class disambiguation.

- (3) The performance of the semantic class disambiguation highly depended on the target word. For some words, our method achieved better accuracy than the previous method, but not for other words. On average, our method outperformed the previous approach.
- (4) Due to the use of the monosemous words as the training data, the classifiers were trained from the training samples of the words that were different with the target word. Such a gap still remained as an important factor of low performance.

The research showed a promising method to alleviate knowledge acquisition bottleneck, although it still has much room for improvement.

5.2 Future Work

Although a little improvement was found, there is much room to improve our method since the accuracy was still not high. This section discusses some future direction to improve our method.

As discussed earlier, the low performance may be caused by the fact that not the instances of the target word itself but the instances of the different monosemous words are used as the training data. Therefore, we will explore a lightly supervised learning approach that utilizes both a small amount of the data annotated with the gold semantic classes and a large amount of unlabeled data (i.e. the monosemous words).

Second, the advantages and disadvantages of one versus rest approach and pair-wise approach should be investigated. If we can choose more appropriate approach for individual target words, we can expect that the overall performance of the semantic class disambiguation will be much improved.

Since the numbers of the training samples and features are limited in our experiment due to the computational cost, more powerful server or super computer will be used for further improvement. The use of deep learning technique instead of SVM is our another research interest.

Bibliography

- [1] Patanan Ariyakornwijit and Kiyooki Shirai. Training of semantic class disambiguation classifiers which are applicable to all words. *IPSJ SIG Technical Report*, 2012-NL-208:1–8, 2012.
- [2] Satanjeev Banerjee and Ted Pedersen. Extended gloss overlaps as a measure of semantic relatedness. In *Proceedings of the 18th international joint conference on Artificial intelligence*, pages 805–810, 2003.
- [3] Stefan Bordag. Word sense induction: Triplet-based clustering and automatic evaluation. In *Proceedings of 11th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 137–144, 2006.
- [4] Corinna Cortes and Vladimir Vapnik. Support-vector networks. *Machine Learning*, 20:273 – 297, 1995.
- [5] The daily yomiuri, 2003. newspaper articles in English published by the Yomiuri Shimbun.
- [6] Christiane Fellbaum, editor. *WordNet: An Electronic Lexical Database*. MIT Press, 1998.
- [7] Albert Sydney Hornby and Jonathan Crowther, editors. *Oxford advanced learner’s dictionary of current English*. Oxford University Press, 1995.
- [8] Rubén Izquierdo, Armando Suárez, and German Rigau. A proposal of automatic selection of coarse-grained semantic classes for WSD. In *Procesamiento del Lenguaje Natural, no39*, pages 189–196, 2007.
- [9] Upali S. Kohomban and Wee Sun Lee. Learning semantic classes for word sense disambiguation. In *Proceedings of the 43rd Annual Meeting on Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 34–41, 2005.
- [10] Anna Korhonen. Assigning verbs to semantic classes via WordNet. In *Proceedings of the COLING Workshop SEMANET: Building and Using Semantic Networks*, pages 1–7, 2002.
- [11] Yoong Keok Lee and Hwee Tou Ng. An empirical evaluation of knowledge sources and learning algorithms for word sense disambiguation, 2002.

- [12] Beth Levin. *English Verb Classes and Alternations*. University of Chicago Press, 1993.
- [13] Edward Loper and Steven Bird. NLTK: The natural language toolkit. In *Proceedings of the ACL-02 Workshop on Effective Tools and Methodologies for Teaching Natural Language Processing and Computational Linguistics*, pages 63–70, 2002.
- [14] Marie-Catherine de Marneffe, Bill MacCartney, and Christopher D. Manning. Generating typed dependancy parses from phrase structure parses. In *Proceedings of the Fifth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation*, pages 449–454, 2006.
- [15] Rada Mihalcea and Timothy Chklovski. Towards a workbench for acquisition of domain knowledge from natural language. In *Proceedings of the EACL 2003 Workshop on Linguistically Annotated Corpora*, pages 53–61, 2003.
- [16] Rada Mihalcea, Timothy Chklovski, and Adam Kilgariff. The SENSEVAL-3 English lexical sample task. In *Proceedings of SENSEVAL-3: Third International Workshop on the Evaluation of Systems of the Semantic Analysis of Text*, pages 25–28, 2004.
- [17] Rada Mihalcea and Ehsanul Faruque. Senselearner: Minimally supervised word sense disambiguation for all words in open text. In *In Proceedings of ACL/SIGLEX Senseval-3*, pages 155–158, 2004.
- [18] Andrei Mikheev and Steven Finch. Towards a workbench for acquisition of domain knowledge from natural language. In *Proceedings of the seventh conference on European chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 194–201, 1995.
- [19] Roberto Navigli. Word sense disambiguation: a survey. *ACM Computing Surveys*, 41(2):1–69, 2009.
- [20] Fabian Pedregosa, Gaël Varoquaux, Alexandre Gramfort, Vincent Michel, Bertrand Thirion, Olivier Grisel, Mathieu Blondel, Peter Prettenhofer, Ron Weiss, Vincent Dubourg, Jake Vanderplas, Alexandre Passos, David Cournapeau, Matthieu Brucher, Matthieu Perrot, and Édouard Duchesnay. Scikit-learn: Machine learning in python. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 12:2825–2830, 2011.
- [21] Philip Resnik. Selectional preference and sense disambiguation. In *Proceedings of ACL SIGLEX Workshop on Tagging Text with Lexical Semantics: Why, What, and How?*, pages 52–57, 1997.
- [22] Stephen Soderland, David Fisher, Jonathan Aseltine, and Wendy Lehnert. CRYSTAL: Inducing a conceptual dictionary. In *Proceedings of the Fourteenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence (IJCAI)*, 1995.
- [23] Yan Xu and Lin Chen. Term-frequency based feature selection methods for text categorization. In *Genetic and Evolutionary Computing (ICGEC)*, pages 280 – 283, 2010.