Automatic Sense Disambiguation of the Near-Synonyms in a Dictionary Entry

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Abstract. We present an automatic method to disambiguate the senses of the near-synonyms in the entries of a dictionary of synonyms. We combine different indicators that take advantage of the structure on the entries and of lexical knowledge in WordNet. We also present the results of human judges doing the disambiguation for 50 randomly selected entries. This small amount of annotated data is used to tune and evaluate our system.

1 Near-Synonyms

Near-synonyms are words with close senses. They are described in dictionaries such as *Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms* (Gove 1984) and *Choose the Right Word* (Hayakawa 1994) (hereafter CTRW). An entry in these dictionaries presents a cluster of near-synonyms, explains the core meaning that they share, and makes explicit the differences between them. The differences include stylistic, attitudinal, and denotational nuances (see Edmonds 2000, Hirst 1995 for more details). An example of a fragment of an entry in CTRW[1] is presented in Figure 1. CTRW contains 914 such entries.

We want to disambiguate the senses of the near-synonyms in each entry, as part of a bigger project which aims to automatically acquire knowledge of near-synonym differences from CTRW and other sources. A lexical knowledge-base of near-synonym differences is useful in an MT system to preserve not only the meaning of the sentences but also the nuances of meaning that words may carry and to avoid expressing unwanted nuances. Similarly, the lexical choice process in an NLG system can greatly benefit such information (Edmonds 2002). The first stage of the lexical acquisition process is presented by Inkpen and Hirst (2001).

In this paper, we present an algorithm for automatic sense disambiguation that takes advantage of the fact that the near-synonyms can help disambiguate each other, and the text of the entry is a rich context for disambiguation. We also present the agreement among judges in the task of annotating a small amount of data, which we use to both tune and evaluate our system.

2 Sense Disambiguation

Sense disambiguation means to select one or more senses in which a word is being used in a particular context. The task of disambiguating the meaning of near-synonyms is easier than the general task of word sense disambiguation (WSD). But it is not a simple task.

[1] We are grateful to HarperCollins Publishers, Inc. for permission to use CTRW in our project.

Cluster: **acumen, acuity, insight, perception**
These nouns all refer to a highly developed mental ability to see or understand what is not obvious. **Acumen** has to do with keenness of intellect and implies an uncommon quickness and discrimination of mind. It requires acumen to solve an intricate problem in human relationships, or to emerge unscathed from a venture into penny stocks. . . . .
Acuity means sharpness or keenness, and is applied exclusively to perception: visual acuity; The intelligence test was used as a basis for judging the applicant's mental acuity. *See* KEEN, SENSATION, VISION, WISDOM. *Antonyms*: bluntness, dullness, obtuseness, stupidity.

Fig. 1. Part of the text of an entry in *Choose the Right Word* by S.I. Hayakawa. Copyright ©1987. Reprinted by arrangement with HarperCollins Publishers, Inc.

As we show in section 3, disambiguating the meaning of the near-synonyms is not easy even for humans.

For each sense we need to decide whether it is relevant for the entry or not. For example, in Figure 1, *acumen* has two WordNet senses: `acumen#n#1` glossed as "a tapering point", and `acumen#n#2` glossed as "shrewdness shown by keen insight". The decision we want to make is that the second one is relevant for the entry, and the first one is not. More then one sense of a near-synonym can be relevant for an entry, so we view the problem as one of binary decisions: for each sense, decide whether it is relevant for the context or not. To disambiguate each sense, we compute the indicators described below. Then we combine them to decide if the sense is relevant.

In our task, the context is richer than in the general case of word sense disambiguation. We can use the full text of each entry (including the cross-references). For each entry in CTRW, we consider all senses of each near-synonym. We chose to use the WordNet1.7 sense inventory in order to integrate our word sense disambiguation program with other components in our project that use WordNet. The average polysemy for CTRW is 3.18 (for 5,419 near-synonyms there are 17,267 WordNet senses).

2.1 Intersection of text and gloss

Our main indicator of sense relevance is the size of the intersection of the text of the entry with the WordNet gloss of the sense, both regarded as bags of words. This is a Lesk-style approach (Lesk 1986). When we intersect the text with the gloss we ignore stopwords and the word to be disambiguated. (We experimented with stemming the words, but it did not improve the results.) The other near-synonyms occur in the text of the entry; if they happen to occur in the gloss, this is a good indication that the sense is relevant.

Sometimes the intersection contains only very common words that do not reflect a real overlapping of meaning. In order to avoid such cases, we weight each word in the intersection by its *tf·idf* score. The weight for the word i in the entry j is $tf{\cdot}idf_{i,j} = n_{i,j} \log \frac{n_i}{N}$, where $n_{i,j}$ is the number of occurrences of the the word i in the entry j, n_i is the number of entries that contain the word i, and N is the total number of entries. While we could have imposed a general threshold for the intersection (if the score is lower than the threshold, the sense is not relevant), we preferred to train a decision tree to choose a series of thresholds to better fit the data (see section 2.6).

We also intersected the text of the entry with the glosses of related words, such as hyponyms, hypernyms, meronyms, holonyms, pertainyms for adjectives, and cause and entailment for verbs. The hyponym/hypernym glosses can be expected to work well because some of the near-synonyms in CTRW are in a hypernymy/hyponymy relation with each other.

2.2 Other words in synsets being near-synonyms

Our next indicator is the other words in each synset. They reliably indicate a sense being relevant for the entry because the near-synonyms in the entry help disambiguate each other. For example, if the cluster is: *afraid, aghast, alarmed, anxious, apprehensive, fearful, frightened, scared*, when examining the senses of *anxious*, the sense corresponding to the synset `anxious#a#1`, `apprehensive#a#2` is relevant because the other word in the synset is *apprehensive*, which is one of the near-synonyms.

We also used the words in the synsets of related words, where by related words we mean words connected by a direct WordNet relation. If any of the words in the synsets of the words related to the sense under consideration happens to be a near-synonym in the same cluster, the sense can be judged as relevant.

2.3 Antonyms

The set of antonyms in the entry (the words following the keyword *Antonyms* in the text of the entry) is intersected with the set of WordNet antonyms of the current near-synonym. Figure 1 shows an example of antonyms in a dictionary entry. If two words share an antonym, they are likely to be synonyms. By extension, if the sense we examine has antonyms that intersect the antonyms of the cluster of near-synonyms, then the sense is relevant for the cluster. For this reason we can compare our results with the ones from Senseval2.

2.4 Systematic polysemy

A word is systematically polysemous if its senses can be connected by a relation which is also used to connect all the senses of other systematically polysemous words. For example *window* and *door* have both sense that denote a moving barrier that closes an opening, and senses that denote the space in the wall.

We tested the hypothesis that if a word is polysemous in a systematic way, all its senses are included in a dictionary entry (because these senses act more like facets of the same sense). We did this experiment for nouns only, using CoreLex (Buitelaar 1998), a database of systematic polysemous classes covering around 40,000 nouns from WordNet 1.5. The 126 semantic types are derived by a careful analysis of sense distributions. We experimented with both the original CoreLex, and with a new version of CoreLex we built for WordNet1.7 using the same set of semantic types. This indicator selects as relevant all the senses of a noun that is in CoreLex (and therefore is systematically polysemous).

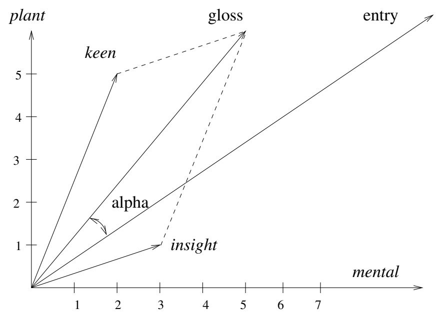

Fig. 2. Context vectors in a 2D space for the words *keen* and *insight*, for the WordNet gloss os the second sense of *accumen*,and for the CTRW entry from Figure 1.

2.5 Context vectors

Sometimes, when the intersection of text and gloss is empty, it still could be the case that they are semantically close. For example, for the sense `reserved#a#2` with the WordNet gloss "marked by self-restraint and reticence", the intersection with the text of the CTRW entry *aloof, detached, reserved* is empty. The text of the entry happens to not use any of the words in the WordNet gloss, but the entry contains semantically close words such as *reluctant* and *distant*. By considering second-order co-occurrences (words that occur with the words of the text or of the gloss) the chance of detecting such similarity increases (Schütze 1998). One problem with this approach is that false positives can be also introduced.

We collected frequencies from the 100-million-word British National Corpus (BNC) (http://www.hcu.ox.ac.uk/BNC/). We chose the 2,000 most frequent words as dimensions, and the 20,000 most frequent words as features. By counting how many times each feature word co-occurs with a dimension word in BNC, we can represent them in the vector space of the dimensions. Then, the vectors of all feature words in an entry (except the near-synonym to be disambiguated) are summed to compute the context vector for the entry. The vectors of all words in a gloss are summed to get the context vector for the gloss. The cosine between the two vectors measures how close the two vectors are. The context vector for the entry will be the sum of many vectors, and it may be a longer vector than the context vector for the gloss, but this does not matter because we measure only the angle between the two vectors. Figure 2 presents a simplified example of context vectors for the second sense of *acumen*. For simplicity, only two dimensions are represented: *plant* and *mental*. Also, from the four content words in the gloss, three happen to be feature words, and only *keen* and *insight* are presented in the figure. The context vector of the gloss is sum of these two (or more) vectors. In a similar manner the context vector for the entry is obtained, and the cosine of the angle α between the two context vectors is used as an indicator for the relevance of the sense. Here, the cosine is 0.909, while the cosine between the context vector for the entry and the context vector for the first sense of *acumen* is only 0.839.

```
intersection_text_gloss > 4.41774 : Y (406.0/59.4)
intersection_text_gloss <= 4.41774 :
|   intersection_text_gloss_related_words > 23.7239 : Y (28.0/1.4)
|   intersection_text_gloss_related_words <= 23.7239 :
|   |   words_in_related_synsets = 0:
|   |   |   words_in_synset = 0:
|   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss_related_words <= 4.61842 : N (367.0/62.5)
|   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss_related_words > 4.61842 :
|   |   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss_related_words <= 4.94367 : Y (4.0/1.2)
|   |   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss_related_words > 4.94367 : N (42.0/14.6)
|   |   |   words_in_synset = 1:
|   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss <= 1.19887 : N (16.0/8.9)
|   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss > 1.19887 : Y (3.0/1.1)
|   |   words_in_related_synsets = 1:
|   |   |   intersection_text_gloss <= 0 : Y (24.0/4.9)
|   |   |   intersection_text_gloss > 0 :
|   |   |   |   corelex = 0:
|   |   |   |   |   cosine <= 0.856407 : Y (3.0/2.1)
|   |   |   |   |   cosine > 0.856407 : N (5.0/1.2)
|   |   |   |   corelex = 1:
|   |   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss <= 3.44834 : Y (3.0/1.1)
|   |   |   |   |   intersection_text_gloss > 3.44834 : N (3.0/2.1)
```

Fig. 3. Simplified decision tree for the combination of indicators.

2.6 Using a decision tree to combine indicators

We use decision tree learning to determine the best combination of indicators. We use C4.5 (http://www.cse.unsw.edu.au/∼quinlan/), a tree induction program, on our 904 data points. The attributes we employ for each data point are the values of the indicators: intersection text and gloss (numerical value), intersection of text and gloss of related words (numerical value), words in synset (0 or 1), words in synsets of related words (0 or 1), antonyms (0 or 1), membership in CoreLex (0 or 1), and the cosine between context vectors (numerical value). The classification is binary: Y/N, meaning relevant or not relevant for the entry. We obtain the class for each of our training examples from a standard solution we built (see section 3 for details about the standard solution). See Figure 3 for a simplified decision tree that combines indicators.

We experimented with manual combinations, but we decided it is better to automatically derive a decision tree, because this learning mechanism has the ability to decide which indicators have more influence on the classification, and it can completely ignore indicators with low influence. We use the standard solution built in section 3 as training and test data in the decision-tree learning process. We could have split this data into a training set and a test set, but we chose to do 10-fold cross-validation, as a better method to estimate the error rate. Another advantage of using the decision tree is that it determines the thresholds for weighted intersection and for cosine.

3 Building a standard solution

The goal of using human judges in our work was twofold: to get a measure of how difficult the task is for humans, and to build a standard solution for use in evaluation. The standard solution also serves as training and test data for the decision tree used in section 2.6.

We had $k = 6$ judges (native or near-native speakers of English) doing the same job as the WSD program. We randomly selected 50 of the 914 clusters, containing 282 near-synonyms with 904 senses in total. The judges were presented with the text of the entry for each cluster, including antonyms and cross-references. For each near-synonym, all the WordNet senses (with their glosses and all the words in the synset) were listed, and the judges had to decide whether the sense is relevant for the cluster or not. The judges had no information about hypernyms, hyponyms, or antonyms.

There were 904 decisions the judges had to make. If we consider the decisions as votes, for 584 decisions, the judges voted 6–0 (or 0–6), for 156 decisions 5–1, and for 108 decisions 4–2. There were 56 ties (3–3).

The percent agreement among our judges was 85%. To get a more accurate measure the agreement among the *k* judges, we used the well-known kappa statistic (Siegel and Castellan 1988), (Carletta 1996), which factors in the agreement by chance. The chance agreement is 50.2% in our case. Therefore the kappa coefficient is $\kappa = 0.699$. The figures of agreement between pairs of two judges vary from 90% ($\kappa = 0.80$) to 78.8% ($\kappa = 0.57$). If we leave out one of the judges, who expressed a particular bias, we get a higher agreement of 86.8% ($\kappa = 0.73$).

We had the judges meet to discuss the ties. The discussion had a very small influence on the agreement figures (because the number of cases discussed was small), but it helped clarify the sources of disagreement. Senses which are "instances" or "proper names" (e.g. the sense "*the United States*" for the near-synonym *union*) were rejected by some judges as too specific, even if they were mentioned in the text of the entry. There was disagreement about intransitive senses of some transitive verbs (or the other way around). Another problem was posed by mentions of extended senses (literal or figurative senses) in the text. For example, the CTRW entry for *bombastic, orotund, purple, turgid* mentions that "these adjectives are used to describe styles of speaking or writing"; and later on: "turgid literally means swollen or distended". The question the judges had to ask themselves is whether this literal sense is included to the entry or not. In this particular case maybe the answer is negative. But it is not always clear whether the extended sense is mentioned by the lexicographer who designed the entry because the extended sense is very close and should be included in the meaning of the cluster, or whether it is mentioned so that the reader will be able to distinguish it. Some judges decided to include more often than exclude, while the other judges excluded the senses when they thought appropriate. If we omit one of the judges who expressed singular opinions during the discussion, we get a higher agreement of 86.8% ($\kappa = 0.73$).

In the standard solution, we decided to correct a few of the 56 cases of ties, to correct the apparent bias of some judges. We decided to include senses that are too specific or instances, but to exclude verbs with wrong transitivity. We produced two solutions: a more inclusive one (when a sense is mentioned in the entry, it was included) and a more exclusive solution (when a sense is mentioned, it was included only if the judges included it). The more inclusive solution was used in our experiments, but the results would change very little with the more exclusive one, because they differ only in 16 points out of 904.

4 Results and Evaluation

Table 1 presents the results of using each indicator alone and in combinations with other indicators. We compare the results of our method with a standard solution (section 3

Method	Accuracy
Baseline (select all senses)	53.5%
Antonyms	47.0%
Cosine (decision tree)	52.7%
CoreLex	54.2%
Words in synsets of hypernyms and hyponyms	56.4%
Intersection text & gloss of hypernyms and hyponyms (*tf·idf*)	61.0%
Words in synsets of related words	61.3%
Words in synset	67.1%
Intersection text & gloss of related words (*tf·idf*) (decision tree)	70.6%
Intersection text & gloss (no *tf·idf*)	76.8%
Intersection text & gloss (*tf·idf*) (decision tree)	77.6%
Best combination (no decision tree)	79.3%
Best combination (decision tree)	**82.5%**
Best combination (decision tree – Resnik's coefficient included)	**83.0%**

Table 1. Accuracy for different combinations of indicators

explains how the standard solution was produced). For the most of the indicators, we use the standard solution to quantify their potential. We define accuracy for our task as the number of senses correctly classified over the total number of senses.

For the indicators using *tf·idf* and for the cosine between context vectors we use a decision tree to avoid manually choosing a threshold; therefore the figures in the table are the results of the cross-validation. By manually combining indicators, the best accuracy we obtained was 79.3% for the attributes: intersection text and gloss (with a fixed threshold), words in synsets, and antonyms.

We found the best combination of indicators by training a decision tree as described in section 2.6. We achieve an accuracy of 83%, computed by 10-fold cross-validation. The indicators that contribute the most to improving the accuracy are the ones in the upper-part of the decision tree (Figure 3): the intersection of the text with the gloss, the intersection of the text with the glosses of the related words, the words in the synset, and the words in the synsets of the related words. The ones in the lower part (CoreLex and the cosine between context vectors) have less influence on the results. Their contribution is likely to be included in the contribution of the other indicators.

If the evaluation is done for each part-of-speech separately (see the first row in Table 2), it can be observed that the accuracy for nouns and verbs is higher than for adjectives. In our data set of 50 randomly selected near-synonym clusters, there are 276 noun senses, 310 verb senses, and 318 adjective senses. There were no adverbs in the test set, because there are only a few adverbs in CTRW.

Another indicator that we implemented after the previous experiments were done is Resnik's coefficient, which measures how strongly a word sense correlates with the words in the same grouping (in the case when we have groups of similar nouns). The algorithm was originally proposed by Resnik (1999) in a paper that presented a method for disambiguating noun groupings, using the intuition that when two polysemous words are similar, their most informative subsumer provides information about which sense of

Method	All	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives
All indicators except Resnik's coefficient	82.6%	81.8%	83.2%	78.3%
All indicators including Resnik's coefficient	83.0%	84.9%	84.8%	78.3%
Only Resnik's coefficient	71.9%	84.0%	77.7%	–

Table 2. Accuracy per part-of-speech.

which word is the relevant one. The method exploits the WordNet noun hierarchy, and uses Resnik's similarity measure based on information content (Resnik 1999) (but see (Budanitsky 2001) for a critique of the similarity measure). We also implemented the same algorithm for verbs, using the WordNet verb hierarchy.

When we add Resnik's coefficient as a feature in the decision tree, the total accuracy (after cross-validation) increases slightly, to 83%. If Resnik's coefficient is included, the accuracy is improved for nouns and verbs (84.9% for nouns and 84.8% for verbs). The accuracy for adjectives is the same, because Resnik's coefficient is not defined for adjectives. If the only feature in the decision tree is Resnik's coefficient, the accuracy is high for nouns, as expected, and very low for verbs and for all parts of speech considered together.

In conclusion, the disambiguation method presented here does well for nouns and verbs, but it needs improvement for adjectives.

5 Comparison with Related Work

Senseval (http://www.itri.brighton.ac.uk/events/senseval/) had the goal of evaluating word sense disambiguation systems. We will refer here only to the experiments for the English language. Senseval2 used WordNet1.7 senses; therefore we can compare the Senseval2 results with my results, while bearing in mind that the words and texts are different (because of the nature of our task). Senseval2 had two tasks: all content words and selected words (the last one seems closer to our task). The precision and recall reported by the participating systems were all below 70%, and fancy supervised or unsupervised algorithms could beat a Lesk-baseline by only 2%. Our WSD program performs at least 13% better, reflecting the fact that our task is relatively easier than the general WSD task. We report accuracy figures, but this is equivalent to reporting precision and recall, since we disambiguate all the near-synonyms (that is our algorithm handles all the instances). If we apply the method of computing precision and recall used Senseval2 to our case, we obtain the accuracy as we define it in section 4 (because in our task several senses of the same word can be considered correct, conjunctively). Our value for inter-annotator agreement (85%) is comparable to that of Senseval2 (85.5% for the English lexical sample task, according to the Senseval2 webpage).

Combining classifiers for WSD is not a new idea, but it is usually done manually, not on the basis of a small amount of annotated data. Stevenson and Wilks (2001), among others, combine classifiers (knowledge-sources) by using a weighted scheme.

An adapted Lesk-style algorithm for WSD that uses WordNet, but in a different manner, is presented by Pedersen and Banerjee (2002). They intersected glosses of all words in the context of a target word. The intersection is done pairwise, also considering intersections between glosses of a word and words related to the second word (by hypernymy, hyponymy, meronymy, etc.). They achieve an accuracy of 32%. Unlike Pedersen and Banerjee, we focus only on the target word (we do not use glosses of words in context), when we use the gloss of a near-synonym we include examples in the gloss, and we achieve high accuracy.

Schütze (1998) uses context vectors to cluster together all the contexts in which a word is used in the same sense. In this way it is possible to distinguish among word senses without using a sense inventory from a lexical resource. We use the context vectors as a measure of the semantic relatedness between the text of an entry and the gloss of a synset.

6 Conclusion and Future Directions

We have presented a method to disambiguate senses of the near-synonyms in dictionary entries. We also presented the inter-annotator agreement for the human task and analyzed the sources of disagreements. We built a standard solution and used it to tune and evaluate our automatic program.

We plan to reuse our WSD program in other components of our system. For example, nouns that describe situations have associated semantic roles; we can extract them by finding verb senses with the same meaning as the nouns. Moreover, we can use a similar WSD algorithm for disambiguating senses of peripheral concepts (nuances) expressed by near-synonyms.

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