

# Word Learning

## Informatics 1 CG: Lecture 9

Mirella Lapata

School of Informatics  
University of Edinburgh  
mlap@inf.ed.ac.uk

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Reading:

*T. Harley (2001). The Psychology of Language, Chapter 4*

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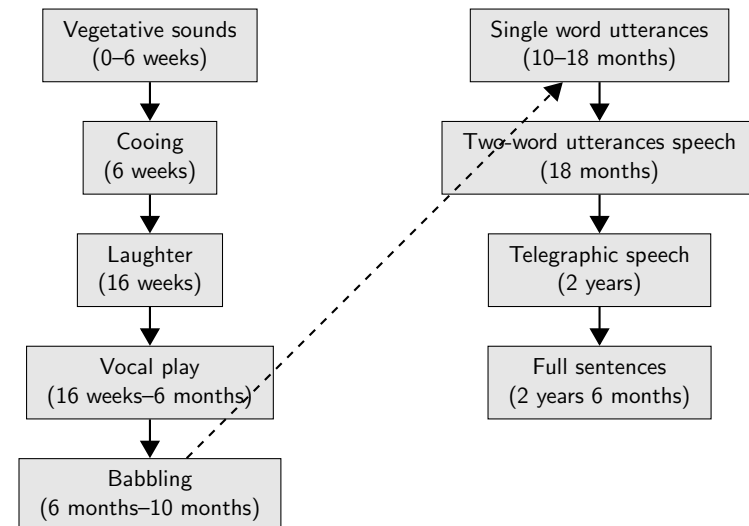
## Recap

In order to acquire a lexicon young children segment speech into words using multiple sources of support; we focused on distributional regularities.

- transitional probability provides cues
- verified by Saffran et al. (1996) experiments
- Brent and Cartwright's (1996) computational model of word segmentation
- Based on Minimum Description Length Principle
- In today's lecture we focus on **word learning**

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## The Development of Language



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## The Linguistic Genius of Babies

Learning to speak is much harder than it first appears, and the mechanics necessary to achieve it are complex.



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## The Word Spurt

- **First words** are typically produced between 10–15 months
- Next few months: add 8–11 words per month
- At about 50 words (approx 18 months), acquisition of words takes off: add roughly **10 words per day**.

### Task for Language Learner

- Mapping a stream of sound to meaning
- **Task 1:** learning which sound sequences are words using clues such as stress, transitional probabilities, caregiver speech, some degree of subtraction.
- **Task 2:** Pairing sounds with meanings (e.g., objects, events).

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## Semantic Development is Hard!



Mom says: Isn't the moon pretty?

- How does the child pick the correct referent for *moon*?
- Is *moon* even an object available in its visual field?
- How does it know *moon* refers to an object rather than a property (silver colored, round)?
- The moon has different shapes (crescent, full moon), but is still the same object.
- The task of associating names with objects and actions is enormous!

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## Meaning Errors (Overextensions)



**moon:** any round thing  
(cakes, round marks, postmarks, letter o)



**dog:** anything furry  
(dog, cat, sheep, slippers, fur coats, rugs)



**potato:** any food wrapped in foil  
(baked potato, sweet potato, pizza)



**fly:** any small, possibly mobile object  
(specks of dirt, dust, small insects, bread crumbs)

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## Meaning Errors (Underextensions)

*kitty*: only the family kitty



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## Meaning Errors

### Overextensions

- **Possibility 1:** Child has incomplete definition (once *four-legged* is added to the meaning of *doggie*, *slippers* and *rugs* are no longer *doggies*).
- **Possibility 2:** Child is compensating for vocabulary limitations (once the child learns *cat* and *sheep*, those animals are no longer *dogs*).

### Underextensions

- **Possibility 1:** Child has trouble separating the essential features from the accidental.
- **Possibility 2:** Child attempts to be conservative.

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## The Mapping Problem

W. V. O. Quine (1960) *Word and Object*

“Gavagai!”



A rabbit!  
Our dinner!  
Shh, be quiet!  
What a cute furry thing!  
Rabbit parts!  
Get it out!  
Don't move!  
What long ears!

The child does not know which attribute is being labeled!

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## Word Meaning Clues

So how do children learn what words mean? Given the array of things a word could mean, how do they decide what it means?

- **Socio-Pragmatic clues:** eye gaze, facial expression, inference of speakers semantic intentions.
- **Child-directed speech:** focus on the here-and-now, labeling objects that the child is looking at.

M: That's a chair.

M: It's called an eel. It's like a snake, only it lives in the water.

Ch: Mommy, where my plate?

M: You mean your saucer?

Ch: Yeah.

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## The Mapping Problem

But speech-context correspondence isn't always sufficient and could be misleading!



Mom says: *What are you doing?*  
(not *This is a door.*)



Mom says: *Eat your peas*  
(child is thinking about the family dog).

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## Word Meaning Clues

So how do children learn what words mean? Given the array of things a word could mean, how do they decide what it means?

- **Socio-Pragmatic clues:** eye gaze, facial expression, inference of speakers semantic intentions.
- **Child-directed speech:** focus on the here-and-now, labeling objects that the child is looking at; but speech-context correspondence isn't sufficient and could be misleading.
- **Internal Assumptions:** Whole Object Assumption, Taxonomic Assumption, Mutual Exclusivity Constraint
- **Syntactic Bootstrapping:** exploiting syntactic structure to uncover word meaning.

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## Whole Object Assumption

Words refer to a whole object, rather than individual attributes or parts. Adults are sensitive to this constraint too!

### Word learning experiments

- 3-year olds see unfamiliar objects (*pagoda, lung, microscope*)
- Use an unfamiliar word (e.g. *finial, trachea, platform*)
- Test whether word referred to whole or part.
- Observe a tendency to associate words with wholes.

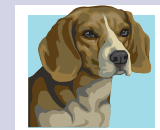
(Markman & Wachtel, 1988; Mervis & Long, 1987; Taylor & Gelman, 1988; Waxman & Markow 1995).

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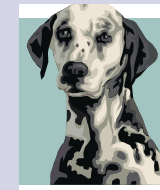
## Taxonomic Assumption

Words refer to things of the same kind rather than things that are thematically related.

### Markman and Hutchinson (1984): No Word Condition



Look carefully now. See this?



Find another one that is the same as this.



59%

41%

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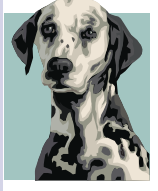
## Taxonomic Assumption

Words refer to things of the same kind rather than things that are thematically related.

### Markman and Hutchinson (1984): Word Condition



See this? It is a **sud**.



83%  
Find another **sud** that is the same as this **sud**.



17%

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## Mutual Exclusivity Assumption

Each object has only one label.

- Children do not usually like more than one name for things.
- Few meanings have more than one word.
- Pinker: Homonyms are plentiful, synonyms rare.
- Given a new word, children will chose to apply it to an object without a name rather than an object with a name. (Clark 1990, de Villiers & de Villiers 1992, Markman 1991).
- Constraint is also used to override the whole word assumption (Markman & Wachtel, 1988). e.g., When the child already knows *cup* and mother says, *this is a handle*.

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## Mutual Exclusivity Assumption

### Mervis and Bertand (1994)



"Can I have the shoe?"

"Can I have the **zib**"

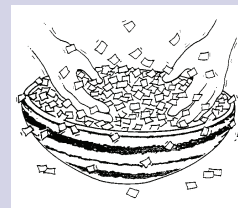
- Showed familiar objects + 1 unfamiliar object
- Children who had "word-spurred" concluded that the **zib** referred to the unfamiliar object.

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## Syntactic Bootstrapping

- There are syntactic cues to learning word meaning.
- Brown (1958) first proposed that children may use parts of speech as a cue to meaning.

Children are shown a picture and told either:



- Do you know what it means to **sib**? In this picture you can see sipping. (verb)
- Do you know what **a sib** is? In this picture you can see a sib. (count noun)
- Have you seen **any sib**? In this picture you can see sib. (mass noun)

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## Syntactic Bootstrapping

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During test trials:



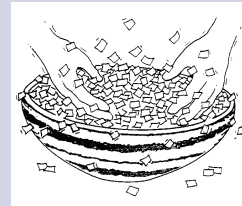
- **Verb learners:** Can you show me sipping?
- **Count noun learners:** Can you show me a sib?
- **Mass noun learners:** Can you show me sib?

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## Syntactic Bootstrapping

- There are syntactic cues to learning word meaning.
- Brown (1958) first proposed that children may use part-of-speech as a cue to meaning.

And the result was:



- **Verb learners** tend to construe “sipping” as referring to the action.
- **Count noun learners** tend to construe “sib” as referring to the object.
- **Mass noun learners** tend to construe “sib” as referring to the substance acted on.

- Children use structure of sentences in combination with what they perceive in the world to interpret meaning of new words.
- **Children learn a great deal of syntax before word meanings!**

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## Summary

Word learning is hard, children use multiple sources of support:

- use of socio-pragmatic skills
- some aspects of child directed speech
- biases towards certain interpretations over others
- linguistic constraints through use of syntax

Remaining questions:

- Relative contribution of each information source.
- Whether the constraints are language specific or general strategies.
- Whether the constraints are innate or acquired.

**Next lecture: learning syntactic categories.**

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