## Outline

## You shall know a word by <br> the company it keeps!

Collocation extraction with statistical association measures

## Part 1

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## What is a collocation?

- Words tend to appear in typical, recurrent combinations: day and night
ring and bell
milk and cow
kick and bucket brush and teeth
such pairs are called collocations (Firth 1957)
- the meaning of a word is in part determined by its characteristic collocations
- "You shall know a word by the company it keeps!"

Collocations \& Multiword Expressions (MWE)
What are collocations?
Types of cooccurrence

Quantifying the attraction between words
Contingency tables
Contingency tables and hypothesis tests in R
Practice session

What is a collocation?

- Native speakers have strong \& widely shared intuitions about such collocations
- Collocational knowledge is essential for non-native speakers in order to sound natural $\Rightarrow$ "idiomatic English"


## An important distinction...

... which has been the cause of many misunderstandings.

- collocations are an empirical linguistic phenomenon
- can be observed in corpora \& quantified
- provide a window to lexical meaning and word usage
- applications in language description (Firth 1957) and computational lexicography (Sinclair 1966, 1991)
- multiword expressions = lexicalised word combinations
- MWE need to be lexicalised (i.e., stored as units) because of certain idiosyncratic properties
- non-compositionallity, non-substitutability, non-modifiability (Manning \& Schütze 1999)
- not observable, defined by linguistic tests
(e.g. substitution test) and native speaker intuitions
the term "collocations" has been used for both concepts


## But what are collocations?

- Empirically, collocations are words that show an attraction towards each other (or a "mutual expectancy")
- in other words, a tendency to occur near each other
- collocations can also be understood as statistically salient patterns that can be exploited by language learners
- Linguistically, collocations are an epiphenomenon ...
... some might also say a hotchpotch ...
... of many different linguistic causes that lie behind the observed surface attraction.


## Collocates of bucket (n.)

| noun | $f$ | verb | $f$ | adjective | $f$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| water | 183 | throw | 36 | large | 37 |
| spade | 31 | fill | 29 | single-record | 5 |
| plastic | 36 | randomize | 9 | cold | 13 |
| slop | 14 | empty | 14 | galvanized | 4 |
| size | 41 | tip | 10 | ten-record | 3 |
| mop | 16 | kick | 12 | full | 20 |
| record | 38 | hold | 31 | empty | 9 |
| bucket | 18 | carry | 26 | steaming | 4 |
| ice | 22 | put | 36 | full-track | 2 |
| seat | 20 | chuck | 7 | multi-record | 2 |
| coal | 16 | weep | 7 | small | 21 |
| density | 11 | pour | 9 | leaky | 3 |
| brigade | 10 | douse | 4 | bottomless | 3 |
| algorithm | 9 | fetch | 7 | galvanised | 3 |
| shovel | 7 | store | 7 | iced | 3 |
| container | 10 | drop | 9 | clean | 7 |
| oats | 7 | pick | 11 | wooden | 6 |
| sand | 12 | use | 31 | old | 19 |
| Rhino | 7 | tire | 3 | ice-cold | 2 |
| champagne | 10 | rinse | 3 | anti-sweat | 1 |

## Collocates of bucket (n.)

- opaque idioms (kick the bucket, but often used literally)
- proper names (Rhino Bucket, a hard rock band)
- noun compounds, both lexicalised and productively formed (bucket shop, bucket seat, slop bucket, champagne bucket)
- lexical collocations = semi-compositional combinations (weep buckets, brush one's teeth, give a speech)
- cultural stereotypes (bucket and spade)
- semantic compatibility (full, empty, leaky bucket; throw, carry, fill, empty, kick, tip, take, fetch a bucket)
- semantic fields (shovel, mop; hypernym container)
- facts of life (wooden bucket, bucket of water, sand, ice, ...)
- often sense-specific (bucket size, randomize to a bucket)


## Operationalising collocations

- Firth introduced collocations as an essential component of his methodology, but without any clear definition

Moreover, these and other technical words are given their 'meaning' by the restricted language of the theory, and by applications of the theory in quoted works. (Firth 1957, 169)

- Empirical concept needs to be formalised and quantified
- intuition: collocates are "attracted" to each other, i.e. they tend to occur near each other in text
- definition of "nearness" $\stackrel{\perp}{ }$ cooccurrence
- quantify the strength of attraction between collocates based on their recurrence $\Rightarrow$ cooccurrence frequency

We will consider word pairs $\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$ such as (brush, teeth)

## Types of cooccurrence: examples

Surface cooccurrence

- Surface cooccurrences of $w_{1}=$ hat with $w_{2}=$ roll
- symmetric window of four words (L4, R4)
- limited by sentence boundaries


#### Abstract

A vast deal of coolness and a peculiar degree of judgement, are requisite in catching a hat. A man must not be precipitate, or he runs over it ; he must not rush into the opposite extreme, or he loses it altogether. [..] There was a fine gentle wind, and Mr. Pickwick's hat rolled sportively before it. The wind puffed, and Mr. Pickwick puffed, and the hat rolled over and over, as merrily as a lively porpoise in a strong tide; and on it might have rolled, far beyond Mr. Pickwick's reach, had not its course been providentially stopped, just as that gentleman was on the point of resigning it to its fate.


## Different types of cooccurrence

1. Surface cooccurrence

- criterion: surface distance measured in word tokens
- words in a collocational span around the node word, may be symmetric (L5, R5) or asymmetric (L2, R0)
- traditional approach in lexicography and corpus linguistics

2. Textual cooccurrence

- words cooccur if they are in the same text segment (sentence, paragraph, document, Web page, ...)
- often used in Web-based research ( $\lrcorner$ Web as corpus)


## 3. Syntactic cooccurrence

- words in a specific syntactic relation, e.g.
- adjective modifying noun
- subject / object noun of verb
- N of N and similar patterns
- suitable for extraction of MWE (Krenn \& Evert 2001)


## Types of cooccurrence: examples

Textual cooccurrence

- Textual cooccurrences of $w_{1}=$ hat and $w_{2}=$ over
- textual units = sentences
- multiple occurrences within a sentence ignored

| A vast deal of coolness and a peculiar degree of judgement, are |
| :--- |
| requisite in catching a hat. |


| A man must not be precipitate, or he runs over it; | - |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he must not rush into the opposite extreme, or he loses it |  |
| altogether. |  |


| There was a fine gentle wind, and Mr. Pickwick's hat rolled |
| :--- |
| sportively before it. |


| The wind puffed, and Mr. Pickwick puffed, and the hat rolled |
| :--- |
| over and over as merrily as a lively porpoise in a strong tide; |

hat

- coocurrence frequency $f=1$
- marginal frequencies $f_{1}=3, f_{2}=2$


## Types of cooccurrence: examples

Syntactic cooccurrence

- Syntactic cooccurrences of adjectives and nouns
- every instance of the syntactic relation of interest is extracted as a pair token
In an open barouche [...] stood a stout old gentleman, in a blue coat
In an open barouche [...] stood a stout old gentleman, in a blue coat
and bright buttons, corduroy breeches and top-boots; two
and bright buttons, corduroy breeches and top-boots; two
young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a young gentleman apparently
young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a young gentleman apparently
enamoured of one of the young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a lady
enamoured of one of the young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a lady
of doubtful age, probably the aunt of the aforesaid; and [...]
of doubtful age, probably the aunt of the aforesaid; and [...]


Cooccurrency frequency data for young gentleman:

- coocurrence frequency $f=1$
- marginal frequencies $f_{1}=f_{2}=3$


## Attraction as statistical association

- Tendency of events to cooccur = statistical association
- statistical measures of association are available for contingency tables, resulting from a cross-classification of a set of "items" according to two (binary) factors
- cross-classifying factors represent the two events
- Application to word cooccurrence data
- most natural for syntactic cooccurrences
- "items" are pair tokens = instances of syntactic relation
- factor 1: Is first component of pair token an instance of word type $w_{1}$ ?
- factor 2: Is second component of pair token an instance of word type $w_{2}$ ?


## Quantifying attraction

- Quantitative measure for attraction between words based on their recurrence $\Rightarrow$ cooccurrence frequency
- But cooccurrence frequency is not sufficient
- bigram is to occurs $f=260$ times in Brown corpus
- but both components are so frequent ( $f_{1} \approx 10,000$ and $t_{2} \approx 26,000$ ) that one would also find the bigram 260 times if words in the text were arranged in completely random order
take expected frequency into account as "baseline"
- Statistical model required to bring in notion of "chance cooccurrence" and to adjust for sampling variation
${ }^{5}$ NB: bigrams can be understood either as syntactic cooccurrences (adjacency relation) or as surface cooccurrences (L1, R0 or L0, R1)


## Contingency table of observed frequencies

For syntactic cooccurrences


|  | *\|gent. | *\| $\neg$ gent. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| young $\mid *$ | 1 | 2 |
| 7young $\mid *$ | 2 | 4 |
|  | $=3$ |  |
|  | $=9$ |  |



## Measuring association in contingency tables

A) Measures of significance

- apply statistical hypothesis test with null hypothesis $H_{0}$ : independence of rows and columns
- $H_{0}$ implies there is no association between $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$
- association score = test statistic or p-value
- one-sided vs. two-sided tests
amount of evidence for association between $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$
B) Measure of effect-size
- compare observed frequencies $O_{i j}$ to expected frequencies $E_{i j}$ under $H_{0}$ ( $\Rightarrow$ later)
- or estimate conditional prob. $\operatorname{Pr}\left(w_{2} \mid w_{1}\right), \operatorname{Pr}\left(w_{1} \mid w_{2}\right)$, etc.
- maximum-likelihood estimates or confidence intervals
strength of the attraction between $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$


## Independence tests in R

## \# chi-squared test is the standard independence test

> chisq.test(A)
\# use test statistic as association score, p-value for interpretation
\# Is there significant evidence for a collocation?
\# Fisher's exact test works better for small samples and skewed tables

[^0]
## Contingency tables in $R$

- Contingency table is represented as a matrix in R, i.e. a rectangular array of numbers
- looks like numeric data frame, but different internally
- E.g. for the following observed frequencies:
$O_{11}=9, O_{12}=47, O_{21}=82, O_{22}=956$
$>A<-$ matrix $(c(10,47,82,956)$, nrow=2, ncol=2, byrow=TRUE)
$>\mathrm{A}$
\# construct matrix from row (or column) vectors
$>A<-\operatorname{rbind}(c(10,47), c(82,956))$


## Interpreting hypothesis tests as association scores

- Establishing significance
- $p$-value = probability of observed (or more "extreme") contingency table if $H_{0}$ is true
- theory: $H_{0}$ can be rejected if p-value is below accepted significance level (commonly .05, . 01 or .001)
- practice: nearly all word pairs are highly significant
- Test statistic = significance association score
- convention for association scores: high scores indicate strong attraction between words
- satisfied by test statistic $X^{2}$, but not by p-value
- Fisher's test: transform p-value, e.g. $-\log _{10} p$
- Odds ratio as measure of effect size
- Fisher's test also provides estimate for odds ratio $\theta$, an effect-size measure for association strength
- $\log$ odds ratio $\log \theta$ as effect-size association score (0 for independence, large values indicate strong attraction)
- conservative estimate = lower bound of confidence interval


## Association scores from hypothesis tests

## Association scores from hypothesis tests

\# chi-squared statistic $X^{\wedge} 2$ as association score
> chisq.test(A) \$statistic
\# p-value of Fisher's test and corresponding associaton score
$>$ fisher.test (A) \$p.value
$>-\log 10$ (fisher.test (A) \$p. value)
\# NB: chi-squared and Fisher scores are not on same scale
\# log odds ratio and conservative estimate
$>\log (f i s h e r . t e s t(A) \$ e s t i m a t e)$
$>\log (f i s h e r . t e s t(A) \$ c o n f . i n t[1])$
$>\operatorname{str}(f i s h e r . t e s t(A))$ \# or read help page carefully

## One-sided vs. two-sided association scores

- Chi-squared and Fisher are two-sided tests
- calculate high association scores (= low p-values) both for strong positive association (attraction) and for strong negative association (repulsion)
- we are usually interested in attraction only (unless we are looking for "anti-collocations")
- Fisher can be applied as one-sided test
- we are only interested in the alternative to $H_{0}$ that there is greater than chance cooccurrence, not in the alternative of less than chance cooccurrence

[^1]\# define two further (invented) contingency tables
$>\mathrm{B} 1<-\operatorname{rbind}(\mathrm{c}(20,80), \mathrm{C}(80,900))$
$>\mathrm{B} 2<-\operatorname{rbind}(\mathrm{c}(1,99), \mathrm{C}(99,881))$
\# calculate chi-squared and Fisher scores for the two tables, \# as well as estimates for their log odds ratios
\# Do the results look plausible to you? What is wrong?

## Practice: bigrams in the Brown corpus

- Data set of bigrams with $f \geq 5$ in the Brown corpus
- available on course homepage as brown_bigrams.tbl
- 24,167 rows (= bigrams) with variables:
- id = numeric ID of bigram
- word1 = first word (e.g. long for long time)
- pos1 = part-of-speech code (e.g. J for adjective)
- word2 $=$ second word (e.g. time for long time)
- pos2 = part-of-speech code (e.g. N for noun)
- 011 = observed cooccurrence frequency $O_{11}$
- 012 = observed frequency $O_{12}$
- O 21 = observed frequency $\mathrm{O}_{21}$
- O 22 = observed frequency $\mathrm{O}_{22}$


## Practice: bigrams in the Brown corpus

```
> Brown <- read.delim("brown_bigrams.tbl")
```

\# Now select a number of bigrams (e.g. low and high cooccurrence
\# frequency, or specific part-of-speech combinations), construct
\# the corresponding contingency tables in matrix form,
\# and calculate the different association scores you know.
\# Can you find a bigram with strong negative association?
\# NB: You can use the same tests for corpus frequency comparisons.
\# Assume that a certain expression occurs 50 times in the 100,000
\# tokens of corpus A, and twice in the 1,000 tokens of corpus B.
\# What is an appropriate contingency table for these data, and what
\# results do you obtain from the chi-squared and Fisher test?


[^0]:    > fisher.test (A)

[^1]:    > fisher.test (B1, alternative="greater")
    \# high scores (significance and log odds ratio)
    > fisher.test (B2, alternative="greater")
    \# low scores (significance and log odds ratio)

