Statistical Analysis of Corpus Data with R

You shall know a word by the company it keeps! Collocation extraction with statistical association measures — Part 1 —

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Outline

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

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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

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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

- Ir 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!"

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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 i "idiomatic English"

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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)

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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)

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the term "collocations" has been used for both concepts

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- 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

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- Empirically, collocations are words that show an attraction towards each other (or a "mutual expectancy")
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 - 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
тор	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, lexicalised or 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" ➡ cooccurrence
- ► quantify the strength of attraction between collocates based on their recurrence coccurrence frequency

We will consider word pairs (w_1, w_2) such as (*brush*, *teeth*)

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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

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2. Textual cooccurrence

- words cooccur if they are in the same text segment (sentence, paragraph, document, Web page, ...)
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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)

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Surface cooccurrence

► **Surface cooccurrences** of *w*₁ = *hat* with *w*₂ = *roll*

- symmetric <u>window</u> of four words (L4, R4)
- limited by sentence boundaries

A vast deal of coolness and a peculiar degree of judgement, are <u>requisite in catching a hat</u>. 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 <u>wind</u>, and Mr. Pickwick's **hat** rolled sportively before it₁. The wind puffed, and Mr. <u>Pickwick puffed</u>, and the **hat** rolled over and over₁ 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.

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- coocurrence frequency f = 2
- marginal frequencies $f_1 = f_2 = 3$

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 <u>hat</u> .	hat	—
A man must not be precipitate, or he runs over it;	—	over
he must not rush into the opposite extreme, or he loses it altogether.	—	—
There was a fine gentle wind, and Mr. Pickwick's <u>hat</u> rolled sportively before it.	hat	—
The wind puffed, and Mr. Pickwick puffed, and the <u>hat</u> rolled <i>over</i> and <i>over</i> as merrily as a lively porpoise in a strong tide;	hat	over

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The wind puffed, and Mr. Pickwick puffed, and the <u>hat</u> rolled <i>over</i> and <i>over</i> as merrily as a lively porpoise in a strong tide;	hat	over

- coocurrence frequency f = 1
- marginal frequencies $f_1 = 3$, $f_2 = 2$

Syntactic cooccurrence

Syntactic cooccurrences of adjectives and nouns

 every instance of the syntactic relation of interest is extracted as a pair token

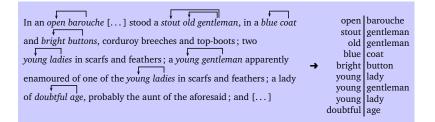
open barouche In an open barouche [...] stood a stout old gentleman, in a blue coat stout gentleman and bright buttons, corduroy breeches and top-boots; two old gentleman blue coat young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a young gentleman apparently bright button young lady enamoured of one of the young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a lady young gentleman of doubtful age, probably the aunt of the aforesaid; and [...] voung lady doubtful age

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Syntactic cooccurrence

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Cooccurrency frequency data for young gentleman:

- coocurrence frequency f = 1
- marginal frequencies $f_1 = f_2 = 3$

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Quantitative measure for attraction between words based on their recurrence coccurrence frequency

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- Quantitative measure for attraction between words based on their recurrence is 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 ≈ 10,000 and *f*₂ ≈ 26,000) that one would also find the bigram 260 times if words in the text were arranged in completely random order

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take expected frequency into account as "baseline"

Statistical model required to bring in notion of "chance cooccurrence" and to adjust for sampling variation

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take expected frequency into account as "baseline"

- Statistical model required to bring in notion of "chance cooccurrence" and to adjust for sampling variation
 - NB: bigrams can be understood either as syntactic cooccurrences (adjacency relation) or as surface cooccurrences (L1, R0 or L0, R1)

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

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cross-classifying factors represent the two events

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 w₁?
 - factor 2: Is second component of pair token an instance of word type w₂?

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Contingency table of observed frequencies

For syntactic cooccurrences

		* W ₂	$* \neg w_2$			* gent.	∗ ¬gent.	
	$w_1 *$	<i>O</i> ₁₁	<i>O</i> ₁₂	$= f_1$	young *	1	2	= 3
	$\neg w_1 *$	<i>O</i> ₂₁	O ₂₂		¬young ∗	2	4	
-		$= f_2$		= N		= 3		= 9

In an open barouche [] stood a stout old gentleman, in a blue coat			barouche
Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î Î		stout	gentleman
and bright buttons, corduroy breeches and top-boots; two		old	gentleman
young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a young gentleman apparently		blue	coat
young ladies in scaris and reathers; a young gentleman apparently	→	bright	button
enamoured of one of the young ladies in scarfs and feathers; a lady		young	
		young	gentleman
of doubtful age, probably the aunt of the aforesaid; and []		young	lady
		doubtful	age

Contingency table of observed frequencies

For textual cooccurrences (sentence windows)

	$w_2 \in S$	$w_2 \not\in S$			over $\in S$	over $\notin S$	1
$w_1 \in S$	<i>O</i> ₁₁	<i>O</i> ₁₂	$= f_1$	hat $\in S$	1	2	= 3
$w_1 \not\in S$	<i>O</i> ₂₁	O ₂₂		hat $\notin S$	1	1	
	$= f_2$		= N		= 2		= 5

A vast deal of coolness and a peculiar degree of judgement, are requisite in catching a \underline{hat} .	hat	_
A man must not be precipitate, or he runs over it;	—	over
he must not rush into the opposite extreme, or he loses it altogether.	—	—
There was a fine gentle wind, and Mr. Pickwick's \underline{hat} rolled sportively before it.	hat	—
The wind puffed, and Mr. Pickwick puffed, and the <u>hat</u> rolled over and over as merrily as a lively porpoise in a strong tide ;	hat	over

Contingency table of observed frequencies

For surface cooccurrences (L4, R4)

	w_2	$\neg w_2$			roll	¬roll	
near(w1)	<i>O</i> ₁₁	<i>O</i> ₁₂	$pprox k \cdot f_1$	near(hat)	2	18	= 20
\neg near(w ₁)	<i>O</i> ₂₁	O ₂₂		<i>¬ near</i> (hat)	1	87	
	$= f_2$		$= N - f_1$		= 3		= 108

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More details: Section 5.1 of Evert, S. (2008, in press). Corpora and collocations. In A. Lüdeling and M. Kytö (eds.), *Corpus Linguistics. An International Handbook*, article 57. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin.

Measuring association in contingency tables

A) Measures of significance

- apply statistical hypothesis test with null hypothesis H₀: 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

 \mathbb{R} amount of evidence for association between w_1 and w_2

B) Measures of effect-size

- compare observed frequencies O_{ij} to expected frequencies E_{ij} under H₀ (⇔ later)
- or estimate conditional prob. $Pr(w_2 | w_1)$, $Pr(w_1 | w_2)$, etc.
- maximum-likelihood estimates or confidence intervals

strength of the attraction between w_1 and w_2

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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:
 - $O_{11} = 9, \, O_{12} = 47, \, O_{21} = 82, \, O_{22} = 956$

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► E.g. for the following observed frequencies: O₁₁ = 9, O₁₂ = 47, O₂₁ = 82, O₂₂ = 956

construct matrix from row (or column) vectors > A <- rbind(c(10,47), c(82,956))</pre>

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
> fisher.test(A)

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Interpreting hypothesis tests as association scores

- Establishing significance
 - p-value = probability of observed (or more "extreme") contingency table if H₀ is true
 - theory: H₀ can be rejected if p-value is below accepted significance level (commonly .05, .01 or .001)

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practice: nearly all word pairs are highly significant

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 - 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 X², but not by p-value
- Fisher's test: transform p-value, e.g. log₁₀ p

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 - satisfied by test statistic X², but not by p-value
 - Fisher's test: transform p-value, e.g. log₁₀ p
- Odds ratio as measure of effect size
 - Fisher's test also provides estimate for odds ratio θ, an effect-size measure for association strength
 - log odds ratio log θ 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

chi-squared statistic X^2 as association score

> chisq.test(A)\$statistic

p-value of Fisher's test and corresponding association score

- > fisher.test(A)\$p.value
- > -log10(fisher.test(A)\$p.value)

NB: chi-squared and Fisher scores are not on same scale

log odds ratio and conservative estimate

- > log(fisher.test(A)\$estimate)
- > log(fisher.test(A)\$conf.int[1])

> str(fisher.test(A)) # or read help page carefully

Association scores from hypothesis tests

define two further (invented) contingency tables

- > B1 <- rbind(c(16,84), c(84,816))
- > B2 <- rbind(c(1,99), c(99,801))

calculate chi-squared and Fisher scores for the two tables,# as well as estimates for their log odds ratios

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Do the results look plausible to you? What is wrong?

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")

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 - 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 H₀ that there is greater than chance cooccurrence, not in the alternative of less than chance cooccurrence
- > fisher.test(B1, alternative="greater")
 # high scores (significance and log odds ratio)
- > fisher.test(B2, alternative="greater")
- # low scores (significance and log odds ratio)

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Quantifying the attraction between words

Contingency tables Contingency tables and hypothesis tests in R Practice session

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Practice: bigrams in the Brown corpus

- ► Data set of bigrams with *f* ≥ 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)
 - O11 = observed cooccurrence frequency O₁₁
 - O12 = observed frequency O₁₂
 - O21 = observed frequency O₂₁
 - O22 = observed frequency O₂₂

Practice: bigrams in the Brown corpus

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

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?