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Counting Words: Introduction

Marco Baroni & Stefan Evert

Málaga, 7 August 2006



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▶ Introduction and motivation

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- ▶ Introduction and motivation
- ▶ LNRE modeling: soft

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- ▶ Introduction and motivation
- ▶ LNRE modeling: soft
- ▶ LNRE modeling: hard



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- ▶ Introduction and motivation
- ▶ LNRE modeling: soft
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- ▶ Playtime!



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- ▶ LNRE modeling: soft
- ▶ LNRE modeling: hard
- ▶ Playtime!
- ▶ The bad news and outlook



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Lexical statistics

Zipf 1949/1961, Baayen 2001, Evert 2005

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- ▶ Statistical study of distribution of **types** (words and other units) in texts
- ▶ Different from other categorical data because of extreme richness of types



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- ▶ N : sample/corpus size, number of **tokens** in the sample

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- ▶ N : sample/corpus size, number of **tokens** in the sample
- ▶ V : vocabulary size, number of distinct **types** in the sample



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- ▶ N : sample/corpus size, number of **tokens** in the sample
- ▶ V : vocabulary size, number of distinct **types** in the sample
- ▶ V_m : type count of **spectrum element** m , number of types in the sample with token frequency m



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- ▶ V_m : type count of **spectrum element** m , number of types in the sample with token frequency m
- ▶ V_1 : **hapax legomena** count, number of types that occur only once in the sample (for hapaxes, $\text{Count}(\mathbf{types}) = \text{Count}(\mathbf{tokens})$)



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- ▶ A sample: a b b c a a b a



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- ▶ A sample: a b b c a a b a
- ▶ N : 8; V : 3; V_1 : 1



Rank/frequency profile

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► The sample: a b b c a a b a d

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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a d
- ▶ Frequency list ordered by decreasing frequency

<i>t</i>	<i>f</i>
a	4
b	3
c	1
d	1



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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a d
- ▶ Frequency list ordered by decreasing frequency

t	f
a	4
b	3
c	1
d	1

- ▶ Replace type labels with ranks to obtain rank/frequency profile:

r	f
1	4
2	3
3	1
4	1



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- ▶ Frequency list ordered by decreasing frequency

<i>t</i>	<i>f</i>
a	4
b	3
c	1
d	1

- ▶ Replace type labels with ranks to obtain rank/frequency profile:

<i>r</i>	<i>f</i>
1	4
2	3
3	1
4	1

- ▶ Allows expression of frequency in function of rank of type



Rank/frequency profile of Brown corpus

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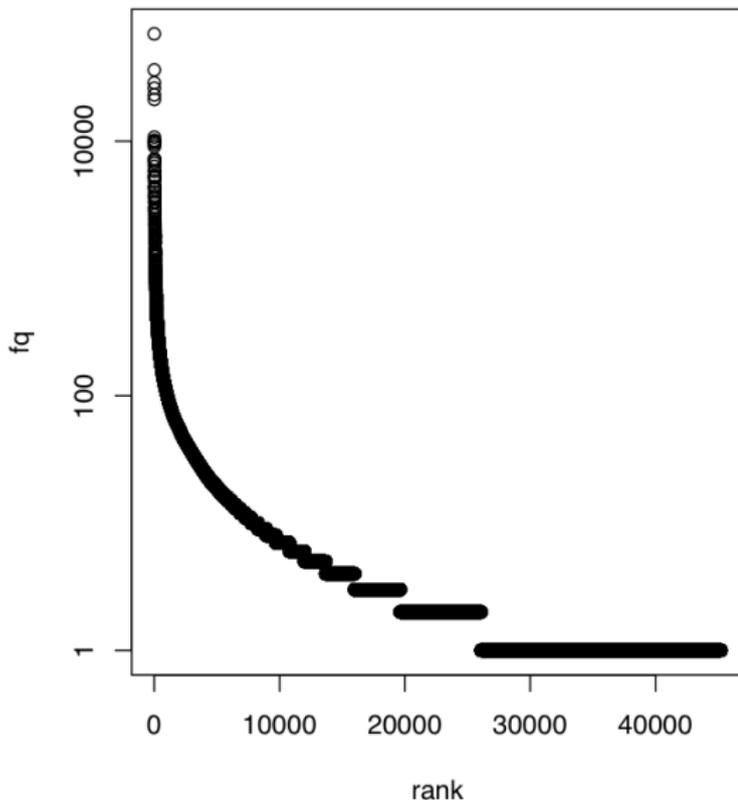
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Frequency spectrum

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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a d
- ▶ Frequency classes: 1 (c, d), 3 (b), 4 (a)



Frequency spectrum

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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a d
- ▶ Frequency classes: 1 (c, d), 3 (b), 4 (a)
- ▶ Frequency spectrum:

m	V_m
1	2
3	1
4	1



Rank/frequency profiles and frequency spectra

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- ▶ From rank/frequency profile to spectrum: count occurrences of each f in profile to obtain V_f values of corresponding spectrum elements
- ▶ From spectrum to rank/frequency profile: given highest f (i.e., m) in a spectrum, the ranks 1 to V_f in the corresponding rank/frequency profile will have frequency f , the ranks $V_f + 1$ to $V_f + V_g$ (where g is the second highest frequency in the spectrum) will have frequency g , etc.



Frequency spectrum of Brown corpus

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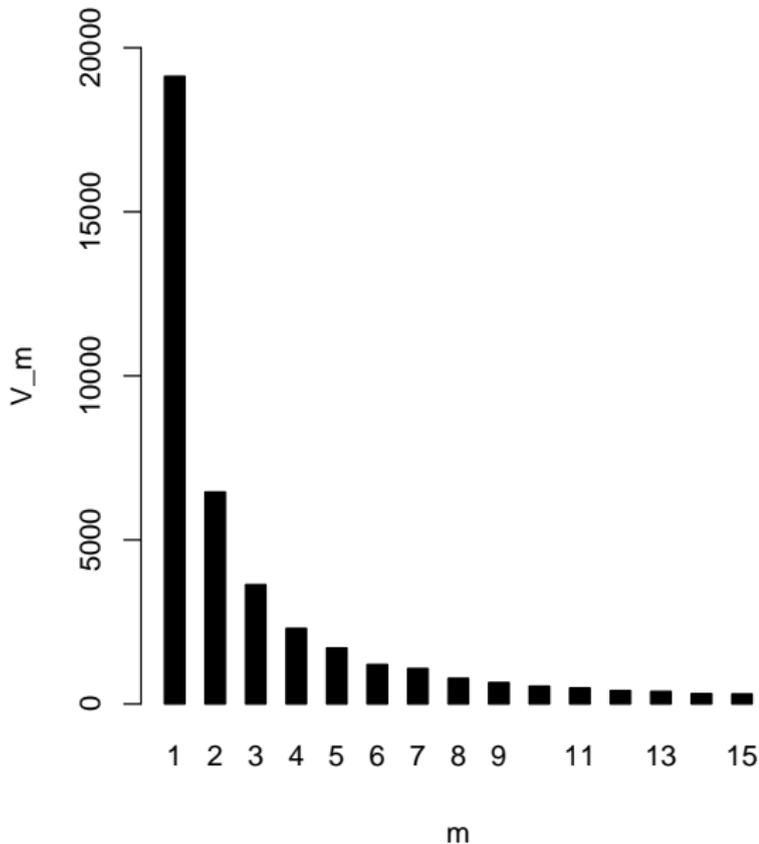
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Vocabulary growth curve

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▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a

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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a
- ▶ $N: 1, V: 1, V_1: 1$



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- ▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a
- ▶ N : 1, V : 1, V_1 : 1
- ▶ N : 3, V : 2, V_1 : 1



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▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a

▶ N : 1, V : 1, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 3, V : 2, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 5, V : 3, V_1 : 1



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▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a

▶ N : 1, V : 1, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 3, V : 2, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 5, V : 3, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 8, V : 3, V_1 : 1



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▶ The sample: a b b c a a b a

▶ N : 1, V : 1, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 3, V : 2, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 5, V : 3, V_1 : 1

▶ N : 8, V : 3, V_1 : 1

▶ (Most VGCs on our slides smoothed with **binomial interpolation**)



Vocabulary growth curve of Brown corpus

With V_1 growth in red

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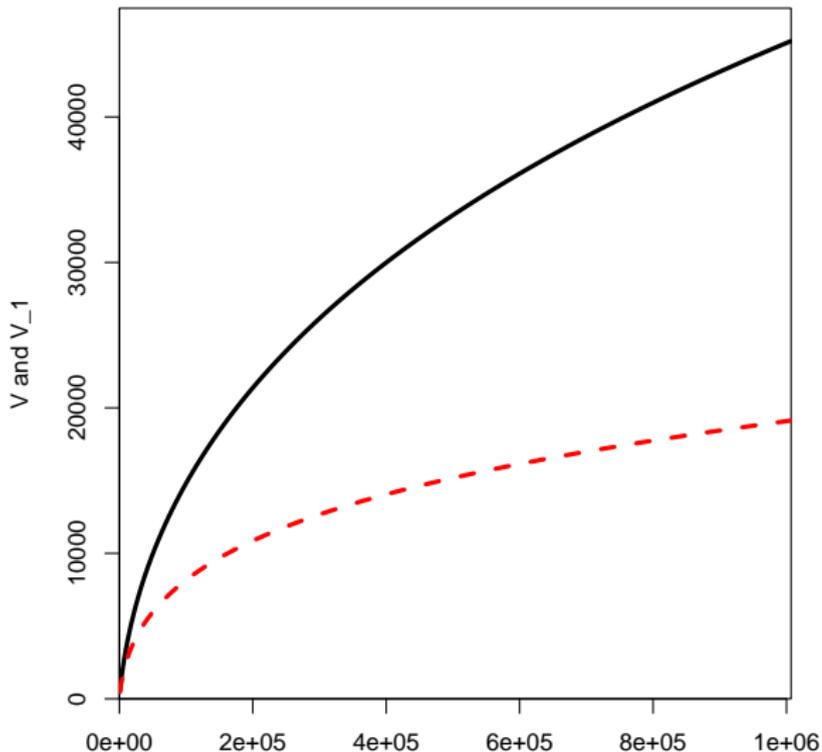
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Top and bottom ranks in the Brown corpus

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top frequencies			bottom frequencies		
rank	fq	word	rank range	fq	randomly selected examples
1	62642	the	7967-8522	10	recordings undergone privileges
2	35971	of	8523-9236	9	Leonard indulge creativity
3	27831	and	9237-10042	8	unnatural Lolotte authenticity
4	25608	to	10043-11185	7	diffraction Augusta postpone
5	21883	a	11186-12510	6	uniformly throttle agglutinin
6	19474	in	12511-14369	5	Bud Councilman immoral
7	10292	that	14370-16938	4	verification gleamed groin
8	10026	is	16939-21076	3	Princes nonspecifically Arger
9	9887	was	21077-28701	2	blitz pertinence arson
10	8811	for	28702-53076	1	Salaries Evensen parentheses



Typical frequency patterns

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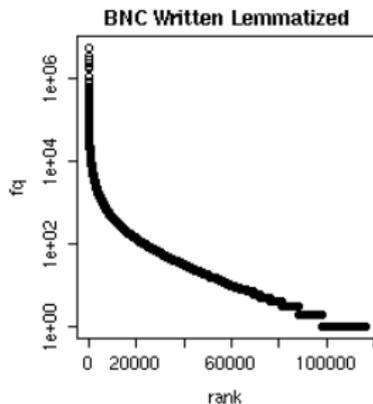
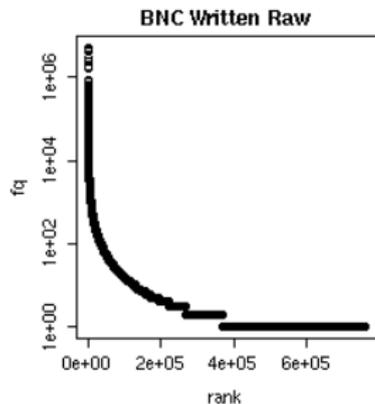
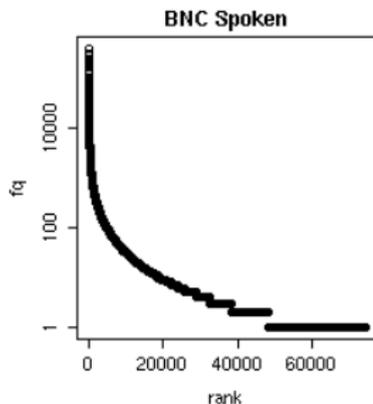
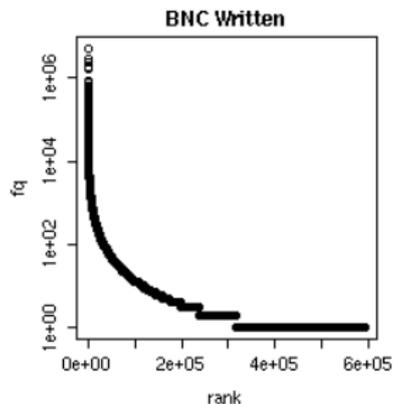
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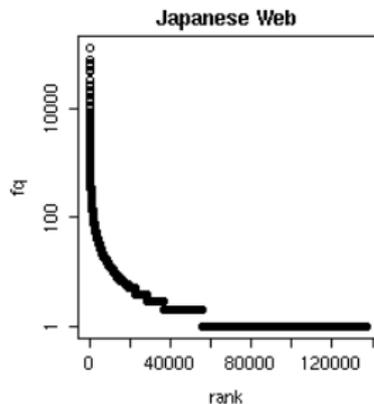
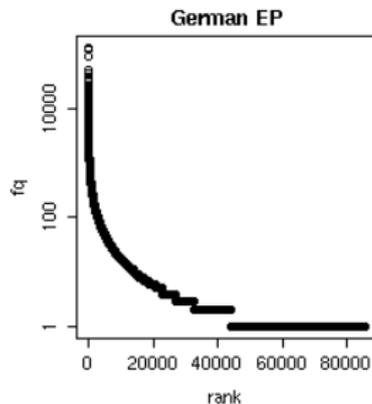
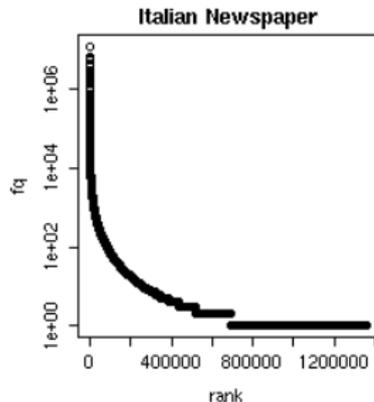
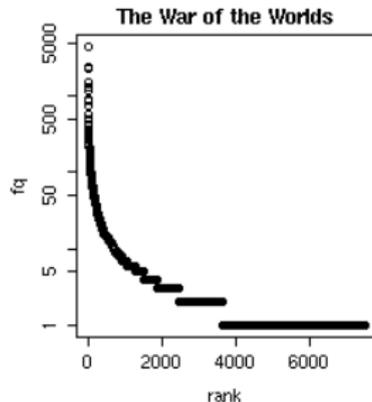
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Brown bigrams and trigrams

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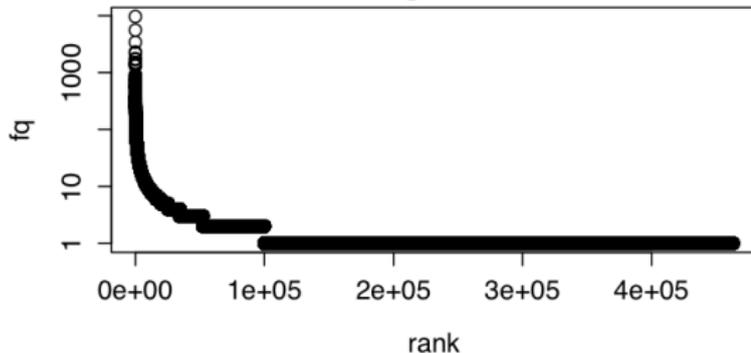
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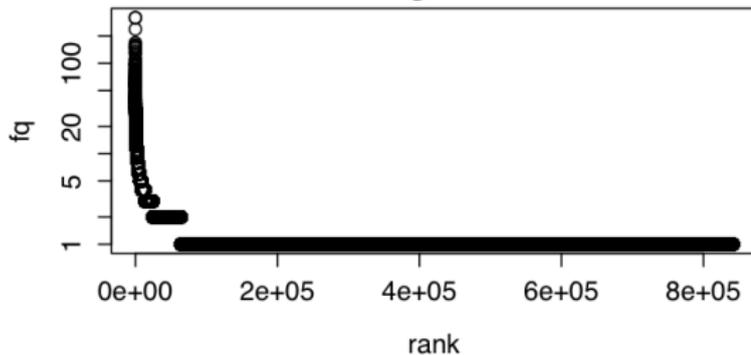
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Trigrams





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The Italian prefix *ri-* in the *la Repubblica* corpus

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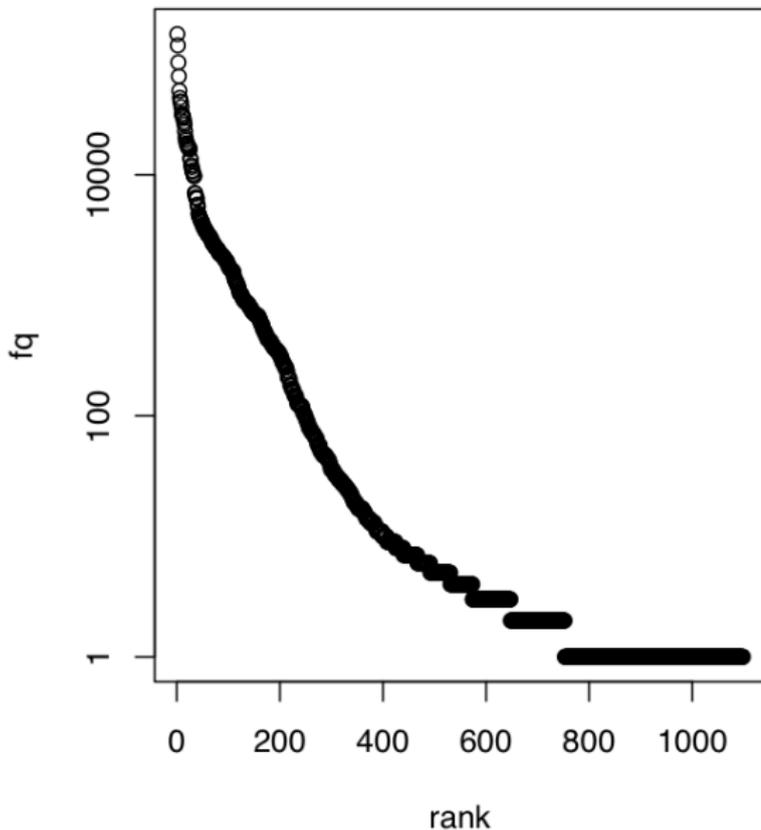
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- ▶ Language after language, corpus after corpus, linguistic type after linguistic type. . .



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- ▶ Language after language, corpus after corpus, linguistic type after linguistic type. . .
- ▶ same “few giants, many dwarves” pattern is encountered



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- ▶ same “few giants, many dwarves” pattern is encountered
- ▶ Similarity of plots suggests that relation between rank and frequency could be captured by a law



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- ▶ same “few giants, many dwarves” pattern is encountered
- ▶ Similarity of plots suggests that relation between rank and frequency could be captured by a law
- ▶ Nature of relation becomes clearer if we plot $\log f$ in function of $\log r$



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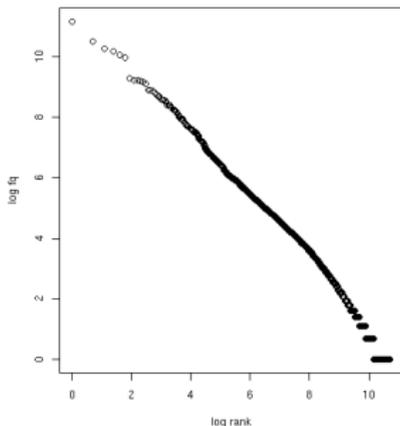
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- ▶ Straight line in double-logarithmic space corresponds to **power law** for original variables



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- ▶ Straight line in double-logarithmic space corresponds to **power law** for original variables
- ▶ This leads to Zipf's (1949, 1965) famous law:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{r(w)^a}$$



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- ▶ Straight line in double-logarithmic space corresponds to **power law** for original variables
- ▶ This leads to Zipf's (1949, 1965) famous law:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{r(w)^a}$$

- ▶ With $a = 1$ and $C = 60,000$, Zipf's law predicts that most frequent word has frequency 60,000; second most frequent word has frequency 30,000; third word has frequency 20,000. . .



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- ▶ With $a = 1$ and $C = 60,000$, Zipf's law predicts that most frequent word has frequency 60,000; second most frequent word has frequency 30,000; third word has frequency 20,000. . .
- ▶ and long tail of 80,000 words with frequency between 1.5 and 0.5



Zipf's law

Logarithmic version

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► Zipf's power law:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{r(w)^a}$$



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► Zipf's power law:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{r(w)^a}$$

► If we take logarithm of both sides, we obtain:

$$\log f(w) = \log C - a \log r(w)$$



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Logarithmic version

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- ▶ I.e., Zipf's law predicts that rank/frequency profiles are straight lines in double logarithmic space, which, we saw, is a reasonable approximation
- ▶ Best fit a and C can be found with least squares method
- ▶ Provides intuitive interpretation of a and C :
 - ▶ a is **slope** determining how fast log frequency decreases with log rank
 - ▶ $\log C$ is **intercept**, i.e., predicted log frequency of word with rank 1 (log rank 0), i.e., most frequent word



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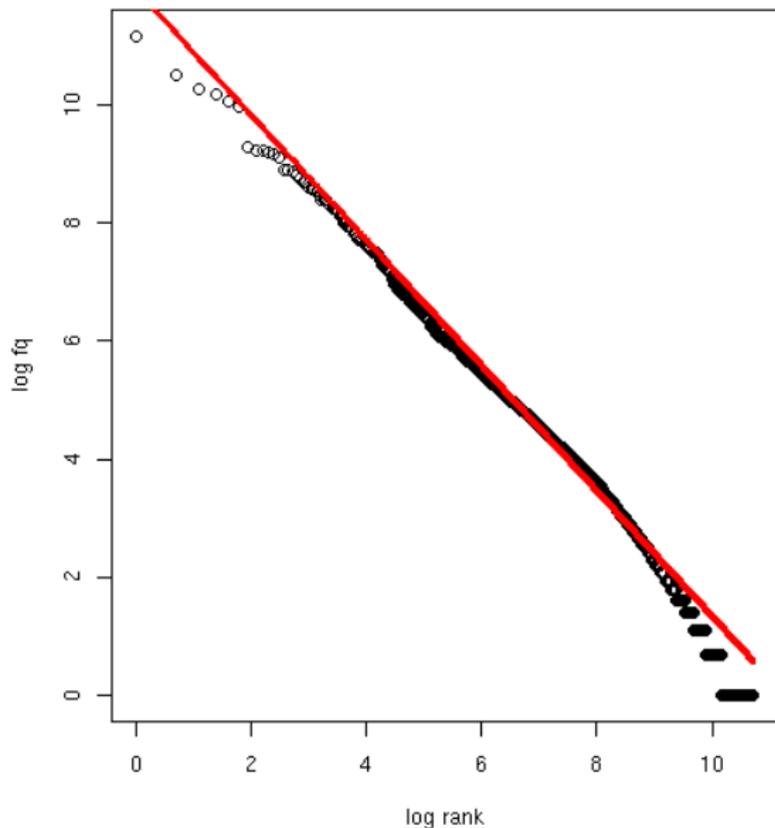
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- ▶ At right edge (low frequencies):

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- ▶ At right edge (low frequencies):
 - ▶ “Bell-bottom” pattern expected as we are fitting continuous model to discrete frequencies



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- ▶ At right edge (low frequencies):
 - ▶ “Bell-bottom” pattern expected as we are fitting continuous model to discrete frequencies
 - ▶ More worryingly, in large corpora frequency drops more rapidly than predicted by Zipf's law



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- ▶ At right edge (low frequencies):
 - ▶ “Bell-bottom” pattern expected as we are fitting continuous model to discrete frequencies
 - ▶ More worryingly, in large corpora frequency drops more rapidly than predicted by Zipf's law
- ▶ At left edge (high frequencies):



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 - ▶ “Bell-bottom” pattern expected as we are fitting continuous model to discrete frequencies
 - ▶ More worryingly, in large corpora frequency drops more rapidly than predicted by Zipf's law
- ▶ At left edge (high frequencies):
 - ▶ Highest frequencies lower than predicted



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- ▶ At right edge (low frequencies):
 - ▶ “Bell-bottom” pattern expected as we are fitting continuous model to discrete frequencies
 - ▶ More worryingly, in large corpora frequency drops more rapidly than predicted by Zipf's law
- ▶ At left edge (high frequencies):
 - ▶ Highest frequencies lower than predicted → Mandelbrot's correction



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- ▶ Mandelbrot's extra parameter:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{(r(w) + b)^a}$$



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- ▶ Mandelbrot's extra parameter:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{(r(w) + b)^a}$$

- ▶ Zipf's law is special case with $b = 0$



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- ▶ Mandelbrot's extra parameter:

$$f(w) = \frac{C}{(r(w) + b)^a}$$

- ▶ Zipf's law is special case with $b = 0$
- ▶ Assuming $a = 1$, $C = 60,000$, $b = 1$:
 - ▶ For word with rank 1, Zipf's law predicts frequency of 60,000; Mandelbrot's variation predicts frequency of 30,000
 - ▶ For word with rank 1,000, Zipf's law predicts frequency of 60; Mandelbrot's variation predicts frequency of 59.94



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- ▶ No longer a straight line in double logarithmic space; finding best fit harder than least squares
- ▶ Zipf-Mandelbrot's law is basis of LNRE statistical models we will introduce



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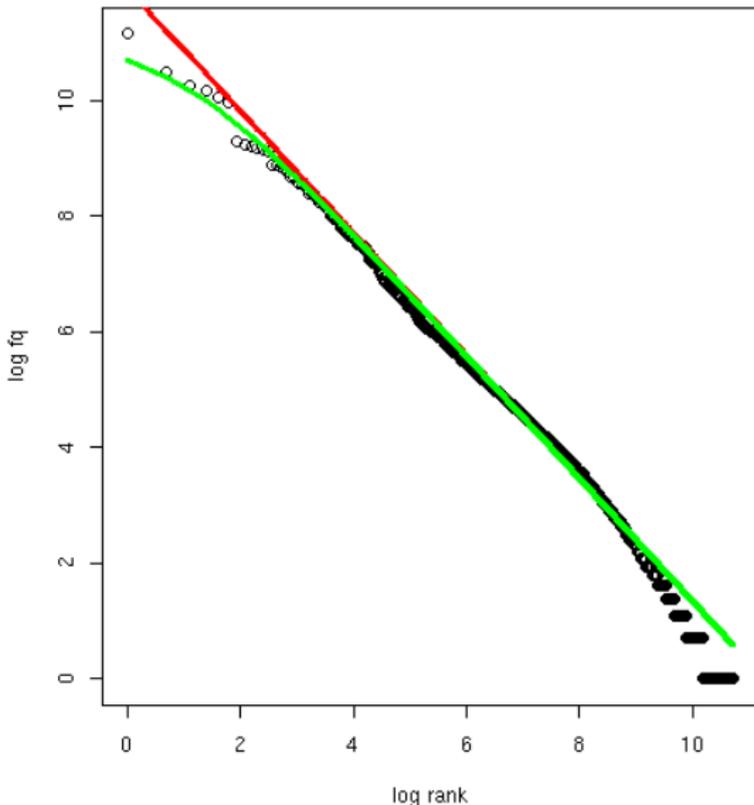
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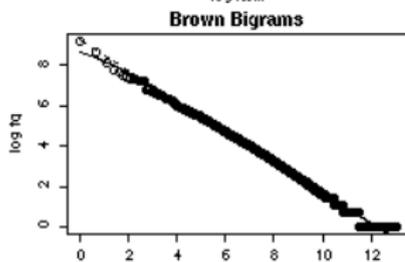
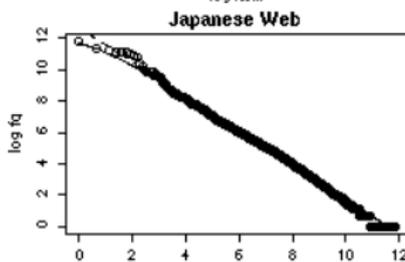
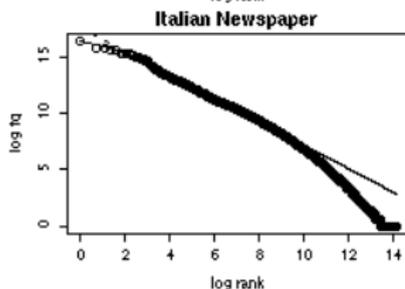
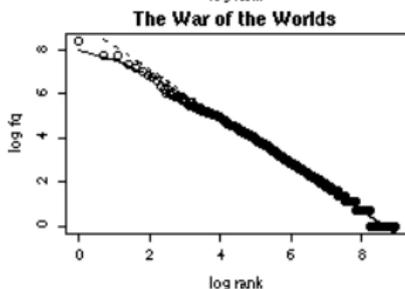
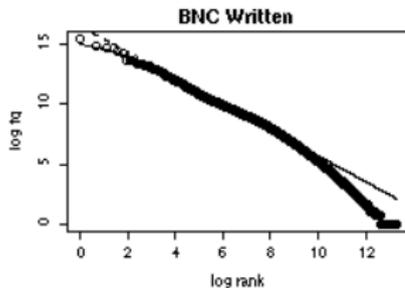
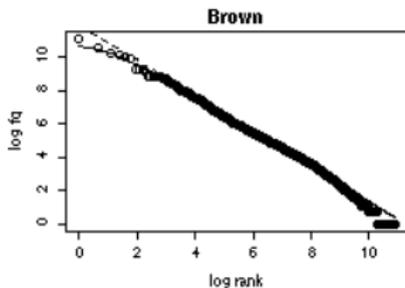
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- ▶ a is often close to 1 for word frequency distributions (hence simplified version: $f = C/r$, and -1 slope in log-log space)



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- ▶ a is often close to 1 for word frequency distributions (hence simplified version: $f = C/r$, and -1 slope in log-log space)
- ▶ Zipf's law also provides good fit to frequency spectra



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- ▶ a is often close to 1 for word frequency distributions (hence simplified version: $f = C/r$, and -1 slope in log-log space)
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- ▶ Monkey languages display Zipf's law (intuition: few short words have very high chances to be generated; long tail of highly unlikely long words)



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- ▶ Zipf's law also provides good fit to frequency spectra
- ▶ Monkey languages display Zipf's law (intuition: few short words have very high chances to be generated; long tail of highly unlikely long words)
- ▶ Zipf's law is everywhere (Li 2002)



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▶ Data sparseness

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- ▶ Data sparseness
- ▶ Standard statistics, normal approximation not appropriate for lexical type distributions



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- ▶ Data sparseness
- ▶ Standard statistics, normal approximation not appropriate for lexical type distributions
- ▶ V is not stable, will grow with sample size, we need special methods to estimate V and related quantities at arbitrary sizes (including V of whole type population)



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V, sample size and the Zipfian distribution

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- ▶ Significant tail of hapax legomena indicates that chances of encountering new type if we keep sampling are high
- ▶ Zipfian distribution implies vocabulary curve that is still growing at largest sample size



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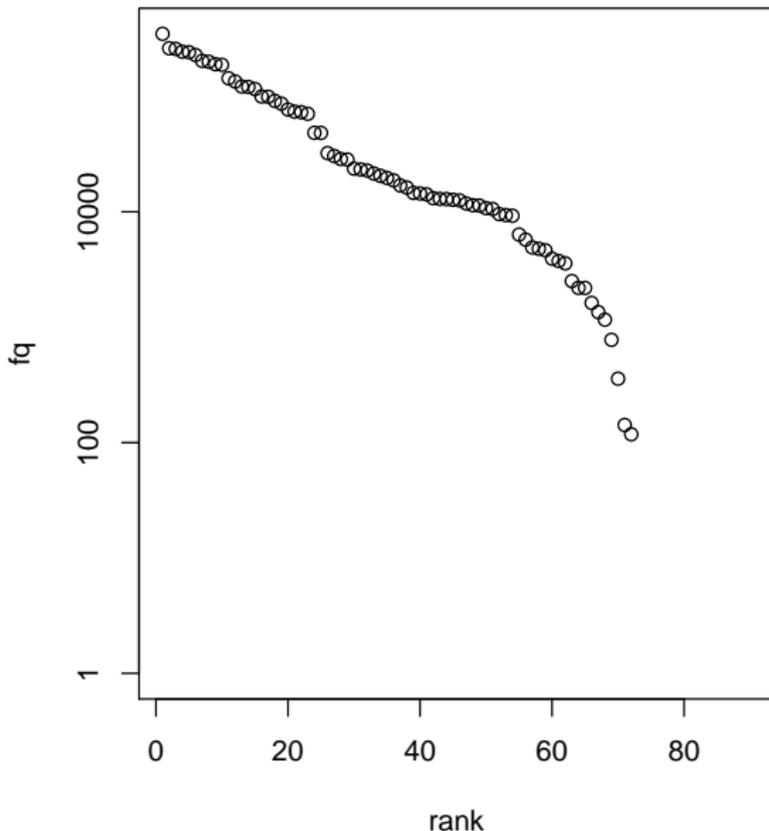
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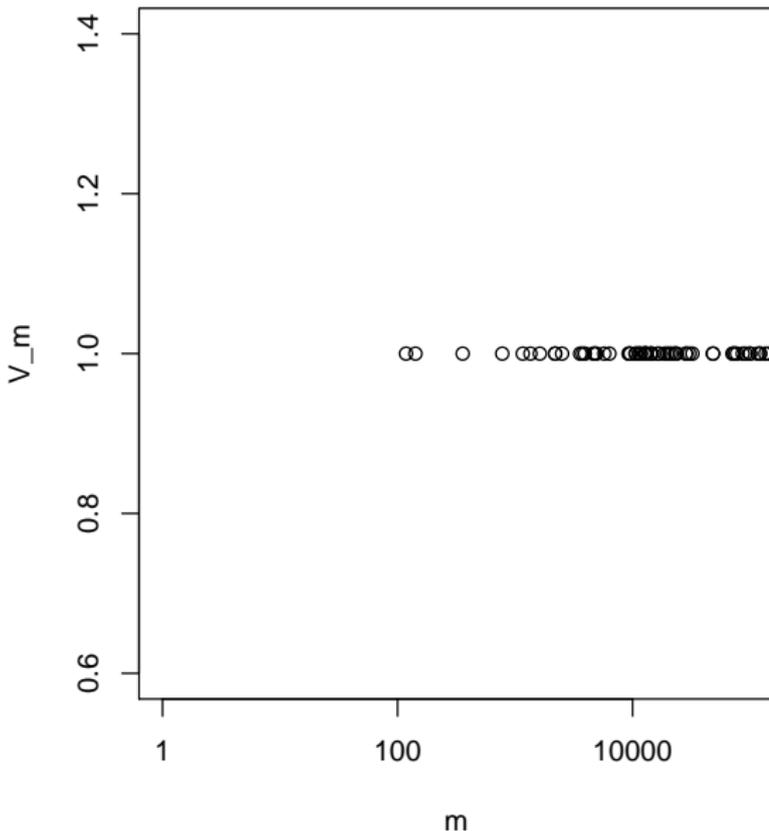
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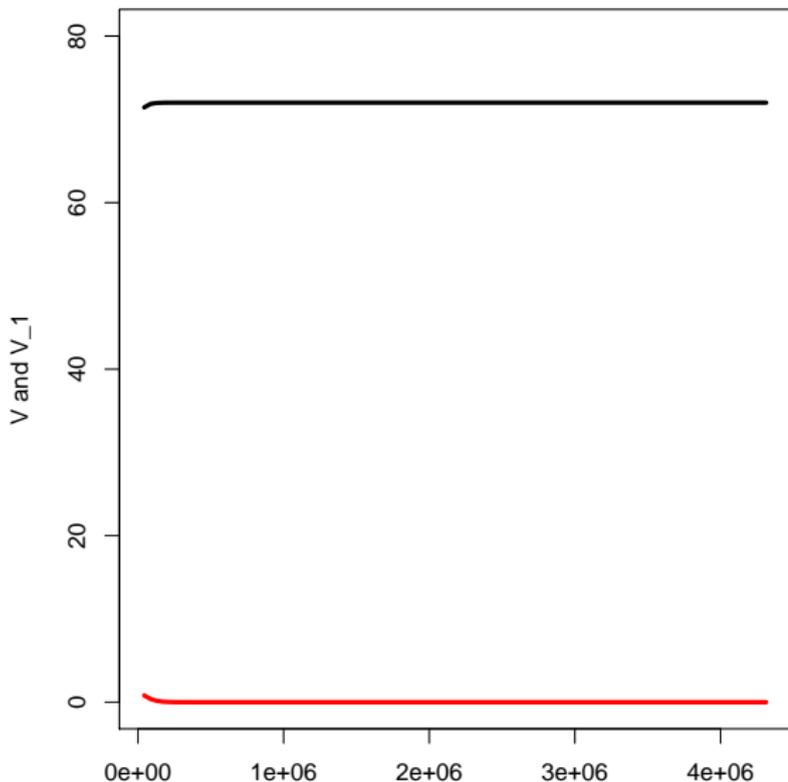
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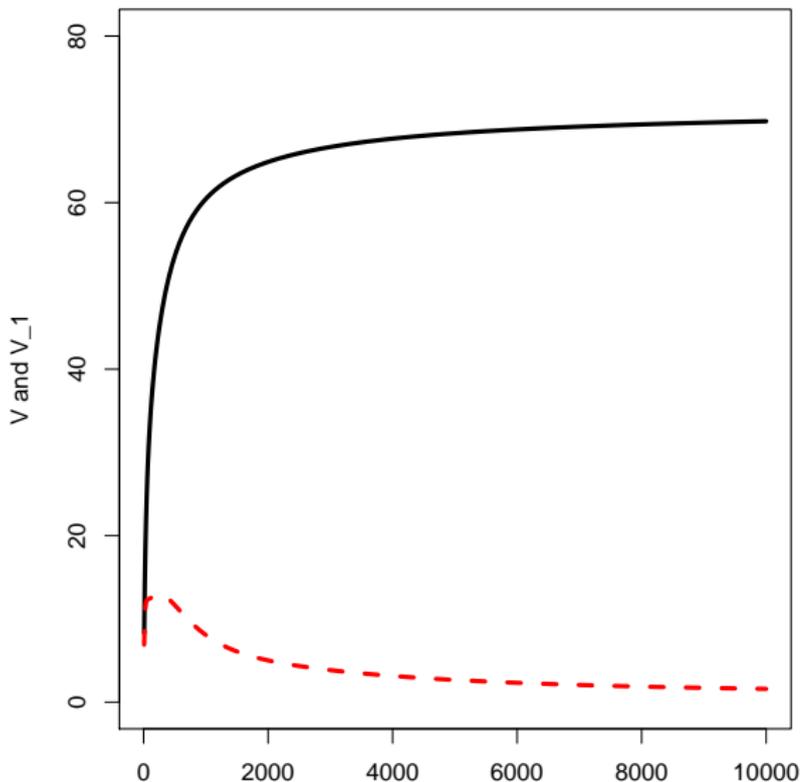
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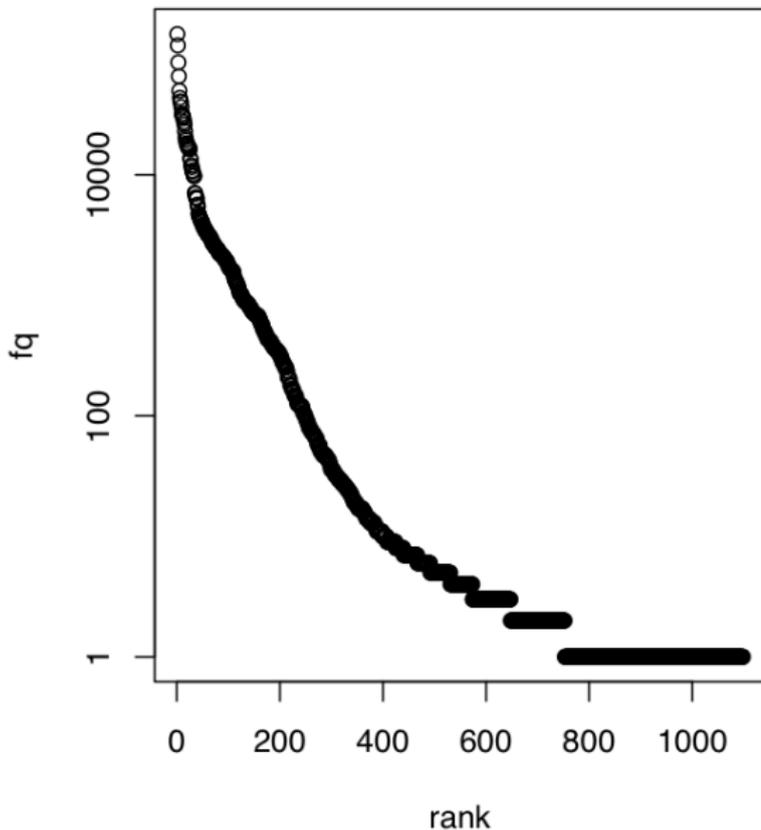
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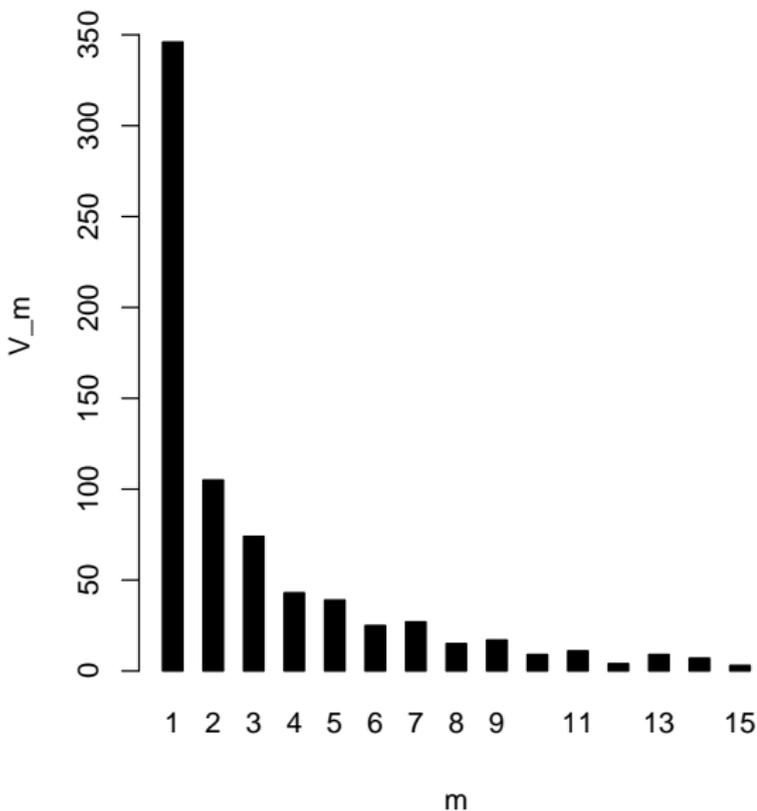
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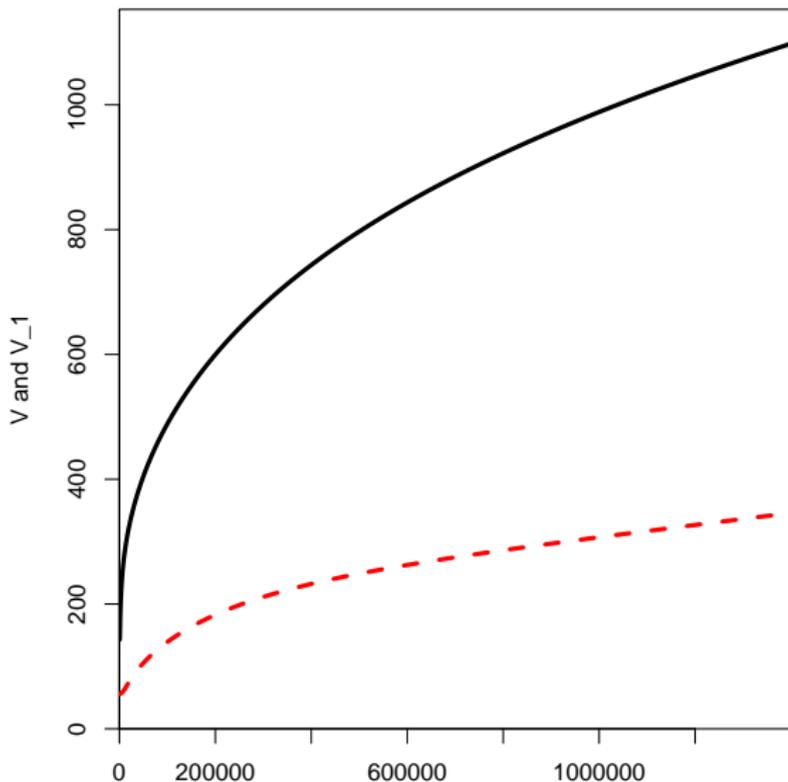
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- ▶ Productivity (in morphology and elsewhere)
- ▶ Lexical richness (in stylometry, language acquisition/pathology and elsewhere)
- ▶ Extrapolation of type counts and type frequency distribution for practical NLP purposes (e.g., estimating proportion of OOV words, typos, etc.)
- ▶ ... (e.g., Good-Turing smoothing, prior distribution for Bayesian language modeling)



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- ▶ In many linguistic problems, rate of growth of VGC is interesting issue in itself
- ▶ Baayen (1989 and later) makes link between linguistic notion of productivity and vocabulary growth rate



Productivity in morphology: the classic definition

Schultink (1961), translated by Booij

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Productivity as morphological phenomenon is the possibility which language users have to form an in principle uncountable number of new words unintentionally, by means of a morphological process which is the basis of the form-meaning correspondence of some words they know.



V as a measure of productivity

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- ▶ Comparable for same N only!

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- ▶ Comparable for same N only!
- ▶ Good first approximation, but it is measuring attestedness, not potential:



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- ▶ Comparable for same N only!
- ▶ Good first approximation, but it is measuring attestedness, not potential:
 - ▶ (According to rough BNC counts) *de-* verbs have V of 141, *un-* verbs have V of 119, contra our intuition



V as a measure of productivity

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- ▶ Comparable for same N only!
- ▶ Good first approximation, but it is measuring attestedness, not potential:
 - ▶ (According to rough BNC counts) *de-* verbs have V of 141, *un-* verbs have V of 119, contra our intuition
 - ▶ We want productivity index of pronouns to be 0, not 72!



Baayen's \mathcal{P}

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- ▶ Operationalize **productivity** of a process as probability that the next token created by the process that we sample is a new word
- ▶ This is same as probability that next token in sample is hapax legomenon
- ▶ Thus, we can estimate probability of sampling a new word as relative frequency of hapax legomena in our sample:

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{V_1}{N}$$



Baayen's \mathcal{P}

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$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{V_1}{N}$$

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- ▶ Probability to sample token representing type we will never encounter again (token labeled “hapax”) at first stage of sampling (when we are at the beginning of N -token-sample) is given by the proportion of hapaxes in the whole N -token-sample divided by the total number of tokens in the sample
- ▶ Thus, this must also be probability that *last* token sampled represents new type
- ▶ \mathcal{P} as productivity measure matches intuition that productivity should measure *potential* of process to generate new forms



\mathcal{P} as vocabulary growth rate

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- ▶ \mathcal{P} measures the potentiality of growth of V in a very literal way, i.e., it is the growth rate of V , the rate at which vocabulary size increases
- ▶ \mathcal{P} is (approximation to) the *derivative* of V at N , i.e., the slope of the tangent to the vocabulary growth curve at N (Baayen 2001, pp. 49-50)
- ▶ Again, “rate of growth” of vocabulary generated by word formation process seems good match for intuition about productivity of word formation process



ri- in Italian *la Repubblica* corpus

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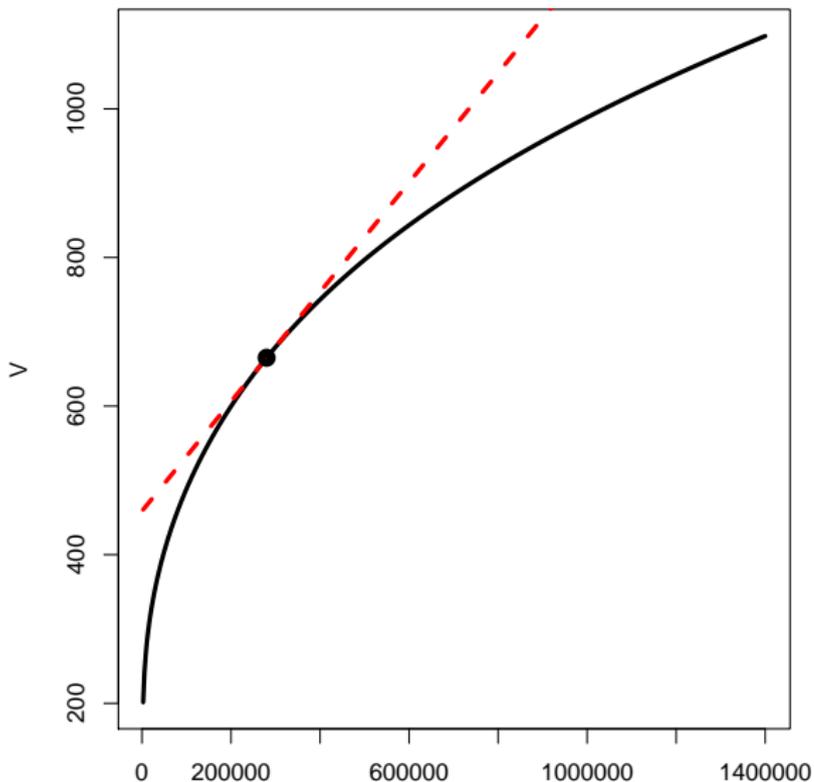
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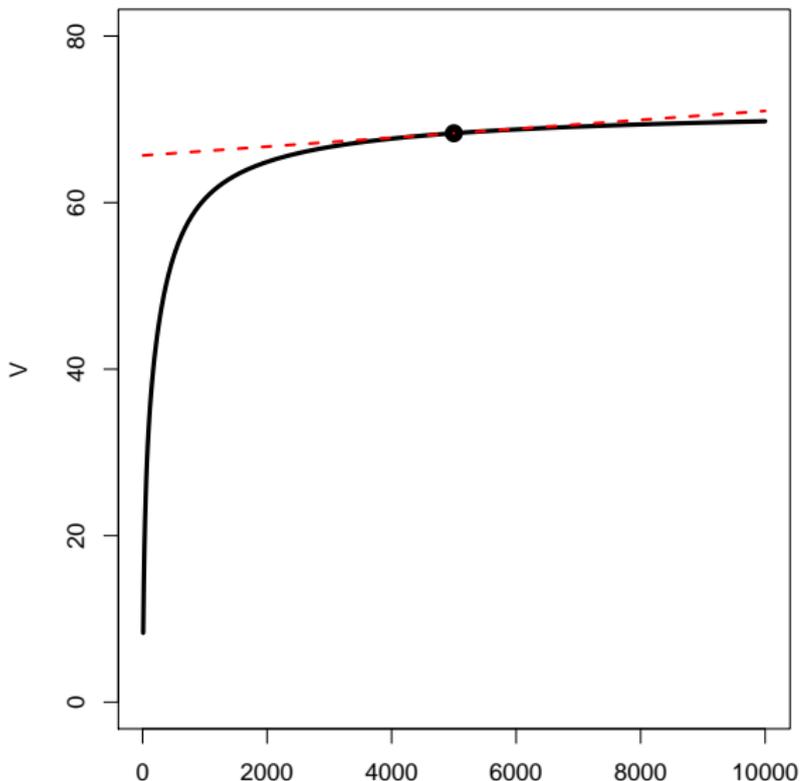
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class	V	V_1	N	\mathcal{P}
it. ri-	1098	346	1,399,898	0.00025
it. pronouns	72	0	4,313,123	0
en. un-	119	25	7,618	.00328
en. de-	141	16	86,130	.000185



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- ▶ We saw that as N increases, V also increases (for at-least-mildly-productive processes)



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- ▶ We saw that as N increases, V also increases (for at-least-mildly-productive processes)
- ▶ Thus, V cannot be compared at different N s



V and N

English *re-* and *mis-*

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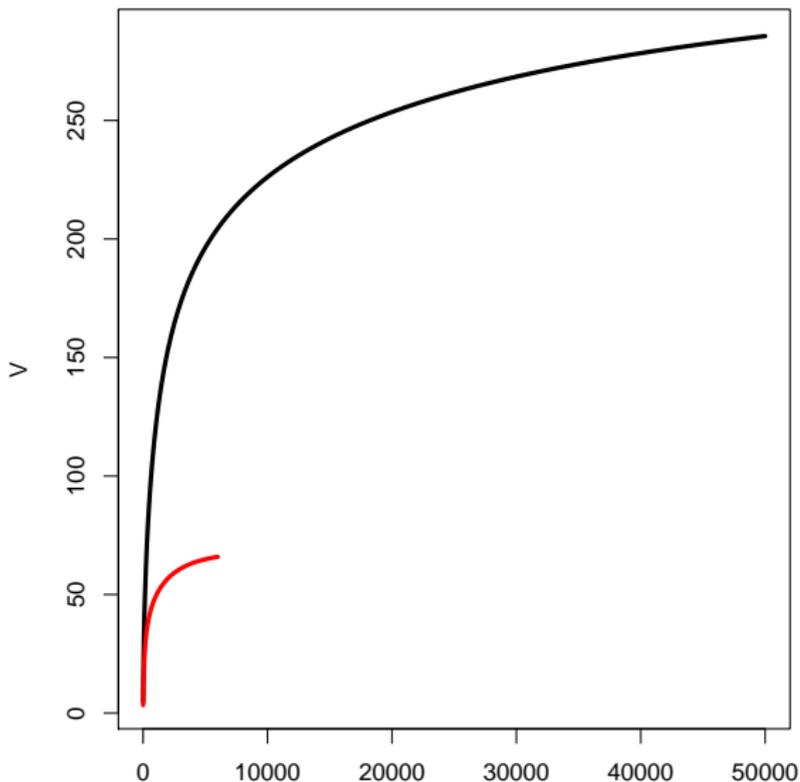
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- ▶ We saw that as N increases, V also increases (for at-least-mildly-productive processes)
- ▶ Thus, V cannot be compared at different N s
- ▶ However, growth rate is also systematically decreasing as N becomes larger



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- ▶ We saw that as N increases, V also increases (for at-least-mildly-productive processes)
- ▶ Thus, V cannot be compared at different N s
- ▶ However, growth rate is also systematically decreasing as N becomes larger
- ▶ At the beginning, any word will be a hapax legomenon; as sample increases, hapaxes will be increasingly lower proportion of sample



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- ▶ We saw that as N increases, V also increases (for at-least-mildly-productive processes)
- ▶ Thus, V cannot be compared at different N s
- ▶ However, growth rate is also systematically decreasing as N becomes larger
- ▶ At the beginning, any word will be a hapax legomenon; as sample increases, hapaxes will be increasingly lower proportion of sample
- ▶ A specific instance of the more general problem of “variable constants” (Tweedie and Baayen 1998) in lexical statistics (cf. type/token ratio)



Growth rate of *re-* at different sample sizes

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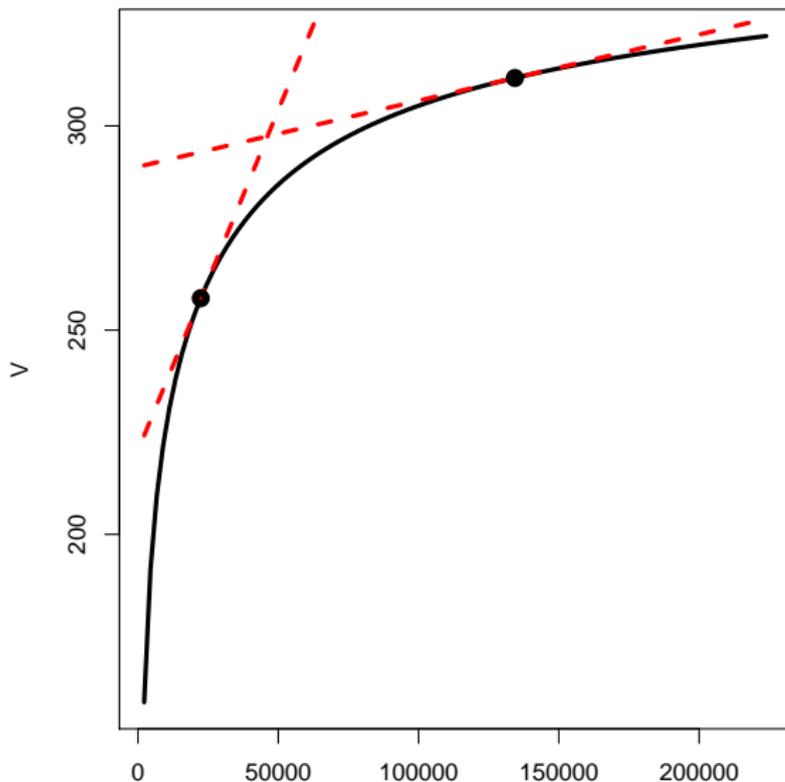
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\mathcal{P} as a function of N (*re-*)

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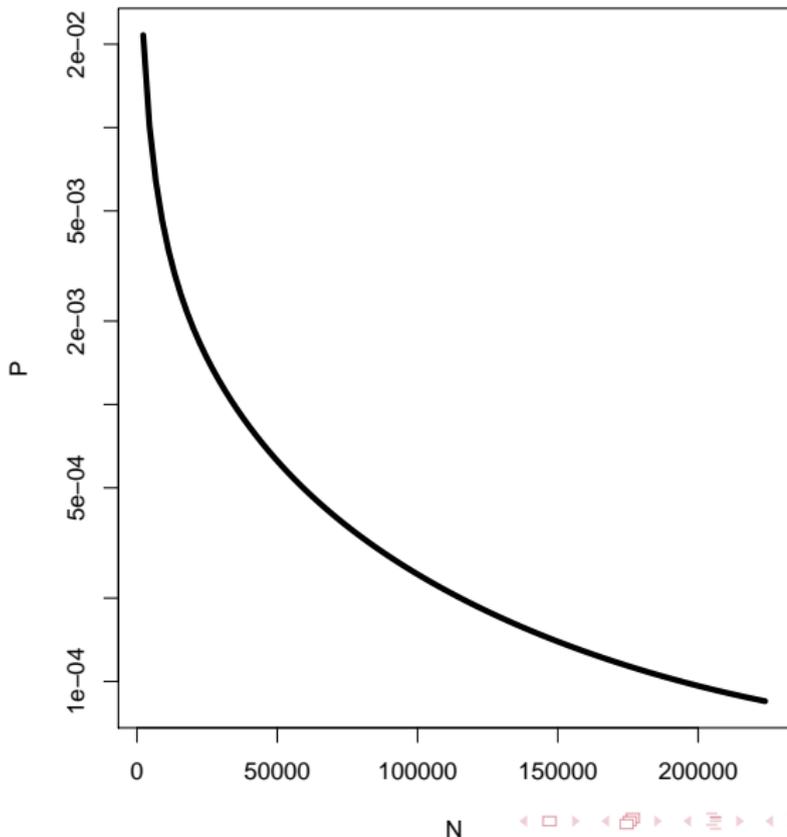
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V and \mathcal{P} at arbitrary N s

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- ▶ In order to compare V and \mathcal{P} of processes (and predict how process will develop in larger samples). . .

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- ▶ In order to compare V and \mathcal{P} of processes (and predict how process will develop in larger samples). . .
- ▶ we need to be able to estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s



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- ▶ In order to compare V and \mathcal{P} of processes (and predict how process will develop in larger samples). . .
- ▶ we need to be able to estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s
- ▶ Once we compare \mathcal{P} at same N , we might as well compare V_1 directly (since $\mathcal{P} = V_1/N$ and N will be constant across compared processes)



V and \mathcal{P} at arbitrary N s

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- ▶ In order to compare V and \mathcal{P} of processes (and predict how process will develop in larger samples). . .
- ▶ we need to be able to estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s
- ▶ Once we compare \mathcal{P} at same N , we might as well compare V_1 directly (since $\mathcal{P} = V_1/N$ and N will be constant across compared processes)
- ▶ Most intuitive: VGC plot comparison



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- ▶ Measuring generative potential of process/category not limited to morphology

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- ▶ Measuring generative potential of process/category not limited to morphology
- ▶ Applications in lexicology, collocation and idiom studies, morphosyntax, syntax, language technology



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- ▶ Measuring generative potential of process/category not limited to morphology
- ▶ Applications in lexicology, collocation and idiom studies, morphosyntax, syntax, language technology
- ▶ E.g., measure growth of nouns, adjectives, loanwords, relative productivity of two constructions, growth of UNKNOWN lemmas as dataset increases. . .



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- ▶ Measuring generative potential of process/category not limited to morphology
- ▶ Applications in lexicology, collocation and idiom studies, morphosyntax, syntax, language technology
- ▶ E.g., measure growth of nouns, adjectives, loanwords, relative productivity of two constructions, growth of UNKNOWN lemmas as dataset increases. . .
- ▶ An example: measuring productivity of NP and PP expansions in German TIGER treebank



TIGER expansions

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- ▶ Types are non-terminal rewrite rules for NP and PP, e.g:
 - ▶ NP → ART ADJA NN
 - ▶ PP → APPR ART NN
- ▶ Frequency of occurrence of expansions collected from about 900,000 tokens (50,000 sentences) of German newspaper text from Frankfurter Rundschau
- ▶ <http://www.ims.uni-stuttgart.de/projekte/TIGER>



NP spectrum

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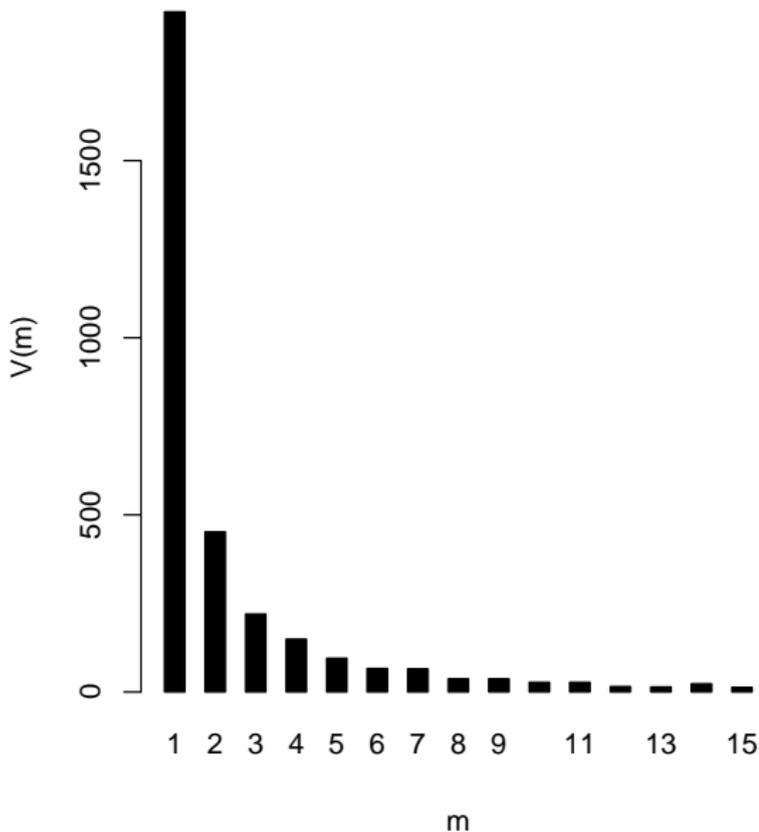
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PP spectrum

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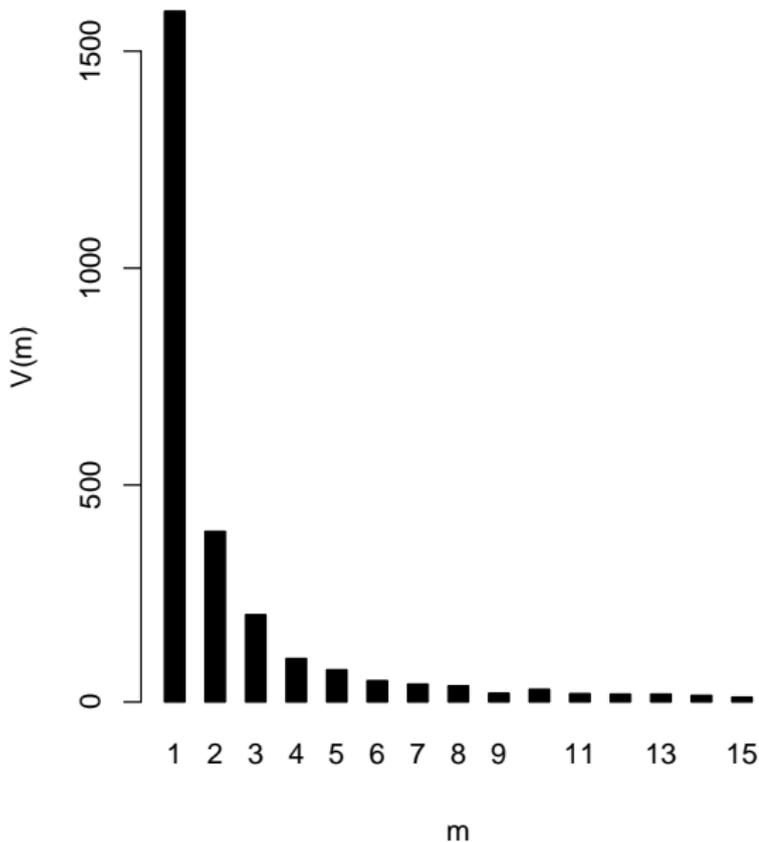
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Growth curves of NP and PP

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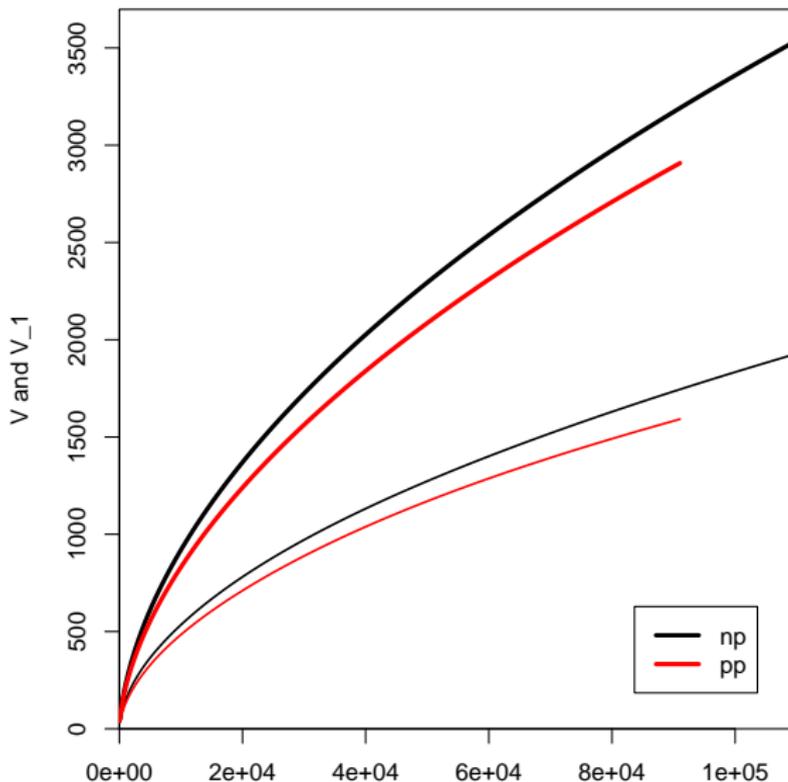
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- ▶ How many words did Shakespeare know? Are the later Harry Potters more lexically diverse than the early ones?



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- ▶ How many words did Shakespeare know? Are the later Harry Potters more lexically diverse than the early ones?
- ▶ Are advanced learners distinguishable from native speakers in terms of vocabulary richness? How many words do 5-year-old children know?



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- ▶ How many words did Shakespeare know? Are the later Harry Potters more lexically diverse than the early ones?
- ▶ Are advanced learners distinguishable from native speakers in terms of vocabulary richness? How many words do 5-year-old children know?
- ▶ Can changes in V detect the onset of Alzheimer's disease? (Garrard et al. 2005)



The Dickens' datasets

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- ▶ Dickens corpus: collection of 14 works by Dickens, about 2.8 million tokens
- ▶ Oliver Twist: early work (1837-1839), about 160k tokens
- ▶ Great Expectations: later work (1860-1861), considered one of Dickens' masterpieces, about 190k tokens
- ▶ Our Mutual Friend: last completed novel (1864-1865), about 330k tokens



Dickens' V

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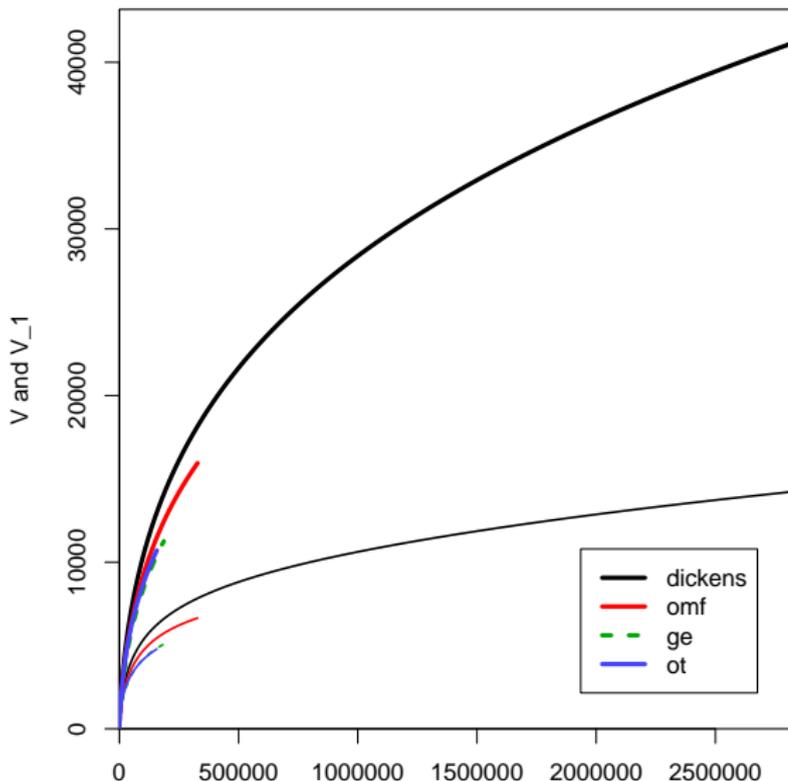
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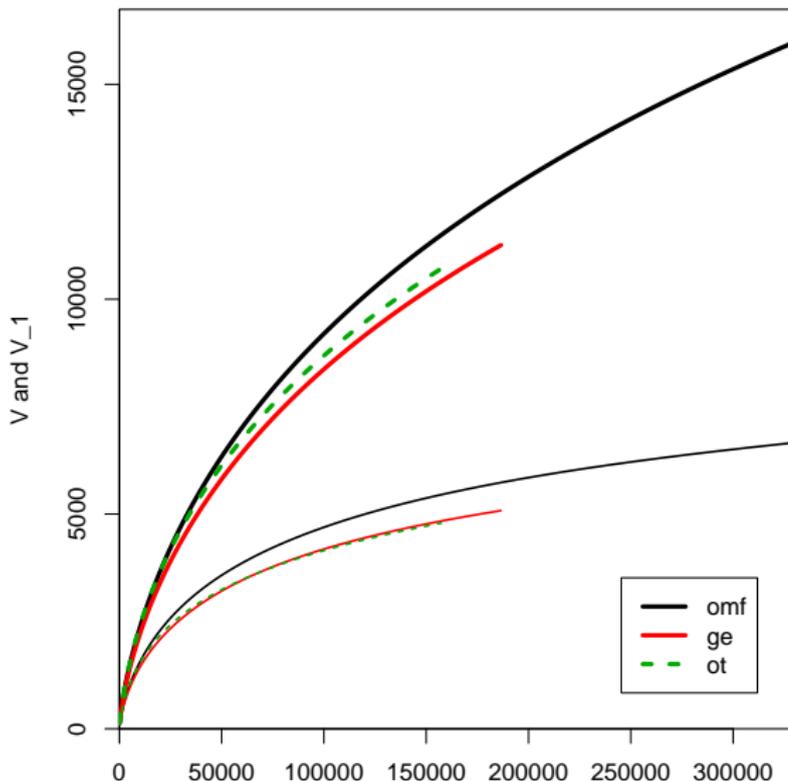
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Oliver vs. Great Expectations

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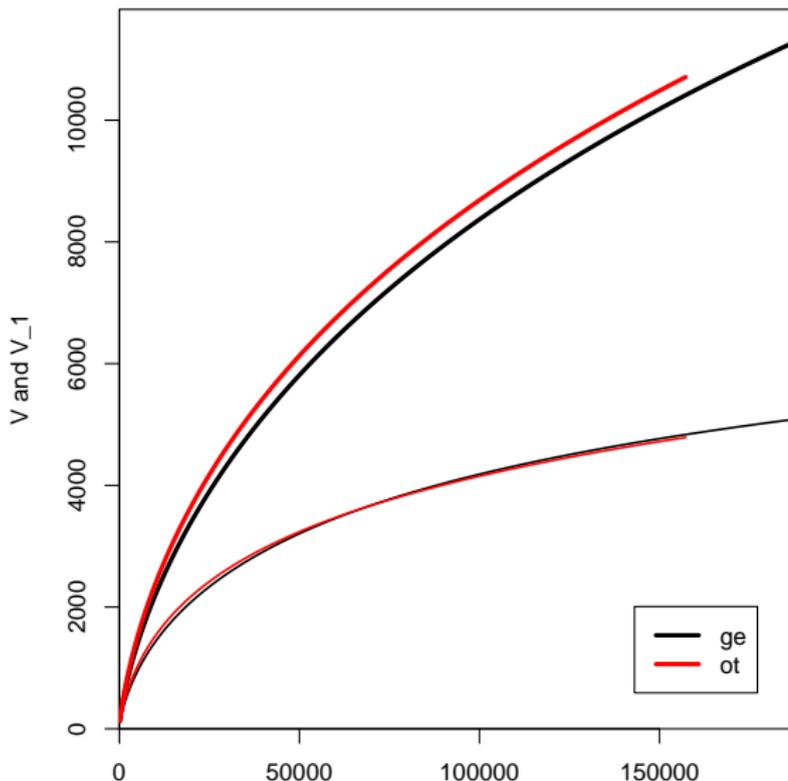
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- ▶ Productivity, lexical richness, extrapolation of type counts for language engineering purposes. . .



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- ▶ Productivity, lexical richness, extrapolation of type counts for language engineering purposes. . .
- ▶ all applications require a model of the larger **population** of types that our sample comes from



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- ▶ Productivity, lexical richness, extrapolation of type counts for language engineering purposes. . .
- ▶ all applications require a model of the larger **population** of types that our sample comes from
- ▶ Two reasons to construct model of type population distribution:



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- ▶ Productivity, lexical richness, extrapolation of type counts for language engineering purposes. . .
- ▶ all applications require a model of the larger **population** of types that our sample comes from
- ▶ Two reasons to construct model of type population distribution:
 - ▶ Population distribution interesting by itself, for theoretical reasons or in NLP applications



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- ▶ Productivity, lexical richness, extrapolation of type counts for language engineering purposes. . .
- ▶ all applications require a model of the larger **population** of types that our sample comes from
- ▶ Two reasons to construct model of type population distribution:
 - ▶ Population distribution interesting by itself, for theoretical reasons or in NLP applications
 - ▶ We know how to simulate sampling from population; thus once we have population model we can obtain estimates of type-related quantities (e.g., V and V_1) at arbitrary N s



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- ▶ Distribution of types of category of interest necessary to estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s, in order to compare VGCs and \mathcal{P} of different processes



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- ▶ Distribution of types of category of interest necessary to estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s, in order to compare VGCs and \mathcal{P} of different processes
- ▶ However, type population distribution of word formation process (or other category) might be of interest by itself, as model of a part of the mental lexicon of speaker



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- ▶ Lexical richness = V of whole population (how many words did Shakespeare know? Was the lexical repertoire of young Dickens smaller than that of old Dickens? How many words do 5-year-old children know?)



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- ▶ Lexical richness = V of whole population (how many words did Shakespeare know? Was the lexical repertoire of young Dickens smaller than that of old Dickens? How many words do 5-year-old children know?)
- ▶ Accurate estimate of population V would solve “variable constant” problem



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- ▶ Lexical richness = V of whole population (how many words did Shakespeare know? Was the lexical repertoire of young Dickens smaller than that of old Dickens? How many words do 5-year-old children know?)
- ▶ Accurate estimate of population V would solve “variable constant” problem
- ▶ Sampling from population, in particular to compute VGC, also of interest



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- ▶ Estimate number (and growth rate) of typos, UNKNOWNs (or other target tokens) in larger samples

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- ▶ Estimate number (and growth rate) of typos, UNKNOWNs (or other target tokens) in larger samples
→ estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s



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- ▶ Estimate number (and growth rate) of typos, UNKNOWNs (or other target tokens) in larger samples
→ estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s
- ▶ Estimate proportion of OOV words under assumption that lexicon contains top n most frequent types (see zipfR tutorial)



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- ▶ Estimate number (and growth rate) of typos, UNKNOWNs (or other target tokens) in larger samples
→ estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s
- ▶ Estimate proportion of OOV words under assumption that lexicon contains top n most frequent types (see zipfR tutorial) → requires estimation of V and frequency spectrum at arbitrary N s (to find out for how many tokens do the top n types account for)



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- ▶ Estimate proportion of OOV words under assumption that lexicon contains top n most frequent types (see zipfR tutorial) → requires estimation of V and frequency spectrum at arbitrary N s (to find out for how many tokens do the top n types account for)
- ▶ Good-Turing estimation, Bayesian priors



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- ▶ Estimate number (and growth rate) of typos, UNKNOWNs (or other target tokens) in larger samples
→ estimate V and V_1 at arbitrary N s
- ▶ Estimate proportion of OOV words under assumption that lexicon contains top n most frequent types (see zipfR tutorial) → requires estimation of V and frequency spectrum at arbitrary N s (to find out for how many tokens do the top n types account for)
- ▶ Good-Turing estimation, Bayesian priors → require full type population model



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- ▶ We need model of type population distribution

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- ▶ We need model of type population distribution
- ▶ We will use Zipf(-Mandelbrot)'s law as starting point to model how population looks like



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- ▶ We need model of type population distribution
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TO BE CONTINUED