Measuring the compositionality of NV expressions in Basque by means of distributional similarity techniques

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Abstract

We present several experiments aiming at measuring the semantic compositionality of NV expressions in Basque. Our approach is based on the hypothesis that compositionality can be related to distributional similarity. The contexts of each NV expression are compared with the contexts of its corresponding components, by means of different techniques, as similarity measures usually used with the Vector Space Model (VSM), Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) and some measures implemented in the Lemur Toolkit, as Indri index, tf-idf, Okapi index and Kullback-Leibler divergence. Using our previous work with cooccurrence techniques as a baseline, the results point to improvements using the Indri index or Kullback-Leibler divergence, and a slight further improvement when used in combination with cooccurrence measures such as t-score, via rank-aggregation. This work is part of a project for MWE extraction and characterization using different techniques aiming at measuring the properties related to idiomaticity, as institutionalization, non-compositionality and lexico-syntactic fixedness.

Keywords: MWEs, idioms, collocations, compositionality, distributional similarity

1. Introduction

Idiomaticity is considered the key feature to define the concept of Multiword Expressions or Phraseological Units, and is usually described as a non-discrete magnitude, whose “value”, according to recent investigations (Granger and Paquot, 2008; Baldwin and Kim, 2010; Fazly and Stevenson, 2007), has turned out to depend on a complex combination of features such as institutionalization, non-compositionality and lexico-syntactic fixedness.

Semantic non-compositionality is a prominent characteristic of many MWEs. The idea underlying this phenomenon is the Principle of Compositionality, which states that “the meaning of a whole is a function of the meaning of the parts and of the way they are syntactically combined.” (Partee, 1995). According to that, an MWE is non-compositional when its “meaning cannot be inferred from the meaning of its parts” (Cruse, 1986).

The compositionality, and hence the idiomaticity, of MWEs appears rather as a continuum than as a scale of discrete values (Sinclair, 1996). Thus, the classification of MWEs into discrete categories is a difficult task. A very schematic classification that has achieved a relative agreement among experts distinguishes two main types of phraseological units at phrase-level: idioms and collocations.

Relating to compositionality, idioms are defined as non-compositional units, and divided by some scholars (Cowie, 1998; Melcuk, 1998) into opaque and figurative idioms, being the meaning of figurative units more “deductible” or easier to decode. Collocations are often considered as semicompositional units, in which one component (the base, in our case the noun) preserves its literal meaning, and the other (the base, in this case the verb) is desemantized (light or support verb constructions) or has a meaning specific to the combination with the noun (nevertheless, some collocations are considered compositional, and their idiomaticity is a consequence of other phenomena, like lexico-syntactic fixedness and institutionalization). Free combinations are fully compositional. Some examples for Basque:

- Opaque idiom: ‘adarra jo’ ≠ ‘adarra’ + ‘jo’ (to pull someone’s leg, lit. ‘to play the horn’)
- Figurative idiom: ‘burua hautsi’ ≈ ‘burua’ + ‘hautsi’ (to racks one’s brain(s), lit. ‘to break one’s head’)
- Collocation: ‘atentzioa eman’ = ‘atentzioa’ + ‘eman’(atentzio)¹ (to catch/attract someone’s attention, lit. ‘to give attention’)
- Fully compositional: ‘liburua irakurri’ = ‘liburua’ + ‘irakurri’ (to read a book)

Even non-compositionality has been considered one of the central features of idiomaticity (Manning and Schütze, 1999), the standard techniques to extract MWEs automatically from text have been based until recently on cooccurrence data, a phenomenon mostly related to institutionalization, or “statistical idiosyncrasy”. However, in the last decade, a growing effort has been devoted to the automatic measurement of compositionality from text data. The central concept to characterize compositionality is the hypothesis of distributional similarity (Lin, 1999). As proposed in Baldwin and Kim (2010), “the underlying hypothesis is that semantically idiomatic MWEs will occur in markedly different lexical contexts to their component words.”

In a previous paper (Gurrutxaga and Alegria, 2011), we faced the task of extracting NV combinations from corpora based on association measures (AM). The evaluation was

¹The notation ‘eman’(atentzio) is used to convey the fact that the sense adopted by the verb eman is specific to its cooccurrence with atentzio.
designed on the distinction between MWEs and free combinations. In the present work, we are interested in the differentiation between idioms, collocations and free combinations.

2. Related work

One of the first methods was developed by Berry-Rogghe (1974), who proposed a measure named R-value to compute the compositionality of verb-particle constructions (VPCs), by dividing the overlap between the sets of collocations associated with the particle by the total number of collocations of the VPC. Wulff (2010) proposes two extensions to the R-value in her investigation on VNP-constructions. Basically, Wulff experiments with two methods for combining and weighting individual R-values of each component (noun and verb). Besides, those extensions of R-value are calculated taking into account different percentages of the most significant collocations and selecting them according to the Fisher-Yates exact test (instead of the original version by Berry-Rogghe, who used z-score to that end).

LSA (Latent Semantic Analysis) is used in several studies. Schone and Jurafsky (2001) compute semantic vectors for every proposed word n-gram and subcomponents. They report modest gains in performance. Baldwin et al. (2003) test the model over English noun-noun compounds and verb-words and evaluate its correlation with similarities and hyponymy values in WordNet. Katz and Giesbrecht (2006) present experiments for German that show that low cosine similarity using LSA correlate with non-compositionality. They use Infomap.

The Vector Space Model is applied, among others, by Garrao et al. (2006) and Fazly and Stevenson (2007), who use the cosine as a similarity measure between vectors. In the first study, VSM is applied on MWEs in Portuguese and the context is the whole paragraph. The second one deals with light verb constructions (LVCs) in English, and uses as context a window of ±15 nouns.

More recently, Korkontzelos and Manandhar (2009) use graph-based sense induction in order to decide compositionality. The shared task Distributional Semantics and Compositionality (DiSCo) at ACL HLT 2011 shows a variety of techniques for this task, mainly association measures and VSM. Resources including MWEs in English and German are provided, a summary of which is given by Biemann and Giesbrecht (2011).

An open discussion is how to evaluate the results. Lin (1999), Baldwin et al. (2003) and Schone and Jurafsky (2001) use as their gold standard either idiom dictionaries or WordNet. Katz and Giesbrecht (2006) and the DiSCo’2011 shared task use a careful manual annotation of a database as a gold standard.

The results are calculated in several ways: precision, recall and accuracy are used in some studies, as well as other proposals e.g., in the DiSCo’2011 shared task the score is calculated as the distance between the system responses and the gold standard.

3. Experimental setup

We are interested in the extraction and characterization of NV expressions in Basque. The contexts of each NV expression are compared with the contexts of its corresponding components, by means of different techniques, as basic VSM, LSA and IR similarity indexes as Indri, tf-idf, Okapi and KL-divergence. We have carried out some experiments in order to have a comparative basis between different distributional similarity approaches, and to compare them with the previous results obtained using AMs to process cooccurrence data.

The corpus used, its pre-processing and the evaluation set are the same that those used in Gurrutxaga and Alegria (2011). We use a journalistic corpus from two sources: (1) Issues published in 2001-2002 by the newspaper Euskaldunon Egunkaria (28 Mw); and (2) Issues published in 2006-2010 by the newspaper Berria (47 Mw). So, the overall size of the corpus is 75 Mw. The corpus is annotated with lemma, POS, case and number information using EUSTAGGER developed by the IXA group of the University of the Basque Country (Aduriz et al., 1996).

3.1. Context generation

We extract the context words of each bigram from the sentences with contiguous cooccurrences of the components (window span = ±1). For noun-verb cooccurrence of lemmas to be considered as a bigram, the noun must occur in the grammatical case in which it has been defined after bigram normalization. This is necessary if we intend to be able to differentiate the compositionality of combinations like kontuan hartu (‘take into account’) ≠ kontu hartu (‘to ask for an explanation’). The lemma of the first member of the Basque expressions is always kontu, whose POS is “noun”, being kontu the indefinite form of kontu in the absolute case, and kontuan the singular of kontu in the inessive case (“in”).

Separately, the contexts of the corresponding noun and verb are extracted from single occurrences. For example, in the case of the bigram erabakia hartu (‘to make/take a decision’), the contexts of erabaki (‘decision’) come from sentences where hartu (‘to take’) does not occur, or occur at a distance greater than 1 (non-contiguous cooccurrence); likewise for the contexts of the verb (hartu).

Only content-bearing lemmas are included in the contexts (nouns, verbs and adjectives).

3.2. Context processing and methods

We process the contexts in two different ways, depending on the techniques and tools used to measure distributional similarity.

Firstly, a VSM model is constructed and the contexts are represented as vectors. As similarity measures between the vector of a given bigram and those of its members, we use Berry-Roghe’s R-value (R_{BB}) and its two extensions proposed by Wulff (R_{W1} and R_{W2}), Jaccard index and cosine; as for cosine, different AMs have been tested for vector weights [f, f-score, log-likelihood ratio (LL), pointwise mutual information (PMI), and Fisher’s exact test]; AMs are calculated using the Ngram Statistics Package by Ted

For more detailed information on the normalization of different Basque bigram forms belonging to the same noun_lemma+noun_case+verb_lemma key, see Gurrutxaga and Alegria (2011).
Similarly as with vectors, the contexts of a bigram are included in a single query document, and the same for the contexts of its members.

Each context sentence is included in a different document. Thus, for a given bigram we created as much query documents as occurrences of the bigram. Using the same criteria, each context sentence of a member of a bigram is a different document in the index.

The context sentences of bigrams are treated as individual documents, but the contexts of each one of its members are represented in two separate documents.

Due to processing reasons, the number of context sentences used in Lemur to generate documents is limited to a maximum of 2,000, and randomly selected from the whole set of contexts. We use default settings for smoothing parameters. In each query, the number of similar documents retrieved is 200.

A slight different approach has been adopted in LSA. The contiguous cooccurrences of the members of each bigram have been represented as single tokens in the corpus to be processed by Infomap. Only content-bearing words are included in the corpus. Using Infomap, a matrix of 30,000 rows and 2,000 content-bearing word is created, and then SVD is applied. Infomap uses the cosine measure to calculate the similarities between items in the rows of the matrix. As in Lemur, we retrieved the 200 most similar words of each bigram for evaluation. Using this information, we rank the bigrams in two ways: a) according to the average value of the cosines between the bigram and each of its members; b) according to the average similarities between the lists of 200 “neighbors” corresponding to the bigram and each of its members (we use cosine to measure those similarities). Finally, instead of retrieving similar words, Infomap brings the possibility to retrieve the similar documents of a given query, which can also be a given document. Thus, we can directly compare the context documents of a bigram and those of its components, and use Infomap in a similar way as in the Lemur_1 type experiment.

- Lemur_1: Similarly as with vectors, the contexts of a bigram are included in a single query document, and the same for the contexts of its members.
- Lemur_2: Each context sentence is included in a different document. Thus, for a given bigram we created as much query documents as occurrences of the bigram. Using the same criteria, each context sentence of a member of a bigram is a different document in the index.
- Lemur_3: The context sentences of bigrams are treated as individual documents, but the contexts of each one of its members are represented in two separate documents.

3In order to make the results of Lemur and VSM experiments comparable, the same criteria has been used to generate VSM vectors.

3.3. Evaluation

As an evaluation reference, we use a subset of 600 combinations selected randomly from a larger evaluation set (4,334) extracted from the corpus as defined in Gurrutxaga and Alegria (2011). This set of 4,334 bigrams is the result of merging the 2,000-best candidates of each AM ranking from the w = ±1 and f > 30 extraction set.

The subset has been manually classified by three lexicographers into three categories: idioms, collocations and free combinations. Annotators were provided with an evaluation manual, with explanatory information about the evaluation task and the guidelines that had to be followed to differentiate between idioms, collocations and free combinations, based on the criteria mentioned in section 1. Illustrative examples are included.

The agreement among evaluators was calculated using the Fleiss’s κ statistics, and obtained a value of 0.54. Although this level of agreement is relatively low when comparing with (Krenn et al., 2004; Fazly and Stevenson, 2007), it is comparable to the one reported by Pecina (2010), who attributed his “relatively low” value to the fact that “the notion of collocation is very subjective, domain-specific, and also somewhat vague”. Cases when agreement is two or higher have been automatically adopted, and the remaining cases have been classified after discussion. 10 combinations that do not belong to the NV category were removed. Finally, the evaluation set includes 590 items, out of which 46 are idioms (either opaque or figurative), 153 collocations and 391 free combinations.

In order to compare the results of the different techniques, we base our evaluation on the rankings provided by each measure. If we had an ideal measure, the set of bigram categories (‘id’, ‘col’ and ‘free’) would be an ordered set, with ‘id’ values on the top of the rank, ‘col’ in the middle part, and ‘free’ in the bottom. Thus, the idea is to compute the distance between a rank derived from the ideally ordered set, which contains a high amount of ties, and the rank derived from the set of categories yielded by each measure. To this end, we use Kendall’s $\tau_B$ as a rank-correlation measure, using the Perl module Statistics-RankCorrelation-0.1203 by Gene Boggs (http://search.cpan.org/~gene/Statistics-RankCorrelation-0.1203/). Statistical significance of the Kendall’s $\tau_B$ correlation coefficient is tested by the Z-test, computed according to Bolboacă and Jäntschi (2006).

In addition to that, average precision values (AP) have been calculated for each ranking.

In the case of association measures, similarity measures applied to VSM, and Infomap, the bigrams are ranked by means of the values of the corresponding measure (using the average value of the similarities between bigram-noun and bigram-verb). In the case of experiments with Lemur, the information used to rank the bigrams are the positions of the documents corresponding to each member of the bigram.

4In addition, we made a classification that differentiated between opaque and figurative idioms, but was discarded due to the low proportion of opaque idioms (only two items). Thus, opaque and figurative idioms have been joined together in a single category.
Table 1: Kendall’s \( \tau_B \) rank-correlations relative to an ideal compositionality ranking and average precisions (AP), obtained by different AMs and distributional similarity measures; non-significant values of \( \tau_B \) in parentheses (p > 0.05).

| Measure | \( \tau_B \) | AP  |
|---------|--------------|-----|
| random rank | (0.06593) | 0.33230 |
| AM | | |
| \( f \) | 0.15104 | 0.43524 |
| t-score | 0.14794 | 0.44269 |
| LL | 0.11637 | 0.42787 |
| PMI | (-0.08274) | 0.30641 |
| VSM | | |
| \( R_{BR} \) (t-score) | 0.25037 | 0.49538 |
| \( R_{W1} \) (t-score) | 0.26152 | 0.50213 |
| \( R_{W2} \) (t-score) | 0.06277 | 0.30819 |
| Jaccard (PMI) | (-0.00762) | 0.27990 |
| cosine (t-score) | 0.17267 | 0.35724 |
| Lemur_1 | | |
| Indri_rank | 0.28690 | 0.53497 |
| tf-idf_rank | 0.18964 | 0.45041 |
| KL_rank | 0.28449 | 0.54251 |
| cosine (idf) | 0.25343 | 0.51412 |
| Lemur_3 | | |
| Indri_hit | 0.30143 | 0.57135 |
| Indri_rank | 0.28421 | 0.54678 |
| KL_hit | 0.30303 | 0.56666 |
| KL_rank | 0.28790 | 0.55131 |
| LSA | | |
| Infomap | (0.10042) | 0.39467 |
| Infomap_neigh | 0.14999 | 0.44427 |
| Infomap_doc | 0.22994 | 0.50009 |

Table 2: Kendall’s \( \tau_B \) rank-correlations and average precisions (AP) obtained combining the ranking results of some association and distributional similarity measures.

| Measure combination | \( \tau_B \) | AP |
|---------------------|--------------|-----|
| \( t_{Indri}(Lemur_1) \),0.5 | 0.28896 | 0.57272 |
| \( t_{KL}(Lemur_1) \),0.5 | 0.28924 | 0.59326 |
| \( t_{KL}(Lemur_1) \),0.7 | 0.30625 | 0.59413 |
| \( t_{KL}(Lemur_3) \),0.5 hit | 0.29650 | 0.56431 |
| \( t_{KL}(Lemur_3) \),0.7 hit | 0.32044 | 0.57934 |
| \( t_{KL}(Lemur_3) \),0.7 rank | 0.30592 | 0.55939 |

In the document list retrieved for the different queries. For the experiments in which the context sentences have been distributed in different documents, average positions are calculated and weighted taking into account the amount of documents for each bigram analysis. In addition to that, the total number of documents in the list (or “hits”) is weighted similarly.

Finally, precision curves are calculated for idioms, collocations and overall MWE extraction.

4. Results

The results for Kendall’s \( \tau_B \) and AP values are summarized in Table 1 (only the experiments with most remarkable results are included).

These first experiments are exploratory, and must be analyzed with caution. In any case, the use of measures such as the Indri index and KL-divergence inside Lemur brings a noticeable improvement in the results, even with respect to a baseline established by the best measures of association, as \( f \) and t-score. The best results for the different similarity measures in the VSM implementation were obtained including 50% of the collocates and selecting them according to their t-score weights in the case of R-values and cosine similarity, and PMI in the case of Jaccard index. The results obtained in Lemur_2 are not included in the table, as they are poorer than in the other two modalities, which show similar performances. The results of the Okapi index were clearly disappointing and have not been included; a specific tuning of its different parameters will be needed in future experiments. LSA-Infomap results are surprisingly low, and do not meet expectations, except in the case of the document-retrieval experiment (Infomap_doc.), whose results, at a given extent, are close to the ones obtained with other contexts-as-documents experiments with Lemur.

Bearing in mind the possibility that the combination of measures could result in greater accuracy, we performed several trials with rank-aggregation using Borda’s method (Dwork et al., 2001). As can be observed in Table 2, slight improvements are obtained; specifically, with t-score on the part of AMs, and Indri or KL-divergence as similarity measures (0.5 indicates equal weights for the measures aggregated; 0.7 indicates 3:7 ratio for the weights of t-score and the distributional measure).

Figure 1 shows the precision curves for the extraction of MWEs by some of the measures in Table 1 and 2. All the measures of distributional similarity outperform the best cooccurrence measures. The index combining t-score and KL-divergence in the Lemur_3 experiment (based on the weighted number of hits) \( t_{KL}(Lemur_3) \),0.7 hit is slightly the best measure, even though the difference with the best distributional measures is hardly significant.

Figure 1: Precision results for the compositionality rankings of MWEs.

In Figure 2 and 3, we present separately the precision curves for idioms and collocations. The most remarkable point is that distributional similarity measures, specially the Indri index and KL-divergence, obtains significantly better ranks for idiomatic expressions than cooccurrence measures. Being idioms the least compositional expressions, this is the result expected, which supports the hypothesis...
that semantic compositionality can be better characterized using measures of distributional similarity than using association measures. Another interesting result is that PMI is in this case not significantly worse than other AMs, unlike precision graphs in Figure 1 and 3.

Regarding the precision for collocations in Figure 3, association measures as \( t \)-score outperform distributional measures only in a narrow portion at the beginning of the ranking \((n < 50)\), and thereafter, their values fluctuate within the same range \((0.3-0.4)\), except for PMI and Infomap, whose precisions are quite worse.

In Figure 2, the combined measure \( t_{KL}(\text{Lemur}_3)_{0.7} \) performs lower than simple distributional similarity measures, probably due to the poor contribution of \( t \)-score to the extraction of idioms. In contrast, it is the best measure for collocation extraction for \( n > 25 \).

Table 3 and 4 display the values of average precision separately for idioms and collocation rankings. In accordance with the precision curves in Figure 2, idioms are better ranked using exclusively distributionality measures as KL-

| Measure combination | Idioms  | Collocations |
|---------------------|---------|--------------|
| \( t_{\text{Indri}}(\text{Lemur}_1)_{0.5} \) | 0.15995 | 0.43512 |
| \( t_{\text{KL}}(\text{Lemur}_1)_{0.5} \) | 0.16302 | **0.45475** |
| \( t_{\text{KL}}(\text{Lemur}_1)_{0.7} \) | 0.18851 | 0.43438 |
| \( t_{\text{KL}}(\text{Lemur}_3)_{0.5} \) | 0.18313 | 0.40676 |
| \( t_{\text{KL}}(\text{Lemur}_3)_{0.7} \) | 0.22172 | 0.39551 |
| \( t_{\text{KL}}(\text{Lemur}_3)_{0.7} \) | 0.21052 | 0.38315 |

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5. Conclusions and Future work

The results obtained for Kendall’s \( \tau_B \) show that, in the task of ranking the candidates according to their semantic compositionality, the Indri index and KL-divergence outperform the other distributional similarity measures tested, as well as the association measures. In the case of distributional similarity measures, further research should be undertaken to corroborate this outcome. In comparison with AMs, this is mostly due to the fact the Indri index or KL-divergence obtained much better results than AMs in the characterization of idioms as non-compositional combinations. In the case of collocations, no such claim can be made looking at the average precision results, and we conclude that, for the extraction of collocations, statistical idiosyncrasy is a property as significant as compositionality when used separately. Even though the slight improvement...
obtained with rank-aggregation could be hardly taken as statistically significant, these first trials create expectations that the combination of the different features involved in idiomaticity could provide better results (Fazly and Stevenson, 2007). These expectations are clearly justified in the case of collocations, whose AP results improve noticeably when combining t-score and KL-divergence with equal weights.

As for a whole account of idiomaticity, the next steps would be to integrate measures of lexico-syntactic flexibility into the system, and to explore the application of machine learning to automatically detect and characterize the idiomaticity of MWEs (Katz and Giesbrecht, 2006).

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