## Collocation Extraction: Needs, Feeds and Results of an Extraction System for German

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## Abstract

This paper provides a specification of requirements for collocation extraction systems, taking as an example the extraction of noun + verb collocations from German texts. A hybrid approach to the extraction of habitual collocations and idioms is presented, aiming at a detailed description of collocations and their morphosyntax for natural language generation systems as well as to support learner lexicography.

## **1** Introduction

Since Firth first described collocations as habitual word combinations in the 1950ies (cf. Firth, 1968), a number of papers focusing on collocation extraction have been published (see the overviews in (Evert, 2004; Bartsch, 2004)). Most studies concentrate on the extraction from English. However, the procedures proposed in these studies cannot necessarily be applied to other languages as English stands out, e.g. with respect to configurationality. They rely on the fact that the syntax of English (and of all configurational languages) provides positional clues to the grammatical function of noun phrases, and they exploit this concept by means of window-based, adjacency-based or pattern-based extraction, combined with association measures to identify co-occurrences that are more frequent than statistically expectable. What these procedures do not cover is semantic-oriented definitions like (a) and (b).

a. A collocation is a combination of a free ('autosematic') element (the *base*) and a lexically determined ('synsemantic') element (the *collocate*, which may lose (some of) its meaning in a collocation) (adapted from (Hausmann, 1979; Hausmann, 1989; Hausmann, 2003)).

b. A collocation is a word combination whose semantic and/or syntactic properties cannot be fully predicted from those of its components, and which therefore has to be listed in a lexicon (Evert, 2004).

We argue that linguistic knowledge could not only improve results (Krenn, 2000b; Smadja, 1993) but is essential when extracting collocations from certain languages: this knowledge provides other applications (or a lexicon user, respectively) with a fine-grained description of how the extracted collocations are to be used in context.

Additional requirements resulting from the needs of dictionary users are described in (Hausmann, 2003; Heid and Gouws, 2005) and are of interest not only in lexicography but can also be transferred to the field of natural language generation. These requirements influence the development of collocation extraction systems, which motivates this paper.

The structure of the paper is as follows: In chapter 2, the requirements, depending on factors like the targeted language, are presented. We then discuss and suggest methods to meet the given needs. A documentation of ongoing work on the extraction of noun + verb collocations from German texts is given in chapter 3. Chapter 4 gives a conclusion and an outlook on work still to be done.

## 2 Collocation Extraction Tools: Requirements

The development of a collocation extraction tool depends on the following conditions:

1. properties of the targeted language

- 2. the targeted application
- 3. the kinds of collocations to be extracted
- 4. the degree of detail

Whereas issues 1 to 3 deal with the collocation itself, issue 4 is focused at the collocation in context, i.e. its behaviour (from a syntagmatic analysis point of view) or, respectively, its use (from a generation perspective).

## 2.1 Language factors

One of the most important factors is, of course, the targeted language and its main characteristics with respect to word formation and word order. Depending on word and constituent order, the pros and cons of positional vs. relational extraction patterns need to be considered. Positional patterns (based on adjacency or a 'window') are adequate for configurational languages, but in languages with rather free word order, words belonging to a phrase or collocation do not necessarily occur within a predefined span<sup>1</sup>.

Extracting word combinations using relational patterns (represented by part of speech (PoS) tags or dependency rules) offers a higher level of abstraction and improves the results (cf. (Krenn, 2000b; Smadja, 1993)). However, this requires part of speech tagging and possibly partial parsing. A system extracting word combinations by applying relational patterns, obviously profits from language specific knowledge about phrase and sentence structure and word formation. One example is the order of adjective + noun pairs: in English and German, the adjective occurs left of the noun, whereas in French, the adjective can occur left or right of the noun. Another example is compounding, handled differently in different languages: noun + noun in English, typically separated by a white space (e.g. death penalty) vs. noun + prepositional phrase in French (e.g. *peine de mort*) vs. compound noun in German (e.g. Todesstrafe). Consequently, language specific word formation rules need to be considered when designing extraction patterns. For languages with a rich inflectional morphology where the individual word forms are rather rare, frequency counts and results

of statistical analyses are little reliable. To allow a grouping of words sharing the same lemma, lemmatisation is crucial.

#### 2.2 Application factors

Other important factors are the targeted application (i.e. analysis vs. generation) and, to some extent resulting from it, factors (3.) and (4.), above. Depending on the purpose of the tool (or lexicon, respectively), the collocation definition chosen as an outline may vary, e.g. including transparent and regular collocations (cf. (Tutin, 2004)) for generation purposes, but excluding them for analysis purposes. In addition, a more detailed description of the use of collocations in context (e.g. information about preferences with respect to the determiner, etc.) is needed for generation purposes than for text analysis.

## 2.3 Factors of collocation definition

Collocations can be distinguished on two levels: the formal level and the content level. On the formal level, a collocation can be classified according to the structural relation between its elements. Typical patterns are shown in table  $1^2$  (taken from (Heid and Gouws, 2005)).

On the content level, there are regular, transparent, and opaque collocations (according to (Tutin, 2004)) and, taking definition (b) into account, idioms as well. However, as a classification at the content level needs detailed semantic description, we see no means of accomplishing this goal other than manually at the moment.

## 2.4 Contextual factors

(Hausmann, 2003; Heid and Gouws, 2005; Evert et al., 2004) argue that collocations have strong preferences with respect to their morphosyntax (see examples (1) and (2)) and may be combined (see example (3)). The collocation in example (1) ('to charge somebody') is restricted with respect to the determiner (*null determiner*) of the base, whereas the same base shows a strong preference for a (*definite or indefinite*) determiner when used

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In German, e.g., in usual verb second constructions with a full verb in the left sentence bracket (topological field theory see (Wöllstein-Leisten et al., 1997)), particles of particle verbs appear in the right sentence bracket. The middle field (containing arguments and possibly adjuncts of the verb) is of undetermined length.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Abbreviations in table 1:

advl - adverbial

prd - predicative

subj - subject

obj - object

pobj - prepositional object

dat - dative case

gen - genitive case

quant - quantifying

No.	Туре	Example
1	<u>N</u> + Adj	tiefer Schlaf
2	Adj + Adv	tief rot
3	V + Adv	tief schlafen
4	$\underline{\mathbf{V}} + \mathbf{NP}_{advl}$	Bauklötze staunen
5	$V + N_{subj}$	Frage + sich stellen
6	$V + \underline{N}_{dat}$	Anforderungen + genü-
		gen
7	$V + N_{obj}$	Frage + aufwerfen
8	$V + \underline{PP}_{pobj}$	zu + Darstellung + gelan-
		gen
9	$V + Adj_{prd}$	verrückt spielen
10	$N + \overline{N_{gen}}$	Einreichung des Antrags
11	$N_{quant} + \underline{N}$	ein Schwarm Heringe
the category containing the base is underlined.		

Table 1: Collocational patterns

with a different collocate (example (2), 'to drop a lawsuit'). Example (3) shows two collocations sharing the base can form a collocational sequence (example taken from (Heid and Gouws, 2005)).

- (1) ø Anklage erheben
- (2) die/eine Anklage fallenlassen
- (3) *Kritik* üben + scharfe *Kritik* scharfe *Kritik* üben

For both natural language generation systems and lexicography, such information is highly relevant. Therefore, the extraction of contextual information (called 'context parameters' in the following) should be integrated into the collocation extraction process.

# 3 Extracting noun + verb collocations from German

The standard architecture for collocation extraction systems contains three stages (cf. (Krenn, 2000)): a more or less detailed linguistic analysis of the corpus text (preprocessing), an extraction step and a statistic filtering of the extracted word combinations. We follow this architecture (see figure 1). However, our hypothesis differs from other approaches. Collocations are often restricted with respect to their morphosyntax. We test to what extent they can be identified via these restrictions.

## 3.1 Approach

In an experiment, we extracted relational word combinations (verb + subject/object pairs) from

German newspaper texts.

The syntactic patterns for the extraction of these combinations concentrate on verb-final constructions as in example (4) and verb second constructions with a modal verb in the left sentence bracket according to the topological field theory (see (Wöllstein-Leisten et al., 1997)) as in example (5). The reason is that, in these constructions, the particle forms one word with the verb (see example (6)), as opposed to usual verb second constructions (see example (7)). Thus, we need not recombine verb + particle groups that appear separatedly.

- (4) ... wenn Wien einen *Antrag* auf Vollmitglied-schaft *stellt*.
  ('if Vienna an *application* for full membership *puts*')
  (if Vienna *applies* for full membership)
- (5) ... kann Wien einen Antrag auf Vollmitgliedschaft stellen.
  ('might Vienna an application for full membership put.')
  (Vienna might apply for full membership.)
- (6) ..., daß er ein Schild *auf* stellt.('that he a sign *up*puts')(that he puts up a sign)
- (7) Er stellt ein Schild *auf*.('He puts a sign *up*.')(He puts up a sign.)

## Preprocessing

As data, we used a collection of 300 million words from German newspaper texts dating from 1987 to 1993. The corpus is tokenized and PoS-tagged by the Treetagger (Schmid, 1994), then chunk annotated by YAC (Kermes, 2003). The chunker YAC determines phrase boundaries and heads, and disambiguates agreement information as far as possible. It is based on the corpus query language cqp (Christ et al., 1999)<sup>3</sup>, which can in turn be used to query the chunk annotations.

## **Data Extraction**

The syntactic patterns used to extract verb + subject/object combinations are based on PoS tags and chunk information. These patterns are represented using cqp macros (see figure 2). The cqp syntax largely overlaps with regular expressions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>http://www.ims.uni-

stuttgart.de/projekte/CorpusWorkbench/



Figure 1: Tool architecture

```
(1) MACRO n_vfin(0)
(2) (
(3) [pos = "(KOUS|VMFIN)"]
(4) []*
(5) <np>
(6) [!pp
(7)
      & _.np_f not contains "ne"
(8)
     & _.np_f not contains "pron"
     & _.np_f not contains "meas"
(9)
(10)
      & _.np_h != "@card@"]+
(11)</np>
(12) [pos != "($.|KOUS|VMFIN)"]*
(13) [pos = "V.*"]+
(14) [pos = "($.|KON)"]
(15))
(16);
```

Figure 2: sample macro

Line (1) of figure 2 contains the name of the macro and the number of its parameters. In line (3), a word PoS tagged KOUS (subordinating conjunction) or VMFIN (finite modal verb) is requested, followed by an arbitrary number ('\*') of words without any restrictions (line (4)). Line (5) indicates the start of a nominal phrase (np), line (11) its end. The elements within this np (one or more words, as indicated by '+') must not be part of a prepositional phrase (pp) to avoid the extraction of pp + verb (line (6), see example (8)). In addition, the np must be neither a named entity (ne, see line (7)) nor a pronoun (pron, line (8)) nor an

np of measure (meas, line (9), see example (9)), nor must its head be a cardinal number (card, line (10), see example (10)). An arbitrary number of words may follow the np (punctuation marks (PoS tagged \$.), subordinating conjunctions and finite modal verbs excluded). At least one verb is required (line (13), all PoS tags for verbs start with a capital 'V'<sup>4</sup>). Line (14) indicates the end of the subclause or sentence.

- (8) ... kann [zur Verfügung]<sub>pp</sub> gestellt werden.
- (9) ... weil davon jährlich [3,5 *Tonnen*]<sub>np meas</sub> eingeführt werden.
- (10) ... obwohl er [1989]<sub>np card</sub> noch dort <u>arbeitete</u>.

By applying the macro to the corpus, all sequences of words matching the pattern are extracted.

From these sequences, the following information is made explicit (cf. (Heid and Ritz, 2005)):

- lemma of the noun (potential base)
- lemma of the verb (potential collocate)
- number of the noun (singular, plural)
- case of the noun

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>The search condition is underspecified with respect to the finiteness and the role of the verb (auxiliary, modal or full verb). Thus, line (13) matches verbal complexes. It also covers cases where full verbs are accidentally PoS tagged modal or auxiliary verbs.

- determination of the noun (definite, indefinite, null, demonstrative, quantifier)
- modification of the noun (adjective, cardinal number, genitive np, compound noun etc.)
- negation (yes/no)
- auxiliaries and modal verbs
- original phrase from the corpus

For each instance found, the lemmas of noun and verb along with all the context parameters mentioned above are stored as feature value pairs in a relational data base. The database can be queried via SQL. See figure 3 for a sample query asking for distinct lemma pairs, ordered by frequency (in descending order), and figures 5 and 4 for more specific queries and some of their results.

```
SELECT COUNT(*) AS f,
n_lemma, v_lemma
FROM comfea1
GROUP BY n_lemma, v_lemma
ORDER BY f DESC;
```

Figure 3: sample query

## Filtering

The instances extracted in the previous step are grouped according to noun and verb lemmas, i.e. instances of the same lemma pair form one group. Within these groups, a relative frequency distribution is computed for each of the features. For queriability reasons, the results of this postprocessing are also stored in the database, as shown in figure 1. A word combination is chosen as a collocation candidate if a preference (specified by a threshold of e.g. 60% of the occurrences) for a certain feature value (singular / plural, presence / absence of a determiner, definite / indefinite / demonstrative / possessive / quantifying determiner, presence of modifying elements) is discovered.

## 3.2 Results

From 300 million words, we extracted more than 1.3 million noun + verb combinations, the instances of 726,488 different lemma pairs. 10,934 of these lemma pairs appeared with a minimum

```
SELECT COUNT(*) AS f,
n_lemma, v_lemma
FROM comfea1
WHERE neg = '+'
GROUP BY n_lemma, v_lemma
ORDER BY f DESC;
```

f	n_lemma	I	v_lemma
11521	Rede	Ι	sein
748 I	Angabe	Ι	machen
322 I	Einigung	Ι	erzielen
228 I	Chance	Ι	haben
217 I	Forderung	I	erfüllen
188 I	Problem	Ι	lösen
151 I	Rolle	Ι	spielen
131	Auskunft	Ι	geben
127 I	Stellungnahme	Ι	abgeben
120 I	Alternative	Ι	geben
110	Interesse	Ι	haben
110	Angabe	Ι	bestätigen
102 I	Geld	I	haben

Figure 4: sample query: word combinations from negated phrases

frequency of 10. Sample results are shown in figure  $6^5$ .

We evaluated collocation candidates with a frequency of at least 100. Within the 323 most frequent collocation candidates, we found 213 collocations (including 11 idioms). This corresponds to a precision of 66% (see table  $2^6$ ). As a comparison, a window-based study was carried out on the same (PoS-tagged) data. In this study, the window was defined in a way that up to two tokens (excluding sentence boundaries and finite full verbs) were allowed to appear between a noun (PoS tagged NN) and a finite full verb (PoS tagged VVFIN). Log-likelihood<sup>7</sup> was used as an association measure. The precision of this approach is  $41\%^8$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Abbreviations in figure 6:

c - rated as a collocation in evaluation

i - rated as an idiom in evaluation.

For chosing collocation candidates, a threshold of 60% is used. However, additional preferences are displayed for values greater than 50%.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Abbreviations in table 2:

log-l - window-based approach using log-likelihood

feat - pattern-based approach using morphosyntactic features
 <sup>7</sup>www.collocations.de

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Note that partial matches, such as Verfügung + stellen

SELECT COUNT(\*) AS f, n\_lemma, v\_lemma FROM comfea1 WHERE cas = 'Akk' GROUP BY n\_lemma, v\_lemma ORDER BY f DESC;

f	n_lemma	v_lemma
507	Beitrag	leisten
237	Antrag	stellen
173	Eindruck	l erwecken
173	Weg	finden
167	Umsatz	steigern
145	Hut	nehmen
140	Bericht	l vorlegen
135	Betrieb	l aufnehmen
121	Sprung	l schaffen
120	Ausschlag	l geben
116	Mut	haben
111	Sitz	haben
106	Weg	l ebnen
105	Zuschlag	l erhalten
104	Platz	finden
100	Anspruch	haben
94	Tod	feststellen
93	Zusammenhang	l geben
90	Vertrag	l unterzeichnen
90	Riegel	vorschieben

Figure 5: sample query: verb + accusative object

However, the evaluation criteria from definitions (a) and (b) remain vague or even contradictory for some of the results. First, there is the problem of semantic equivalence: does the combination express more than its elements (consider example (11))? Secondly, definitions (a) and (b) may judge the same example differently: Anteil nehmen (example (12)) is usually agreed upon to be a support verb construction, but the distinction of the noun Anteil as the base (making the main contribution to the meaning) is questionable. On the other hand, its unpredictable syntactic properties (e.g. null determiner) and semantics (partial loss of meaning of the collocate nehmen) make it clear that this combination has to be listed in a lexicon.

	log-l	feat
collocation candidates	700	323
collocations (manually verified)	290	213
precision	41%	66%

Table 2: evaluation results

For evaluation purposes, combinations judged collocations by either (or both) of the definitions were marked as correct matches. In cases like example (11), combinations were marked as correct matches if no alternative collocate existed for describing the denoted situation or event.

(11) Chance + haben ('to have a/the chance')

(12) Anteil + nehmen ('to commiserate')

## 4 Conclusion and Outlook

We presented a system for collocation extraction that takes into account the behaviour or use of collocations in context. Profiting from linguistic information (PoS tagging, chunking), the tool reaches a precision of 66% on the top 323 candidates by frequency. On the same data, a windowbased approach relying only on PoS information reached a precision of 41%.

As the extracted word combinations as well as their context parameters (including the original evidence from the corpus) are stored in a database, the tool also supports explorative research in lexicography.

However, there are some enhancements worth doing: Especially when dealing with low frequencies, relative frequencies lack reliability. Therefore, we suggest computing a confidence interval as proposed in (Evert, 2004b; Heid and Ritz, 2005; Ritz, 2005).

As indicated in figure 1, several postprocessing steps can be added to the system, e.g. enabling a sorting of collocation candidates with compound nouns by the morphological heads of their base.

In order to get more data, the extraction from verb first and verb second constructions is also possible. To complete the tool, extraction patterns for collocations of different syntactic relations (cf. table 1) could be designed.

<sup>(</sup>without the corresponding preposition), have been treated as correct matches in 72 cases.

n_lemma	v_lemma	total   restrictions
-  Polizei	mitteilen	5689 sg(100%), det(99.49%), def(99.49%), modif(53.84%)
c  Rede	sein	2144 sg(99.81%), det(99.16%), quant(53.59%)
-  Sprecher	<pre>I mitteilen</pre>	1401  sg(94.15%), det(99.21%), indef(93.36%), modif(68.31%)
c Fall	sein	1233 sg(99.03%), det(97.32%), def(96.03%)
- Kantonspolizei	${\sf I} \; {\tt mitteilen}$	1094  sg(99.82%), det(59.60%), def(59.60%), modif(100%)
-   Behörde	${\sf I} \; {\tt mitteilen}$	952   pl(82.14%), det(99.89%), def(99.37%), modif(63.13%)
c  Stellung	nehmen	831   sg(99.88%), no_det(88.21%)
c  Angabe	machen	802  pl(98.50%), det(93.64%), quant(93.27%)
-  Polizeisprecher	<pre>I mitteilen</pre>	737   sg(90.91%), det(92.67%), indef(90.77%), modif(100%)
i   Rolle	spielen	724   sg(98.62%), det(97.93%), indef(65.61%)
c Problem	lösen	690   det(89.13%), def(64.06%), modif(51.88%)
-  Zeitung	berichten	670   sg(94.78%), det(94.78%), def(91.79%), modif(83.28%)
-  Nachrichtenagentur	l melden	667   sg(98.95%), det(98.20%), def(97.90%), modif(100%)
c  Rechnung	tragen	661   sg(100%), no_det(98.94%)
-  Unternehmen	<pre>I mitteilen</pre>	655   sg(98.16%), det(98.32%), def(98.32%), modif(66.26%)
c  Chance	haben	614   sg(85.67%), det(86.31%)
c Beitrag	leisten	575   sg(96.70%), det(95.65%), indef(52.70%), modif(62.54%)
-  Polizei	berichten	564  sg(100%), det(98.40%), def(98.40%)
c  Einigung	erzielen	551   sg(99.82%), det(92.20%), quant(58.26%)
-  Sprecher	l sagen	508   sg(76.38%), det(97.83%), indef(76.18%), modif(56.69%)
c Arbeit	aufnehmen	492   sg(98.37%), det (98.37%), poss(76.62%)
c Ziel	erreichen	476   sg(78.78%), det(96.22%)
-   Nachrichtenagentur	l berichten	454   sg(100%), det(98.90%), def(98.90%), modif(100%)
c Druck	l ausüben	451   sg(100%), no_det(88.70%), modif(74.72%)
c  Erfolg	haben	438   sg(99.32%), no_det(78.54%)
- Frau	sein	425   sg(54.59%), det(50.12%), modif(61.41%)
-  Land	verlassen	421   sg(99.76%), det(98.57%), def(86.70%)
c Frage	stellen	419   sg(71.60%), det(79.00%), def(68.26%)

# Figure 6: sample results

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