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A Probabilistic Treatment of Qualitative Data with Special Reference to Word Association Tests

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1. Introduction

In this study of qualitative random variables the terminology and notation for the theory which we will develop originates with psychological data. It will be obvious that there are many other phenomena which are perfectly analogous. Examples of such phenomena are given Simon (1955): authors by number of papers published, words by frequency in a book, cities by population, and genera by number of species; and by Haight (1966): countries by area, surnames by frequency, automobiles by make or color, and states by number of area codes.

Consider an infinite population of *subjects* who are presented sequentially with a qualitative *stimulus* and suppose that each subject replies with a well defined qualitative *response*. We will let k denote its number of subjects who have been interviewed, k = 0, 1, 2,... and define the following random variables for fixed k.

- X_k the number of times a given response has been given,
- Y_k the number of occurrences of a response given by a particular subject,
- Z_k the total number of different responses which have been given.

We will denote the probability distributions, probability generating function, and mean values for these random variables as follows:

$$P(X_k = n) = p_k(n), \qquad n = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

$$P(Y_k = n) = q_k(n), \qquad n = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

$$P(Z_k = n) = r_k(n) \qquad n = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

$$\pi_k(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k p_k(n) s^n, \qquad \mu_k = \pi_k'(1).$$

$$\sigma_k(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k q_k(n) s^n, \qquad \nu_k = \sigma_k'(1).$$

$$\tau_k(s) = \sum_{n=1}^k r_k(n) s^n, \qquad \rho_k = \tau_k'(1).$$

These definitions are illustrated by the following (hypothetical) example: k=16 subjects have responded to a fixed stimulus as follows: five have given the response "A," three the response "B," two the response "C" and one each the responses "D," "E," "F," "G," "H," and "I." This corresponds to the qualitative list:

and to the quantitative tables

$$n$$
 $p_{16}(n)$
 $q_{16}(n)$

 1
 $6/9$
 $6/16$

 2
 $1/9$
 $2/16$

 3
 $1/9$
 $3/16$

 5
 $1/9$
 $5/16$

with the single value $Z_k = 9$.

It is perfectly clear that the probability transformation between $p_k(n)$ and $q_k(n)$ can be written

$$q_k(n) = [np_k(n)]/\mu_k , \qquad (1)$$

or in terms of the probability generating functions

$$\mu_k \sigma_k(s) = s \pi_k'(s). \tag{2}$$

Although the transformation (1) (2) is rather simple, the two distributions need not be at all similar. For example, if p(n) represents Fisher's log series distribution, then q(n) is geometric. Also, it is worth noting that the continuous counterpart of (1) has a number of applications [cf. Oliver & Jewell (1962); Haight (1962)] of which the most important is that it connects the lifetime density of a renewal process with the density of a lifetime containing an arbitrarily chosen instant.

As we shall see in the following section, the distributions characterizing one important model are easier to find using the transformation than directly. The reason is quite simple and yet fundamental: the distribution of X_k involves Z_k (as the total frequency) whereas the corresponding quantity for the Y_k distribution is simply k.

2. The Yule-Simon Model

The process treated by Yule (1924) and Simon (1955) is based on the following postulates (i) the probability that the $(k+1)^{st}$ subject gives a response that has not yet been given is α , a quantity independent of k, and (ii) the probability that the $(k+1)^{st}$ subject gives a response which has already been given n times is $(1-\alpha)q_k(n)$.

The main result of Simon's paper is to show that these assumptions imply [where B denotes the Beta function in usual notation: $B(x, y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$]

$$p(n) = p_{\infty}(n) = \eta B(n, \eta + 1), \qquad n = 1, 2,...$$
 (3)

(the Yule distribution) for appropriate parameter values, if an equilibrium does exist. The proof given by Simon is a little cloudy, attempting as it does to establish a formula relative to p(n) with postulates based on q(n).

First we shall prove the Yule-Simon theorem systematically. Let the frequencies be $g_k(n) = kq_k(n)$.

Case I. (Subject gives new response.) In this case,

$$g_{k+1}(1) = g_k(1) + 1,$$

 $g_{k+1}(n) = k(n)g$ $n = 2, 3,...,$ (4)

leading to

$$q_{k+1}(1) = [kq_k(1) + 1]/(1+k),$$

$$q_{k+1}(n) = [kq_n(n)]/(1+k), \qquad n = 2, 3, \dots$$
(5)

Case II. (Subject chooses response that has already been chosen N times.) This choice will affect the distribution only at the values n = N, N + 1; the absolute frequencies will change N and N + 1 units, respectively, as follows:

$$g_{k+1}(N) = g_k(N) - N,$$

$$g_{k+1}(N+1) = g_k(N+1) + N+1,$$

$$g_{k+1}(n) = g_k(n), \quad n \neq N, N+1.$$
(6)

Since the total frequency in this distribution is now k + 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} q_{k+1}(N) &= [kq_k(N) - N]/(1+k), \\ q_{k+1}(N+1) &= [kq_k(N+1) + N+1]/(1+k), \\ q_{k+1}(n) &= q_k(n)[k/(1+k)], & n \neq N, N+1. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Each of the probabilities (5) (7) is conditional on the choice of response, the former having prior probability α and the latter $(1-\alpha) q_k(n)$; we now form the expressions for unconditional probabilities. Since the value N has special effect only on values of n=N, N+1, a probability with index n will be specially affected only by N=n-1, n. Thus,

$$q_{k+1}(1) = (1+k)^{-1}[(k-1+\alpha)q_k(1)+\alpha],$$

$$q_{k+1}(n) = (k+1)^{-1}\{n(1-\alpha)[q_k(n-1)-q_k(n)]+kq_k(n)\}, \qquad n=2,3,...$$
(8)

with probability generating function

$$\sigma_{k+1}(s) = (k+1)^{-1} \{ \alpha s + [k+(1-\alpha)s] \ \sigma_k(s) + (1-\alpha) \ s(s-1)(d/ds) \ \alpha_k(s) \}.$$

If we now assume equilibrium (and drop the subscript) we have a linear differential equation

$$\frac{d\sigma(s)}{ds} + \frac{1 - s(1 - \alpha)}{(1 - \alpha)s(1 - s)}\sigma(s) = \frac{\alpha}{(1 - \alpha)(1 - s)}.$$
 (10)

It is not difficult to show that Eqs. (3) and (10) are connected by Eqs. (1) and (2). First we transform the Yule distribution to the corresponding q(n):

$$q(n) = (\eta - 1) nB(n, \eta + 1), \qquad n = 1, 2, ...,$$
 (11)

since the mean value of the Yule distribution is

$$\mu = \eta/(\eta - 1). \tag{12}$$

Referring to Ryshik and Gradstein [1963, p. 143 (3.181)] we find that the probability generating function of Eq. (11) is

$$\sigma(s) = \sum_{1}^{\infty} (\eta - 1) \, n s^{n} B(n, \eta + 1),$$

$$= (\eta - 1) s \int_{0}^{1} (1 - x)^{n} (1 - s x)^{-2} \, dx,$$

$$= s [(\eta - 1)/(\eta + 1)] \, F(2, 1; \eta + 2; s),$$
(13)

where F denotes a hypergeometric function in usual notation. The derivative of Eq. (13) can be easily found from Erdelyi [1953, Vol. I, p. 103 (31)] to be

$$\frac{d\sigma}{ds} = \frac{\eta - 1}{\eta + 1} F(2, 2; \eta + 2; s), \tag{14}$$

and we note that Eq. (13) and (14) satisfy Eq. (10) when

$$\eta = 1/(1-\alpha). \tag{15}$$

This completes the proof of the Yule-Simon result, evading direct treatment of $p_k(n)$. From Eqs. (12) and (15) we see that $\mu\alpha = 1$. Thus, in equilibrium, the probability of a neologism is the reciprocal of E(X).

If we try to find $p_k(n)$ in the same straightforward manner, we strike difficulties at once. In the equation corresponding to Eq. (5) (as well as those which follow) the quantity in the denominator is no longer the constant (1 + k) but a value of the random variable $(1 + Z_k)$.

We approach this question by means of a sequence of generalization of the model.

3. Yule-Simon Model; First Generalization

In this section we will propose two modifications of the Yule–Simon Model: (i) α , the probability of a neologism, will be dependent on the state of the system, and therefore written α_k for the case where k subjects have already been tested, (ii) the assumption of equilibrium will not be made. It is clear that many models would require the probability of a new item in the list to decrease with the length of the list; indeed it is difficult to think of a realistic psychological situation where α would be constant.

The first equations in Section 2 that need to be modified are Eqs. (8); now we introduce α_k in place of α , writing

$$q_{k+1}(1) = (k+1)^{-1}[(k-1+\alpha_k)q_k(1)+\alpha_k],$$

$$q_{k+1}(n) = (k+1)^{-1}\{n(1-\alpha_k)[q_k(n-1)-q_k(n)]+kq_k(n)\}, \qquad n=2,3,...,k+1,$$
(17)

and similarly for the probability generating function

$$\sigma_{k+1}(s) = (k+1)^{-1} \left\{ \alpha_k s + [k+(1-\alpha_k)s] \alpha_k(s) + (1-\alpha_k) s(s-1) \frac{d}{ds} \alpha_k(s) \right\}. \quad (18)$$

We note the first few values of $q_k(n)$ obtained recursively from Eqs. (17) with $q_1(1) = 1$.

$$\begin{split} q_2(1) &= \alpha_1 \;, \\ q_2(2) &= 1 - \alpha_1 \;, \\ q_3(1) &= \frac{1}{3}(\alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2). \\ q_3(2) &= \frac{2}{3}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - 2\alpha_1\alpha_2), \\ q_3(3) &= (1 - \alpha_1)(1 - \alpha_2), \\ q_4(1) &= \frac{1}{12}(2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 + 3\alpha_3 + 2\alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_2\alpha_3 + \alpha_1\alpha_3 + \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3), \\ q_4(2) &= \frac{1}{6}(2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 + \alpha_1\alpha_3 + \alpha_2\alpha_3 - \alpha_1\alpha_2 - 5\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3) \\ q_4(3) &= \frac{1}{4}(2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 + 3\alpha_3 - 4\alpha_1\alpha_2 - 5\alpha_1\alpha_3 - 5\alpha_2\alpha_3 + 7\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3), \\ q_4(4) &= (1 - \alpha_1)(1 - \alpha_2)(1 - \alpha_3), \end{split}$$

and so forth. The corresponding values of $p_k(n)$ can be found from Eq. (1):

$$p_k(n) = q_k(n) / n \sum_{n=1}^{k} [q_k(n)/n].$$
 (19)

The summation in the denominator of Eq. (19) is of course the reciprocal of the harmonic mean of Y; by mathematical induction on k we find its value to be

$$\sum_{n=1}^{k} \{q_k(n)/n\} = \frac{1}{k} (1 + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1})$$
 (20)

Since the kth distribution $q_k(n)$ will contain (k-1) parameters, its usefulness will not be great without assuming some relationship between the parameters. If for example they form a harmonic series $\alpha_k = 1/(k+1)$, it follows that $q_k(n)$ is rectangular:

$$q_k(n) = 1/k, \quad n = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

This can be verified by induction if we substitute the generating function for the rectangular distribution into Eq. (18). Then

$$p_k(n) = [n(1+1/2+1/3+\cdots+1/k]^{-1}, \quad n = 1, 2, ..., k.$$
 (21)

4. The Distribution of Z_k

It is not difficult to find expressions for $r_k(n)$ from the definitions Z_k and α_k : They are symmetric functions of α_j and $(1 - \alpha_j)$, j = 1,...,k. For example, if k = 4 we have:

$$\begin{split} r_4(1) &= (1-\alpha_1)(1-\alpha_2)(1-\alpha_3), \\ r_4(2) &= (1-\alpha_1)(1-\alpha_2)\,\alpha_3 + (1-\alpha_2)(1-\alpha_3)\,\alpha_1 + (1-\alpha_3)(1-\alpha_1)\,\alpha_2\,, \\ r_4(3) &= (1-\alpha_1)\,\alpha_2\alpha_3 + (1-\alpha_2)\,\alpha_1\alpha_3 + (1-\alpha_3)\,\alpha_1\alpha_2\,, \\ r_4(4) &= \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3\,. \end{split}$$

In the general case, we can write the difference equation

$$r_{k+1}(n) = r_k(n-1) \alpha_k + r_k(n)(1-\alpha_k).$$
 $n = 1,...,k, k = 1,2,...$ (22)

The corresponding difference equation for the generating function is

$$\tau_{k+1}(s) = [(1 - \alpha_k) + s\alpha_k] \tau_k(s),$$
(23)

which is easily solved:

$$\tau_k(s) = s \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} (1 - \alpha_j + s\alpha_j). \tag{24}$$

In case $\alpha_k = \alpha$ a constant, we see that Z_k is binomially distributed in the Yule-Simon model.

5. The Zipf Model

Zipf (1949) argued for very general types of data, principally population sizes, that the relative frequency of the *n*th category should be proportional to $n^{-\beta}$, where β is a parameter. In another paper (Haight, 1969) we have shown that this hypothesis is equivalent to

$$p(n) = (2n-1)^{-\beta} - (2n+1)^{-\beta}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (25)

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It is easy to see that, for this distribution the probability generating function $\pi(s)$ satisfies

$$\frac{\pi(s) - 1}{s - 1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{s^n}{(2n+1)^{\beta}}$$
 (26)

and the mean μ can be expressed in terms of the Riemann Zeta Function:

$$\mu = (1 - 2^{-\beta}) \zeta(\beta).$$

The corresponding values of the q(n) distribution are

$$q(n) = \frac{n[(2n-1)^{-\beta} - (2n+1)^{-\beta}]}{(1-2^{-\beta})\zeta(\beta)}.$$
 (28)

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