Linguistic Geocomputation with R

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This book is about

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Introduction

- 1.1 Why linguistic geocomputations?
- 1.2 Why do we need geostatistics in linguistics?
- 1.3 Why R?

Introduction to R language

Since this book includes a lot of R code examples, this chapter will describe some basics for those, who is not familiar with R. For purposes of understanding R code in this book you don't need any deep knowledge of R. In case you want to learn more, there are a lot of good books on it. I will list only few of them:

•

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2.1 Instalation

2.1.1 R instalation

To download R, go to CRAN. Don't try to pick a mirror that's close to you, instead it is better to use the cloud mirror, https://cloud.r-project.org.

2.1.2 RStudio

RStudio is an integrated development environment, or IDE, for R programming. There are two possibilities for using it:

- type R code in the R console pane, and press enter to run it;
- type R code in the Code editor pane, and press Control/Command + Enter to run selected part. It is easier to correct and it is possible to save the result as a script.

When you first launch RStudio it is more likely, that you won't see the Code Editor pane. It is possible to decrease R Console pane on icons in the pane's right upper corner.

Everything from this book will be available without RStudio installation. There are a lot of possibilities to work with R not using RStudio such as R console, command line, Jupyter Notebook, some plugins for working in Sublime, Vim, Emacs, Atom, Notepad++ and other programming text editors.

2.1.3 RStuio cloud

It is also possible not to install anything on your own PC, using RStudio Cloud, a web-based interface for Rstudio and R. In RStudio Cloud it is also possible to share your R projects and collaborate with a select group in a private space. RStudio Cloud is currently free to use, but soon there will be free and paid options.

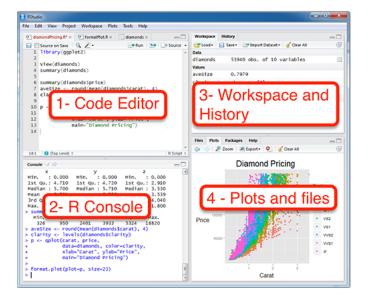


Figure 2.1: RStudio layout

2.2 Basic elements, variables, vectors, dataframe

2.2.1 Basic elements

```
[1] 7
-5.7
[1] -5.7
"bonjour"
[1] "bonjour"
"bon mot"
[1] "bon mot"
TRUE
[1] TRUE
[1] TRUE
[1] TRUE
```

2.2.2 Arithmetic operations

```
7+7
[1] 14
21-8
[1] 13
```

```
4*3
[1] 12
12/4
[1] 3
4^3
[1] 64
4**3
[1] 64
sum(1, 2,3, 4)
[1] 10
prod(1, 2,3, 4)
[1] 24
log(1)
[1] 0
log(100, base = 10)
[1] 2
рi
[1] 3.141593
exp(5)
[1] 148.4132
sin(13)
[1] 0.420167
cos(13)
[1] 0.9074468
```

2.2.3 Variables

[1] 7

```
my_var <- 7
my_var

[1] 7
my_var+7

[1] 14
my_var</pre>
```

```
my_var <- my_var + 7</pre>
```

2.2.4 Vectors

```
[1] 5 6 7 8 9
11:4
[1] 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4
numbers <- c(7, 9.9, 24)
multiple_strings <- c("the", "quick", "brown", "fox", "jumps", "over", "the", "lazy", "dog")
one_string <- c("the quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog")
true_false <- c(TRUE, FALSE, FALSE, TRUE)
length(numbers)
[1] 3
length(multiple_strings)
[1] 9
length(one_string)
[1] 1</pre>
```

2.2.5 Dataframes

```
1 a 1 TRUE
2 b 2 FALSE
3 c 3 FALSE

nrow(my_df)
```

```
[1] 3
ncol(my_df)
```

[1] 5

2.2.6 Indexing

```
numbers[3]
```

2.3. READING FILES 11

2.3 Reading files

We can read to R a dataset about Numeral Classifiers from AUTOTYP database.

new_df <- read.csv("https://raw.githubusercontent.com/autotyp/autotyp-data/master/data/Numeral_classifi
head(new_df)</pre>

```
0
                            FALSE
1 148
2 65
              0
                            FALSE
              0
                            FALSE
3 75
4 85
              0
                            FALSE
5 111
              NA
                               NA
                            FALSE
6 163
tail(new_df)
```

	LID	NumClass.n	NumClass.Presence
250	1397	0	FALSE
251	2994	5	TRUE
252	2779	0	FALSE
253	192	0	FALSE
254	551	0	FALSE
255	2564	2	TRUE

LID NumClass.n NumClass.Presence

It could be also a file on your computer, just provide a whole path to the file. Windows users need to change backslashes \ to slashes /.

```
new_df_2 <- read.csv("/home/agricolamz/my_file.csv")</pre>
```

Writing files from R

```
write.csv(new_df_2, "/home/agricolamz/my_new_file.csv",
         row.names = FALSE)
```

Missing data 2.5

In R, missing values are represented by the symbol NA (not available).

```
is.na(new_df$NumClass.Presence)
 [1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [12] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [23] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [34] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [45] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [56] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [67] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [78] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
 [89] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[100] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[111] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[122] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[133] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[144] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[155] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[166] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[177] TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE
[188] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[199] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[210] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[221] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[232] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[243] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
[254] FALSE FALSE
sum(is.na(new_df$NumClass.Presence))
[1] 5
sum(is.na(new_df))
```

[1] 22

How to get help in R

?nchar

2.7. PACKAGES

Installing a package

install.packages('mypackage')



Loading a package

library('mypackage')





Figure 2.2: Lamp metaphore

2.7 Packages

There are a lot of R packages for solving a lot of different problems. There are two way for install them (you need an internet connection):

• packages on CRAN are checked in multiple ways and should be stable

```
install.packages("lingtypology")
```

• packages on GitHub are NOT checked and could contain anything, but it is the place where all package developers keep the last vertion of they work.

```
install.packages("devtools")
devtools::install_github("ropensci/lingtypology")
```

or package file

After the package is installed you need to load the package using the following command:

```
library("lingtypology")
```

There is a nice picture from Phillips N. D. (2017) YaRrr! The Pirate's Guide to R:

Map creation

Linguistical databases

- 4.1 Linguistical databases APIs
- 4.2 Linguistical databases creation

Look 4.1 and 3

Spatial statistics

5.1 Not all similarities are the same

In previous chapters we have learnt how to visualize different linguistic features on the map. But, as title says, not all similarities observed in data are the same. Some languages share some features, because the trait was inherited from a common ancestor. This type of similarities are called **homologous**. For example the majority of the Slavic languages (except Bulgarian and Macedonian) have a case system, because they inherited this from Proto-Slavic. Despite coming from different ancestors some languages can independently evolve some analogous traits. This type of similarities are called **analogous**. For example despite Proto-Slavic, Latin and Proto-Germanic had case systems, few offspring languages such as Bulgarian, English and French independently lost their case systems.

Analogous similarities are commonly divided into areal and typological. Areal similarities are tend to arise due to the language contact in some multilingual area. Classic example of such an area is Balkans, that have been firstly introduced as a linguistic area in (Trubetzkoy, 1928). Several other areas were introduced later (see Muysken, 2008). Other similarities that could be found in languages of the world are typological similarities — traits that are independently evolved in some languages. For example ejective sounds could be found mostly in Caucasus, Central Africa and North America and it seems like this spatial distribution couldn't be explained neither by a common ancestor nor by a language contact.

To sum up the whole similarity typology:

- homologous
- analogous
 - areal
 - typological

It is really important to keep this typology in mind providing the spatial analysis. During such an analysis we try to find a patterns in data, describe correlation between some variables etc. But all kind of analyses discussed in this chapter can not distinguish all kinds of similarities listed above. So during the analysis researcher need to remmember that similarities observed in data could have different nature.

Conclusion

Bibliography

Muysken, P. (2008). From linguistic areas to areal linguistics, volume 90. John Benjamins Publishing.

Trubetzkoy, N. S. (1928). Proposition 16. In Acts of the First International Congress of Linguists, pages 17-18.