LAB: Linguistic Annotated Bibliography – A searchable portal for normed database

information

Erin M. Buchanan[1], K. D. Valentine[2], & Nicholas P. Maxwell[1]

[1] Missouri State University

[2] University of Missouri

Author Note

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Erin M. Buchanan, 901 S. National Ave, Springfield, MO 65897. E-mail: erinbuchanan@missouristate.edu

16   Abstract

17   This article presents the Linguistic Annotated Bibliography (LAB) as a searchable web

18   portal to quickly and easily access reliable database norms, related programs, and variable

19   calculations. These publications were coded by language, number of stimuli, stimuli type

20   (i.e., words, pictures, symbols), keywords (i.e., frequency, semantics, valence), and other

21   useful information. This tool not only allows researchers to search for the specific type of

22   stimuli needed for experiments, but also permits the exploration of publication trends across

23   100 years of research. Details about the portal creation and use are outlined, as well as

24   various analyses of change in publication rates and keywords. In general, advances in

25   computational power have allowed for the increase in dataset size in the recent decades, in

26   addition to an increase in the number of linguistic variables provided in each publication.

27   *Keywords:* database, stimuli, online portal, megastudy, trends

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The advance of computational ability and the Internet have propelled research into an era of "big data" that has interesting implications for the field of psycholinguistics, as well as other experimental areas that use normed stimuli for their research. Traditionally, stimuli used for experimental psycholinguistics research were first normed through small in-house pilot studies, which were then used in many subsequent projects. While economic, the results from these studies could be potentially misleading, as the results may be due to the stimuli, rather than experimental manipulation. Small individual lab norming projects may be tied to a lack of funding, time, computational power, or even interest in studying phenomena at the stimuli level. Now, we have the capability to collect, analyze, and publish large datasets for research into memory models (Cree, McRae, & McNorgan, 1999; Moss, Tyler, & Devlin, 2002; Rogers & McClelland, 2004; Vigliocco, Vinson, Lewis, & Garrett, 2004), aphasias (Vinson, Vigliocco, Cappa, & Siri, 2003), featural probability (Cree & McRae, 2003; McRae, Sa, & Seidenberg, 1997; Pexman, Holyk, & Monfils, 2003), valence (Dodds, Harris, Kloumann, Bliss, & Danforth, 2011; Vo et al., 2009; Warriner, Kuperman, & Brysbaert, 2013), and reading speeds and priming (Balota et al., 2007; Cohen-Shikora, Balota, Kapuria, & Yap, 2013; Hutchison et al., 2013; Keuleers, Lacey, Rastle, & Brysbaert, 2012) to name a small subset of research avenues.

Big data has manifested in psycholinguistics over the last decade in the form of grant funded megastudies to collect and analyze large text corpora (i.e., the SUBTLEX projects) or to examine numerous word properties (i.e., the Lexicon projects). The SUBTLEX projects were designed to analyze frequency counts for concepts across large corpora sizes using subtitles as a substitute for natural speech. The investigation of these measures was first spurred by the realization that word frequency is an important predictor of naming and lexical decision times (Balota, Cortese, Sergent-Marshall, Spieler, & Yap, 2004; Rayner &

⁵⁴ Duffy, 1986). While previous measures of frequency (i.e., Baayen, Piepenbrock, Gulikers, &

⁵⁵ Linguistic Data Consortium, 1995; Burgess & Livesay, 1998; Kučera & Francis, 1967) were

⁵⁶ based on large one million+ word corpora, they were poor predictors of response latencies

⁵⁷ (Balota et al., 2004; Brysbaert & New, 2009; Zevin & Seidenberg, 2002). Further, Brysbaert

⁵⁸ and New (2009) indicate the importance of corpus' characteristics for psycholinguistic

⁵⁹ studies, as the underlying source of the text data matters (Internet versus subtitles), as well

⁶⁰ as the contextual diversity of the data (i.e., number of occurrences across sources; Adelman,

⁶¹ Brown, & Quesada, 2006). Not only has Brysbaert and New (2009)'s work been included in

⁶² newer lexical studies (Hutchison et al., 2013; Yap, Tan, Pexman, & Hargreaves, 2011), but

⁶³ SUBTLEX projects have been published in Dutch (Keuleers, Brysbaert, & New, 2010),

⁶⁴ Greek (Dimitropoulou, Duñabeitia, Avilés, Corral, & Carreiras, 2010), Spanish (Cuetos,

⁶⁵ Glez-Nosti, Barbon, & Brysbaert, 2011), Chinese (Cai & Brysbaert, 2010), French (New,

⁶⁶ Brysbaert, Veronis, & Pallier, 2007), British English (Heuven, Mandera, Keuleers, &

⁶⁷ Brysbaert, 2014), Polish (Mandera, Keuleers, Wodniecka, & Brysbaert, 2015), and German

⁶⁸ (Brysbaert et al., 2011).

⁶⁹   The Lexicon projects involved creating large databases of mono- and multisyllabic

⁷⁰ words to assist in the creation of controlled experimental stimuli sets for future experiments.

⁷¹ These databases contain lexical decision and naming response latencies, as well as typical

⁷² word confound variables such as orthographic neighborhood, phonological, and

⁷³ morphological characteristics. While the English Lexicon Project (Balota et al., 2007) is the

⁷⁴ most cited of the lexicons, other languages include Chinese (Sze, Rickard Liow, & Yap, 2014;

⁷⁵ Tse et al., 2017), Malay (Yap, Rickard Liow, Jalil, & Faizal, 2010), Dutch (Keuleers et al.,

⁷⁶ 2010), and British English (Keuleers et al., 2012). Similar lexical database publications can

⁷⁷ be found in the literature covering French (Lété, Sprenger-Charolles, & Colé, 2004), Italian

⁷⁸ (Barca, Burani, & Arduino, 2002), Arabic (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2010), and

⁷⁹ Portuguese (Soares et al., 2014).

The availability of big data has augmented the psycholinguistic literature, but these projects are certainly time consuming due to the amount of participant data required to achieve reliable and stable norms. A solution to large data collection lies in several avenues of easily obtainable data. First, Amazon's Mechanical Turk, an online crowd sourcing avenue that allows researchers to pay users to complete questionnaires, can be a reliable, diverse participant pool made available at very low cost (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). Researchers can pre-screen for specific populations, as well as post-screen surveys for incomplete or inappropriate responses (Buchanan & Scofield, 2018), thus saving time and money with the elimination of poor data. Because of the popularity of Mechanical Turk, large amounts of data can be collected in shorter time periods than traditional experiments. Mechanical Turk has been used to collect data for semantic word pair norms (Buchanan, Holmes, Teasley, & Hutchison, 2013), age of acquisition ratings (Kuperman, Stadthagen-Gonzalez, & Brysbaert, 2012), concreteness ratings (Brysbaert, Warriner, & Kuperman, 2014), past tense information (Cohen-Shikora et al., 2013), and valence and arousal ratings (Dodds et al., 2011; Warriner et al., 2013). Additionally, in a similar vein to the SUBTLEX projects, linguistic data has been mined from open source data, such as the New York Times, music lyrics, and Twitter (Dodds et al., 2011; Kloumann, Danforth, Harris, Bliss, & Dodds, 2012). Finally, De Deyne, Navarro, and Storms (2013) have seen success in setting up a special website (www.smallworldofwords.com) to gamify the collection of word pair association norms.

The evolution of big data provides exciting opportunities for exploration into psycholinguistics, and this article features the trends in publications of normed datasets across the literature, allowing for a large-scale picture of the developments of trends in psychological stimuli. Historically, these norms have been published in journals connected to the Psychonomic Society, such as Behavior Research Methods, Psychonomic Monograph Supplements, and Perception and Psychophysics. The Psychonomic Society once hosted an electronic database that contained the links to these norms, as well as a search tool to find

information about previously published works (Vaughan, 2004). The sale of the society

journals to Springer publications has improved journal visibility and user-friendly access, but

also has left a need for an indexed list of database publications that span multiple keywords

and journal websites. Other researchers have started a similar task, publishing the Language

Goldmine, an online searchable database of linguistic resources (List, Winter, & Wedel, n.d.).

Within the Language Goldmine, users can find over two-hundred citations for linguistic

resources, which are mostly corpora. This article extends that resource by: 1) presenting a

searchable, cataloged database of normed stimuli and related materials for a wide range of

experimental research, and 2) to examine trends in the publications of these articles to assess

the big data movement within cognitive psychology.

Website

This manuscript was written with *R* markdown and *papaja* (Aust & Barth, 2017) and

can be found at https://osf.io/9bcws/. Readers can find the LAB's website by going to

http://www.wordnorms.com, and the source files for the website can be found at

https://github.com/doomlab/wordnorms. From the webpage, the top navigation bar

includes a link to direct the reader to the LAB page. On the LAB page, we have included a

purpose statement and several summary options. First, the two variable tables include

summary descriptions about the stimuli and keyword (tag) variables in this study using an

embedded Shiny application. Shiny is an open source graphical user interface *R* package that

allows researchers to build interactive web applications (Chang, Cheng, Allaire, Xie, &

McPherson, 2017). These apps connect to the LAB database and display the current sample

size *N*, minimum, maximum, mean standard deviation, and correlation across years for each

variable, when appropriate. The advantage to using Shiny apps is dynamic updating of the

database, so as new information is added, the app will display the most current statistics,

while this paper represents a static point in the database development.The entire dataset can

132 be viewed and filtered based on keyword, language, and stimuli type. This search app allows

133 for multiple filter options, so a person may drill down into very specific search criteria.

134 Underneath the search functions, yearly trend visualization and descriptive statistics may be

135 found including frequency tables of stimuli and keywords. Finally, the complete database in

136 .csv format can be downloaded. Specific features will be outlined below in relation to the

137 database creation.

138　　The website includes more information on versioning of the dataset for users to

139 reference, along with instructions on how and what others can contribute to the LAB.

140 Viewers can suggest articles that should be included in the dataset by using the online

141 Mendeley group (requires login and account) at

142 https://www.mendeley.com/community/the-lab-linguistic-annotated-bibliography/ or using

143 the email link included in the top right corner of the website. Mendeley is free reference

144 software that allows for open source groups to collaborate on curating reference lists.

145 Additionally, we have provided a BibTex reference file linked on the website that can be

146 imported into most reference software programs.

147   **Database Methods**

148 **Materials**

149　　Bradshaw (1984) and Proctor and Vu (1999)'s lists of database information were used

150 as starting points for collection of research articles. We searched *Academic Search Premier*,

151 *PsycInfo*, and *ERIC* through the EBSCO host system, as well as *Google Scholar* and *PLoS*

152 *One* to find other relevant articles using the following keywords: *corpus, linguistic database,*

153 *linguistic norms, norms,* and *database.* Additionally, since a large number of the original

154 articles were hosted by the Psychonomic Society, the Springer website was searched with

155 these terms that covered the newer editions of *Behavior Research Methods* and *Memory &*

156 *Cognition.* We then filtered for articles that met the following criteria: 1) contained database

157 information as supplemental material, 2) demonstrated programs related to building research

158 stimuli using normed databases, or 3) generated new calculations of lexical variables.

159 Research articles that used normed databases in experimental design or tested those

160 variables validity/reliability were excluded if they did not include new database information.

161 Additional articles were found while coding initial publications by searching citations for

162 stimuli selection. For example, the Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980) norms were cited in

163 multiple newer articles on line drawings, and therefore this article was subsequently entered

164 into the database. Last, we consulted the Language Goldmine and included all citations

165 from this resource that could still be accessed (List et al., n.d.). At the time of writing, 884

166 articles, books, websites, and technical reports were included in the following analyses.

Coding Procedure

168   The tables with summaries from Bradshaw (1984) and Proctor and Vu (1999) were

169 consulted for a starting point for data coding. Next, the first round of articles found

170 (approximately 100) were analyzed to determine information that would be pertinent to a

171 user who wished to search for normed stimuli. Based on these reviews and lab discussions,

172 we coded the following information from each article: 1) journal information, 2) stimuli

173 types, 3) stimuli language, 4) program or corpus name, 5) keywords, which we refer to as

174 tags, 6) special populations, and 7) other notes that did not fit into those categories. Each

175 piece of information is detailed below. In some instances, codes were not used as frequently

176 as expected based on these initial discussions, but were included to allow more specificity in

177 searching, as well as the flexibility to include those options for articles subsequently added to

178 the database.

179   **Journal Information.**   Each article was coded with the citation information, and a

180 complete list of citations can be found on the website portal by going to the search data

section. All author last names are listed, along with publication year, article title, journal title, volume, page numbers, and digital object identifier (DOI) when available. This information is listed in citation format in the Shiny app and separated into columns in the downloadable data for easier sorting and searching. A complete list of publication sources and percentages can be found online by using the frequency statistics link.

Stimuli Types. While this publication was originally intended for traditional linguistic database norms, other types of experimental stimuli used in concept studies were apparent after background review. Therefore, stimuli were coded based on the dominant description from the article (i.e., although heteronyms are words and word pairs, they were coded specifically as heteronyms). The number of stimuli presented in the appendix or database was coded with the stimuli if it was avaliable. Generally, programs, corpora, and experimental creation tools did not include this information, which are the majority of the "other" stimuli category. Because many articles included two types of stimuli, or references to different articles where stimuli were selected from, two options for stimuli were included.

Therefore, the total values for number of stimuli do not add up to the number of articles in the database because of multiple instances in articles or no stimuli for program descriptions. Table 1 includes a stimuli list, the number of times that each stimuli was used, percentage of the total stimuli codes, minimum, maximum, the mean and standard deviation of the number of those stimuli. Brief variable descriptions are provided online under variable tables. Researchers often cited specific previous works where stimuli were selected from, and these references were included, which can be found in the downloaded data. Table 1 is included dynamically online under "view the variable table"" and "view the frequency table".

Stimuli Language. The language of the stimuli set was coded by starting with the most common languages from the first articles surveyed, and others were added as it was apparent that several norms were present for that language (such as Japanese, Dutch, and Greek). A multiple category was created for for datasets with more than one set of language

norms, with more information about the languages available provided in the notes column. If the stimuli were non-linguistic selections, like pictures and line drawings, the language of the participants used to norm the set was used, which was commonly English. In order to help distinguish these norms, a column was added that denoted non-linguistic norms (coded as 0 for linguistic, 1 for non-linguistic). For each language, the Glottolog codes were added in a separate column to help identify them (Hammarstrom, Forkel, & Haspelmath, n.d.). One potential limitation of the LAB was that English is the first language for the authors; however, translation tools were used to code sources found in other languages. Table 2 indicates language frequencies and percentages, and the online version can be found by clicking the view frequency statistics link.

Program/corpus name.   In many instances, megastudies are often named, such as the English Lexicon Project (Balota et al., 2007), for easier reference. This information was included in the dataset, which will also help researchers with the stimuli references as described above. For example, a newer study may reference using the BOSS database (Brodeur, Dionne-Dostie, Montreuil, & Lepage, 2010) and having that information would make searching for the original article easier by using the corpus name column (especially in instances the dataset name is not listed in the article title). The names of programs or tools were also entered, such as NIM (Guasch, Boada, Ferré, & Sánchez-Casas, 2013), a newer stimuli selection tool for psycholinguistic studies.

Keyword Tags.   Keyword tags are the majority of the database, as they allow for the best understanding of trends and availability of stimuli. Tables 3 and 4 portray a list of tags, frequencies, percentages, and correlations (described below) for tags with sample sizes greater than 10. Tag descriptions are provided online under tag table. Each article was coded with tags based on the description of the accessible data, and a single article may have multiple tags. However, due to the cumulative nature of database research, this tagging system does not mean that each article collected that particular type of data. The most

common example of this distinction occurs when data was combined across sources, but presented in a new article. The Maki, McKinley, and Thompson (2004) semantic distance norms also included values from the South Florida Free Association norms (Nelson, McEvoy, & Schreiber, 2004), and Latent Semantic Analysis (Landauer & Dumais, 1997). Therefore, this article was coded with association and semantics, even though the association norms were not collected in that paper. As described above, some small frequency tags were used because of the initial pass through newer articles, but these were left in the database because of their specificity, and they can be used in future additions.

Special Populations. While coding articles, it became apparent that a subset of the normed data was tested on specific special populations. Consequently, demographic data such as gender, age, ethnicity, and grade school year were listed as described in the article (i.e., if ages were used, age was listed, but if grade year was used, it was listed rather than translating to specific ages).

Other/Notes. Lastly, places for more description were included for tags or variables not frequently used, which was especially useful for program descriptions, as well as descriptions of specific types of stimuli (i.e., CVC trigrams). In several instances, notes that appeared frequently were moved to tags (such as similarity) after the database had several hundred articles sampled. All information described above without a specific table (special populations, other, program/corpus names, and journal information) can be found by downloading the complete dataset.

Results and Discussion

Journals

Journal results, unsurprisingly, show that the wealth of data was published in *Behavior Research Methods* (57.6% combined across name changes).The next largest publishers of

²⁵⁷ articles were *Psychonomic Monograph Supplements* (2.1%), *Journal of Verbal Learning and*

²⁵⁸ *Verbal Behavior* (1.7%), *Psychonomic Science* (1.7%), *Journal of Experimental Psychology*

²⁵⁹ (combined across subjournals, 2.5%), *Perception & Psychophysics* (1.5%), *Memory &*

²⁶⁰ *Cognition* (1.4%), *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society* (0.8%), and *Norms of Word*

²⁶¹ *Association* (0.9%; Postman & Keppel, 1970). The complete list can be found in the

²⁶² frequency statistics online, as there were many different entries for journals, books, and

²⁶³ websites of publications. While some of these sources were not published with peer review,

²⁶⁴ they were generally found through citations of other peer-reviewed work or through the

²⁶⁵ Language Goldmine. Although *Behavior Research Methods* has dominated the field for

²⁶⁶ publications, the large array of options for publishing indicates a growth in the available

²⁶⁷ avenues for researchers in this field (for example, open source journals such as *PLoS ONE*

²⁶⁸ and websites).

²⁶⁹   Figure 1 portrays the number of publications across years, and there has been a clear

²⁷⁰ expansion of database and program papers, as part of the growth in big data. Interestingly,

²⁷¹ a first growth of publications tracks with the 1950s cognitive revolution (Miller, 2003), but

²⁷² an odd decline in publications occurred from the 1970s to 1990s. The last twenty years has

²⁷³ shown unbelievable progress in this area, at over 359 publications since 2010 alone. This

²⁷⁴ chart can be found in greater detail online, under the Papers Per Year, showing the ups and

²⁷⁵ downs of publications by year in a larger format with the ability to control year range. For

²⁷⁶ example, 2004, 2008-2018 were big years for linguistic publications, each with 30 or more

²⁷⁷ publications. Even with these fluctuations, a clear growth curve in publications can be found

²⁷⁸ since the 90s.

²⁷⁹   **Stimuli.**   Stimuli are presented in Table 1, and a review of this table indicated that

²⁸⁰ the publication of word stimuli was the largest category (38.2%), followed by corpora (11.9%).

²⁸¹ Other types of word stimuli also appear commonly in the LAB data such as categories,

²⁸² letters, and word pairs. Because linguistic data was of particular interest, we selected

publications based on words and word pairs, and plotted the number of stimuli presented in the paper to examine big data trends. These data were broken down by set size in Figure 2. The upper left hand quadrant shows all stimuli across years, and the big data publications stand out in the last fifteen years of publications. We excluded two data points that included over one million words to show the increase in publication of larger datasets across years. This data was then further broken down into smaller datasets (<10,000 stimuli; upper right quadrant), and larger datasets (10,000+ stimuli; bottom left quadrant). The smaller dataset graph shows that these publications are common across time, while the bottom quadrant was more telling for the megastudies trend investigation. As with languages and tags (below), we see an increase in the number of larger datasets across the years.

Languages. The variety and number of languages for stimuli provided a picture of the growth and diversity of psycholinguistic stimuli, as seen in Table 2. A growing number of articles include non-English languages including Spanish (6.9%), French (5.2%), German (4.2%), and even include multiple languages (9.7%). To examine trends, the English only articles were filtered out of the dataset since they were the majority of publications (53.2%) and were published across all years present in this data. Of the 389 non-English publications, 86 included multiple languages, and 45 of these were published after 2010. Additionally, the last ten years (2008 and later) have seen an explosion of publications in non-English languages: 256, with 32 in 2017 alone. The publication of varied languages is still largely from WEIRD cultures (Western Educated Industrialized Rich Democratic; Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010) and Indo-European languages, thus, indicating room for cross linguistic improvement.

Tags. Tables 3 and 4 display the number, percentages, correlations of tags across year for tags with sample sizes greater than 10. Undoubtedly, these tags represent changes in terminology over time, and some could be combined or recoined. However, even if low frequency ($N <= 10$; 11 tags in our dataset) tags were excluded, 38 different tags were used

309 to describe the types of psycholinguistic data. Many of these tags can be considered

310 individual research areas, and the sizeable number of different options indicates how complex

311 and diverse the field has become since the publication of free association norms in 1910

312 (Kent & Rosanoff, 1910).

313   The total number of tags for each publication was then tallied, and this data was

314 plotted in Figure 3 to visualize if the number of variables included in a study has grown over

315 time ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 2.30$). The correlation between total tags and year was $r = .17$, 95%

316 CI [.10, .23], $t(843) = 4.90$, $p < .001$, indicating a small increase in total tags used over time.

317 Even considering the larger number of publications in the 2000s versus 1950s to 1970s, it

318 appeared that the number of keywords for articles was also slowly growing over time. This

319 trend may indicate the evolution in computing possibilities to be able to publish large

320 amounts of data, but also may indicate a desire to combine datasets so that even more

321 stimuli may be considered at once for modeling or experiment creation.

322   Next, tags with at least thirty publications were investigated individually for trends

323 across time (correlations presented in Tables 3 and 4). Individual histograms can be created

324 by using the Tags Per Year area online, which show the total frequency of the selected tag by

325 year. Some small positive trends were found, such as the increase in arousal, age of

326 acquisition, syllables, familiarity, and valence norms. Intriguingly, meaningfulness and

327 association both showed negative correlations, but these correlations can be understood as

328 an artifact of the publication of a book on association norms in the 1970s (Postman &

329 Keppel, 1970), as well as a recent drop off of in the small but steady use of meaningfulness.

330 These small correlations may partially be explained by the sheer number and variation of

331 data available in the LAB portal, as one would expect the number of frequency tags to

332 increase with the recent SUBTLEX publications. Indeed, if the frequency tags were plotted

333 by year an increase across the last decade (18 in 2010, 15 in 2013, and 22 in 2014) can be

334 found. Readers are encouraged to view the individual graphs for tags to investigate the

change of keyword publication over time, including the rise and demise of several research

areas. For example, confusion matrices heyday appeared to range from the early 70s to the

mid 80s, while arousal norms do not make a consistent appearance until the late 90s.

Conclusion

This article had two main purposes: 1) to present the LAB dataset and portal as an

annotated bibliography and searchable tool for researchers, and 2) to view trends in

psycholinguistic research with an eye toward big data. We believe the LAB website will be a

useful channel for all levels of researchers, from graduate students looking for experimental

stimuli to design their experiments, to the familiar investigator who wishes to dig deeper into

the diverse choices offered. The Language Goldmine presents a similar resource, but the

advantage to the LAB is the breadth of publications coded, as well as the coding schema

that allowed for investigation of individual trends in publication. While the majority of

publications occur in one particular journal, the LAB allows someone to find articles they

may have missed in other areas with the advantage of being collected into one location.

User-friendly search tools are provided to aide in searching for specific languages, stimuli, or

keywords, as well as multiple outputs for easy copying into Excel or SPSS. While this

article's statistics will become dated with the updates to the LAB, dynamic tables and

graphs are provided online to see the current status of the field. Lastly, we encourage users

to actively report errors and suggest updates for the LAB dataset as a way to crowd source

information that is surely missing, especially in non-English languages.

In the introduction, we provided two examples of current megastudies (SUBTLEX and

the Lexicon projects), in addition to how researchers might collect big data through

Mechanical Turk or Twitter. This article focused on the breadth of the field to use the

information provided by publications as a window into the fluctuations of interest in areas.

Megastudies have become a prevalent topic, but data could have revealed that this popularity

360 was due to recent publication of a small subset of articles. Instead, analyses showed that not

361 only are the numbers of publications accumulating, but the sizes of datasets are also growing

362 in tandem. Megastudies specifically focus on large datasets, but big data can also be

363 indicated here by the divergence in languages available, number of places to publish such

364 data, and the increasing number of keywords for articles across years. Time will tell if these

365 trends can and will continue or if certain areas will see a confusion matrix type decline after

366 several large datasets are published. With the move of traditional lab experiments to

367 smartphone and tablet technology (Dufau et al., 2011), it seems likely that researchers in

368 psycholinguistics will continue to find new and creative ways to modernize the field.

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Table 1

Stimuli Descriptive Statistics

Stimuli	N	Percent	Min	Max	M	SD
Anagrams	6	0.6	80	378	229.00	210.72
Categories	33	3.4	4	240	46.32	51.61
Characters	21	2.1	48	80651	8458.37	19210.92
Cloze/Sentences	35	3.6	5	1998	353.66	376.01
Color drawings	11	1.1	200	750	406.00	225.00
Corpus	116	11.9	40000	700000000	72787972.48	155024616.77
Homo/Heterographs	11	1.1	20	566	165.00	165.38
Homo/Heteronyms	5	0.5	114	578	343.75	251.45
Homo/Heterophones	4	0.4	40	207	148.00	93.66
Letters	57	5.8	9	8836	669.88	1564.37
Line drawings	44	4.5	22	520	253.93	130.51
Names	8	0.8	126	10000	2644.17	4080.78
Other	85	8.7	1	3061	666.13	876.87
Phonemes	9	0.9	10000	10000	10000.00	NA
Pictures	74	7.6	2	2941	431.26	480.61
Pseudowords	15	1.5	30	40481	14004.36	15223.04
Sentences	7	0.7	9	240	101.29	90.46
Sounds	15	1.5	22	2159	462.58	672.79
Syllables	11	1.1	20	303636	44868.80	100922.91
Symbols/Icons	9	0.9	68	600	294.60	195.07
Word Pairs	28	2.9	40	72186	8076.83	20871.25
Words	374	38.2	10	33500000	115731.45	1843018.04

Table 2

Language Descriptive Statistics

Language	N	Percent
Arabic	8	0.9
British English	25	2.8
Chinese	33	3.7
Dutch	18	2.0
English	470	53.2
French	46	5.2
German	37	4.2
Greek	6	0.7
Italian	20	2.3
Japanese	14	1.6
Multiple	86	9.7
Polish	6	0.7
Portuguese	18	2.0
Russian	6	0.7
Spanish	61	6.9

Note. Languages with less than five entries were excluded for publication space purposes.

Table 3

Tag Descriptive Statistics

Stimuli	N	Percent	r
Age of Acquisition	107	4.9	.134
Ambiguity/Word Meaning	31	1.4	-.076
Arousal	62	2.9	.173
Association	86	4.0	-.336
Category	48	2.2	-.068
Complexity	22	1.0	NA
Concreteness	73	3.4	.001
Confusion Matrices	18	0.8	NA
Context	14	0.6	NA
Dominance	33	1.5	.045
Familiarity	141	6.5	.116
Frequency	252	11.6	.005
Grapheme-Phoneme Correspondence	18	0.8	NA
Identification	17	0.8	NA
Identification - Lexical Decision	16	0.7	NA
Identification - Naming	50	2.3	.098
Image Agreement	24	1.1	NA
Imageability	95	4.4	.023
Letters	70	3.2	.081

Note. Correlation refers to the correlation between publication year and the frequency of a given tag when sample size is greater than 30.

Table 4

Tag Descriptive Statistics Continued

Stimuli	N	Percent	r
Meaningfulness	48	2.2	-.162
Morphology	24	1.1	NA
Name Agreement	47	2.2	.090
Orthographic Neighborhood	56	2.6	.112
Part of Speech	67	3.1	.095
Phonemes	62	2.9	.126
Phonological Neighborhood	38	1.8	.111
Pronunciation	16	0.7	NA
Response Times	78	3.6	.069
Recall	19	0.9	NA
Recognition	18	0.8	NA
Semantics	109	5.0	.056
Sensory/Motor	39	1.8	.071
Similarity	21	1.0	NA
Syllables	64	3.0	.148
Syntax	23	1.1	NA
Typicality	25	1.2	NA
Valence/Emotion	115	5.3	.156
Visual Complexity	40	1.8	.090

Note. Correlation refers to the correlation between publication year and the frequency of a given tag when sample size is greater than 30.
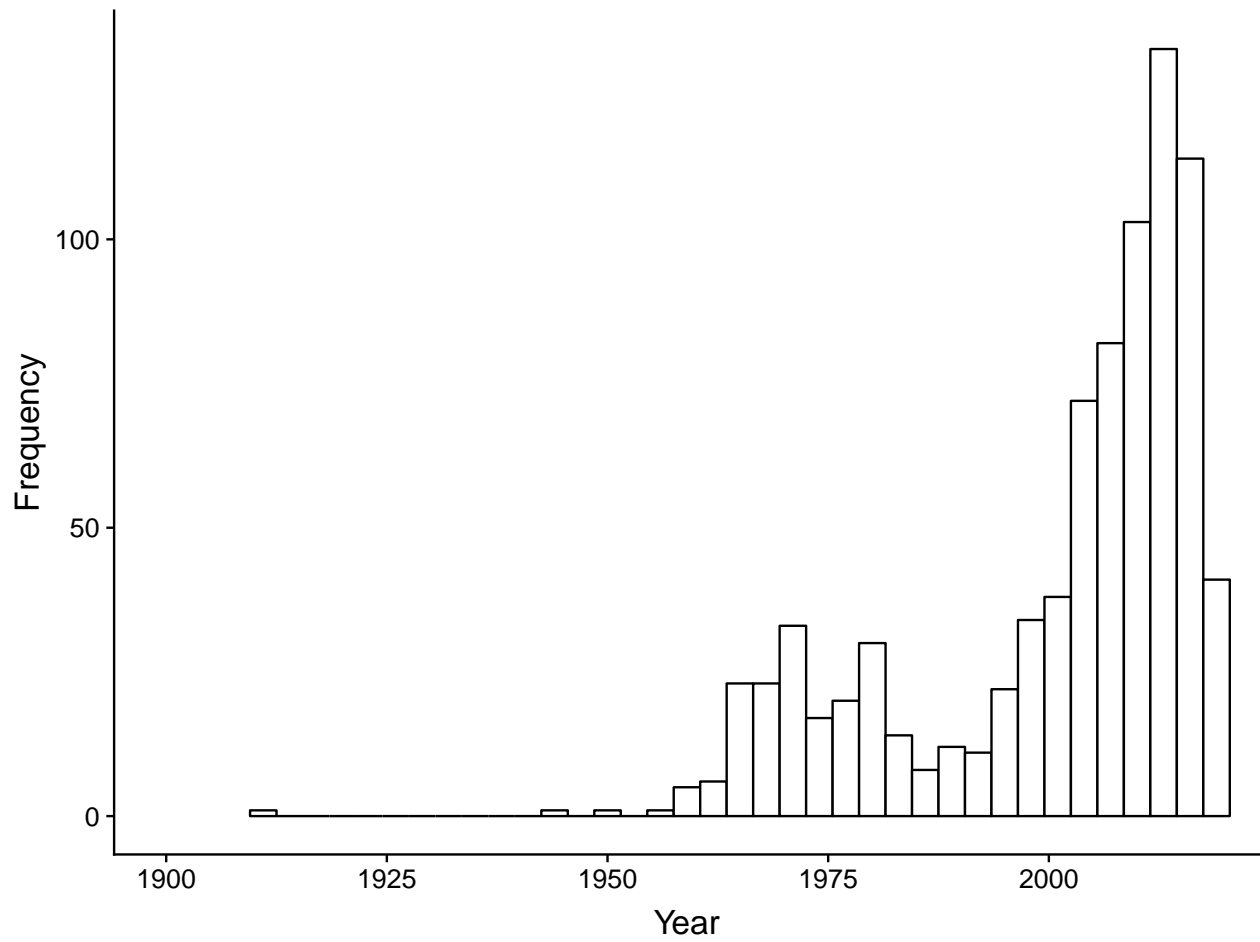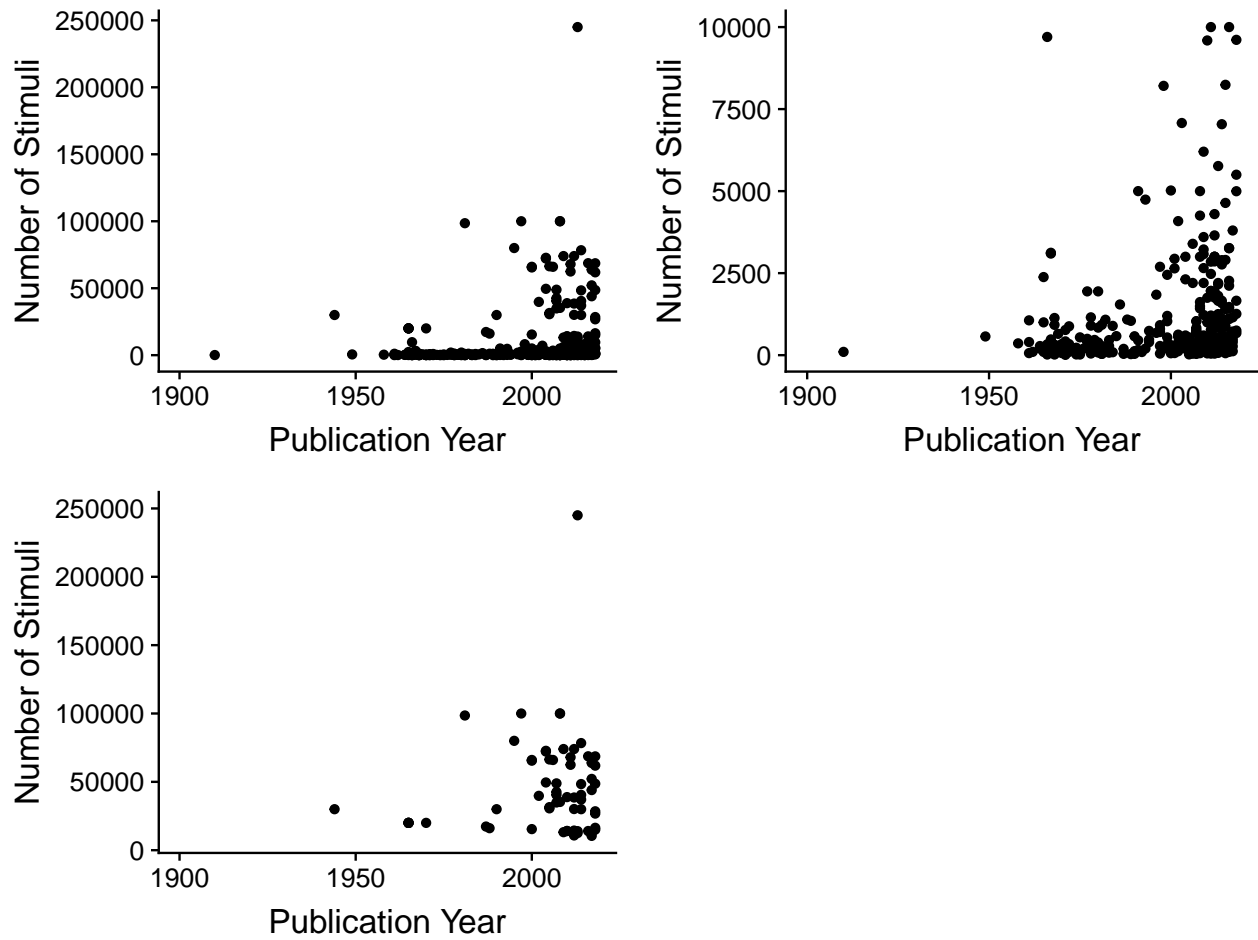
Figure 1. Overall publication frequency across years.

Figure 2. Number of word stimuli plotted across years. Top left quandrant includes all word stimuli, minus two outliers. Top right quadrant includes word stimuli ranging up to 10000 words, bottom left quadrant portrays stimuli counts exceeding 10000. The x-axis is consistent across graphs, however, the y-axis is scaled for the range of stimuli targeted in that graph.
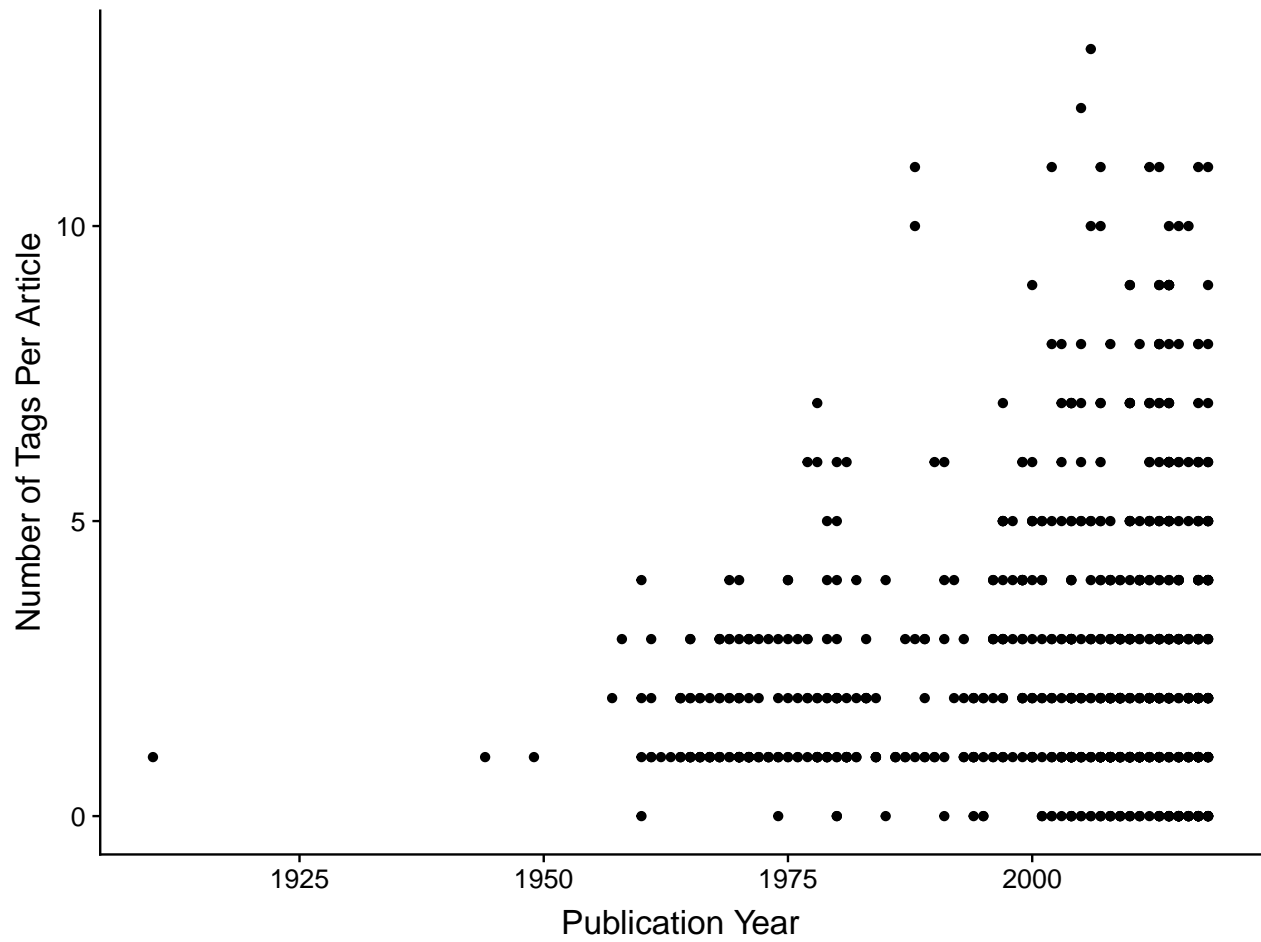
Figure 3. Number of tags included in each publication across years.