# Prototypes in the univerbation of German verb-noun units

Roland Schäfer Deutsche Sprache und Linguistik, Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin Dorotheenstraße 24, 10117 Berlin schaefer@hu-berlin.de Ulrike Sayatz Deutsche und niederl. Philologie, Freie Universität Berlin Habelschwerdter Allee 45, 14195 Berlin sayatz@fu-berlin.de

Abstract ...

Keywords: univerbation, prototypes, corpus data, experiments, German

- 1 The form and history of noun-verb units in German
- 2 The status of noun-verb units
- 3 Analysing the usage of verb-noun units

In this section, we apply both exploratory and confirmatory methods of analysing the univerbation of N+V units using corpus data. In Section 3.1, we lay out which research questions we answer through corpus analysis, and which corpus we chose as appropriate for the task. We then describe how we sampled and annotated (both automatically and manually) the data in Section 3.2. The results of estimating a multilevel model explaining the variation in the univerbation of N+V units are reported in Section 3.3. Finally, we corroborate the multilevel model through an alternative analysis in terms of association measures in Section 3.4, which will also partly be the basis of the experiment reported in Section 4.

## 3.1 Design and choice of corpus

The goals of the corpus study was (i) to assess which V+N units are used in written German, (ii) to corroborate that morphosyntactic contexts, internal relations, and linking elements influence the probability of univerbation, and finally (iii) to show how strongly the individual N+V units are attracted by univerbation. The operationalisations relied on the fact that the major graphemic principles in German are clear and dominant, and that they are both deeply rooted in diachrony and well entrenched in writers' usage. The relevant major principle for the present study was compound spelling of syntactic words, and we interpreted compound spelling as a direct indication of univerbation in the writers' grammars.

Research questions (i) and (iii) – as opposed to (ii) – are clearly not driven by strong specific hypotheses derived from theory, and we consequently adopted a data-driven approach with a post-hoc interpretation of the results. Hence, we needed to extract (close to) *all* relevant N+V units from an ideally very large and varied corpus as a first step. In a second step, we had to count their occurrences in compound and separate spelling in the relevant morphosyntactic contexts enumerated in Section 1, viz. as the heads of noun phrases, in *am* progressives, as participles in analytical verb forms, and as infinitives in a range of verbal constructions (for example with modal verbs).

Clearly, a large corpus with rich morphological and morphosyntactic annotations containing texts written in a broad variety of registers and styles (including ones written under low normative pressure) was required. We chose the DECOW16B corpus (Schäfer & Bildhauer 2012) because it fulfils all the aforementioned criteria. Much like the SketchEngine corpora (Kilgarriff et al. 2014), the COW corpora contain web documents from recent years. However, the German DECOW (containing 20.5 billion tokens in 808 million sentences and 17.1 million documents) offers a much wider range of annotations compared to SketchEngine corpora, including morphological annotations and several levels of syntactic annotation (dependencies and topological parses). For our purpose, the fully internal analysis of nominal compounds described in Schäfer & Pankratz (2018) was particularly of interest. It allows for searches of roots within nominal compounds. For example, we could query compounds with a deverbal head such as *Zeitnehmen* ('time

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Question (iii) only makes sense, of course, under the general hypothesis of item-specific effects in grammar from usage-based theories. Also note that the results obtained under question (iii) were used in the choice of the stimuli for the experiment reported in Section 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> https://www.webcorpora.org

taking'). Furthermore, the interface offered by the creators of the COW corpora allows for automated queries controlled by Python scripts using the open-source SeaCOW interface.<sup>3</sup> The scripts we used to make the queries are released on a curated open-data server along with all data as well as the ETEX, knitr, and R scripts created in the writing of this paper.<sup>4</sup>

### 3.2 Sampling and annotation

The first step of the implementation of the corpus study was the generation of a list of actually occurring N+V units. We obtained such a list by querying for compounds with a nominal non-head and a deverbal head. (See the scripts available under the abovementioned DOI for concrete queties and further details.) The rationale behind this approach was that any N+V unit of interest should occur at least one in compound spelling as a fully nominalised compound. Since this step relied on automatic annotation, the results contained erroneous results, which we cleaned manually. The resulting list contained 819 N+V units.<sup>5</sup>

In the second step, we created lists of all relevant inflectional forms of the verb in each V+N unit and used these to query all possible compound and separate spellings (including variance in capitalisation) of each of the 819 N+V units. In total, 28,665 queries were executed to create the final data set used here, a number which clearly demonstrates the necessity of script-based corpus access in data-driven methods. The queries were matched by 958,118 compound spellings and 1,288,768 separate spellings, which results in a total sample size of 2,246,886.

For each N+V unit in the sample, the following variables were annotated automatically: (i) the verb, (ii) the noun, (iii) whether a linking element is used in the use as a full noun, (iv) the overall frequency in the corpus. Additionally, we manually coded all 819 N+V units for the relation holding between the verb and the noun (see Section 1). The codes used in clear-cut cases were *Object* (441 units) and *Adjunct* (286 units). For 92 units, both relations were conceivable, and those cases were coded as *Undetermined*. This class is illustrated by *Daumenlutschen* ("thumb sucking"), which corresponds to the VPs in either (1a) or (1b).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> https://github.com/rsling/seacow

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The DOI of the data set will be revealed in the accepted version of this paper.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Notice that three highly frequent N+V units were excluded because they could be considered outliers, having an overly strong tendency to be used in compound spelling. They are *Teilnehmen* ("take part"), *Maßnehmen* ("take measure"), and *Teilhaben* ("have part" = "participate").

- (1) a. [den Daumen]<sub>NP<sub>Acc</sub></sub> lutschen the thumb suck
  - b. [am Daumen]<sub>pp</sub> lutschen on the thumb suck

#### 3.3 Results 1: Multilevel model

In this section, we present the parameter estimates (and predictions of conditional modes) for a binomial multilevel model (or generalised linear mixed model, GLMM) which models the – in our view – the relevant factors influencing speakers' choice of the compound and the separate spelling.<sup>6</sup> Given the grand total of 2,246,886 observations in the sample (see Section 3.2), we will completely refrain of using inferential statistics per se. For samples of such magnitude in data-driven approaches, frequentist significance tests are the wrong tool. Bayesian methods, on the other hand, reliably converge with frequentist methods at this sample size. Therefore, we provide standard likelihood ratio confidence intervals for parameter estimates and prediction intervals for conditional modes as an approximate measure quantifying the precision of the parameter estimates and predictions. The models we specify reflect theoretically motivated decisions, and we therefore reject all types of model selection by means of step-up or step-down procedures.

As argued in Section 2, we expect the probability of the univerbation of N+V units to depend on the morphosyntactic context, the relation holding between the verb and the noun, the presence of absence of a linking element in the nominal compound (as a marker of a stronger reconceptualisation) and on the specific N+V unit (a lexical tendency). Accordingly, the response variable was chosen to be the proportion of compound spellings among all the spellings of the N+V unit. In the input data provided to the estimator the response variable was thus a vector of 819 proportions, one for each N+V unit.<sup>7</sup> We specified four regressors. The only first-level

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See (Schäfer 2020, to appear) for an overview of the method and our philosophy in modelling.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Binomial models can be specified in this manner (Zuur et al. 2009: 245–260). In the estimation of such models, the influence of each proportion is weighted according to the number of cases observed to calculate it. Without the weighting, highly frequent observed proportions would have too small an influence on the estimation, and infrequent ones would have an inappropriately high influence. In the case at hand, such a model on proportion data is also a convenient way of getting around the practical difficulties of estimating a model on the raw 2,246,886 observations.

(or observation-level) fixed effect regressor is the morphosyntactic context (a four-way categorical variable). As there is a huge number of 819 N + V units, the lexical indicator variable for the individual N + V unit should not be used as a fixed effect (Gelman & Hill 2006: 244–247). We specified a generalised linear mixed model with the N + V unit variable as a random effect. The variables encoding the internal relation and the presence/absence of a linking element are nested inside the levels of the random effect, and they are therefore treated as second-level fixed effects in a multilevel model. In R notation, the specification is shown in (2).

(2)	Univerbation ∼	(1 NVUnit)	) + Context + Relation + Link
-----	----------------	------------	-------------------------------

(1.1	Estimate	CI low	CI high
(Intercept)	-4.787	-4.787	-4.787
ContextParticiple	1.054	1.054	1.054
ContextNP	3.886	3.886	3.886
ContextProgressive	4.907	4.907	4.907
RelationUndetermined	1.339	1.339	1.339
RelationAdjunct	3.132	3.132	3.132
LinkYes	0.361	0.361	0.361

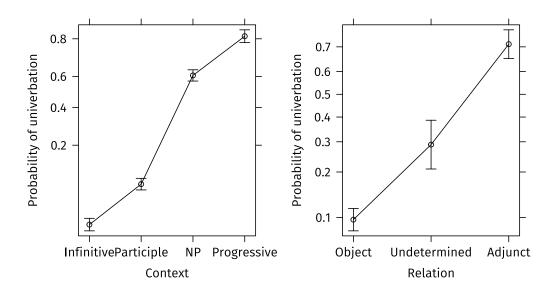
**Table 1:** Coefficient table for the binomial GLMM modelling the corpus data with 95% profile likelihood ratio confidence intervals. The horizontal line separates first-level and second-level effects. Weighting was used to account for the bias in models on proportion data. Random effect for V+N lemma: Intercept = 4.430, sd = 2.105. The intercepts model the fixed effects Relation=Object and Link=No. Nakagawa & Schielzeth's  $R_m^2 = 0.577$  and  $R_c^2 = 0.999$ .

The estimated parameters of the model are given in Table 1. Additionally, effect plots for *Context* and *Relation* are given in Figure 11. As expected, the prototypically verbal contexts (infinitives and participles in analytic verb forms) are associated with a low probability of compound spelling

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> See Appendix A for a precise specification in mathematical notation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Put in an oversimplified manner, effect plots for binomial GLM(M)s (Fox & Weisberg 2018) plot the probability of the outcome across values of a regressor assuming default values for all other regressors. While model coefficients in binomial (and other) models have no direct interpretation in terms of probability, effect plots allow a more intuitive interpretation in terms of changes in probability.

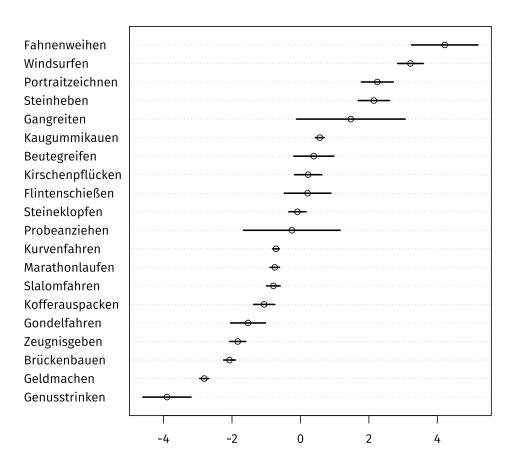
(the infinitive is on the intercept -4.787, and participles have a coefficient of 1.054). NPs and progressives as prototypically nominal contexts clearly favour compound spelling (coefficients of 3.886 and 4.907, respectively). Both the coefficients and the effect plot (right panel in Figure 1) show a low probability of compound spelling when the relation between the verb and the noun (on the intercept) is that of an object, and a high probability when the relation is that of an adjunct (coefficient 3.132). The undetermined cases are in between the two clear-cut cases (coefficient 1.339). The presence of a linking element in fully nominalised compounds favours compound spelling only slightly (coefficient 0.361).



**Figure 1:** Effect plots for the regressor encoding the morphosyntactic context of the N+V unit and the regressor encoding the syntactic relation within the N+V unit in the GLMM modelling the corpus data.

Given the narrow confidence intervals and the high marginal measure of determination  $R_m^2 = 0.577$ , we consider the hypotheses regarding fixed effects as well corroborated by the data, especially the effects of the context and the internal relation. Based on our commitment to a usage-based probabilistic view of language, we also predicted differences between N + V units not explainable by the fixed effects. These effects would show up as the residual variance in the random effects (in the form of the conditional modes) not modelled by the second-level effects. The conditional modes are centred around a second-level intercept of 4.430 with a standard devi-

ation of 2.105. The standard deviation is a sign that there is considerable variation between single N+V units. Furthermore, the conditional  $R_c^2$  is as high as 0.999. This is commonly interpreted as saying that the fixed effects and the idiosyncratic effect of concrete N+V units almost fully explain the variance in the data. A random selection of 20 conditional modes, which illustrates the relevance of lexical idiosyncrasies through obvious differences with mostly very narrow prediction intervals, is shown in Figure 2.



**Figure 2:** A random selection of conditional modes with 95% prediction intervals for the levels of the random effect in the GLMM modelling the corpus data.

The individual V+N unit thus plays a major role in writers' tendency to univerbate V+N units. In Section 3.4, we approach this effect using an alternative method, and the results obtained from that method will be used to predict participants' behaviour in the controlled experiment reported in Section 4.

## 3.4 Results 2: Association strengths

In this section, we report an analysis of the item-specific affinities of N+V units towards univerbation. The reason behind this additional analysis of the data is twofold. First, we aim to demonstrate that the same interpretation can be obtained using a method that is technically much simpler and more robust against problems with the distribution of the data and against misinterpretation than multilevel modelling. This is a valuable contribution to the current discussions in linguistics and statistics, also in the sense of methodological pluralism (see, for example Arppe & Järvikivi 2007). Second, we saw in Section 3.3 that the second-level predictors and the individual N+V units – both being related to the choice of concrete N+V units – are highly predictive of the outcome (univerbation or not). Therefore, in the experiment reported in Section 4, we need to control for the N+V units' affinity towards univerbation in common language use. The measures introduced here are ideally suited for this task.

The method we use seems superficially similar to collocational analysis (Evert 2008 for an overview) or collostructional analysis (Stefanowitsch & Gries 2003). However, there are major differences. We were interested in a quantification of how strongly a N+V unit tends towards univerbation vis-a-vis all other N+V units. Thus, we need to compare the counts of cases with and without univerbation of this unit with the same counts for all other N+V units. Such comparisons must be made relative to the overall number of the specific N+V unit as well as the number of all other units. The required counts are nicely summarised in a  $2\times 2$  contingency table as shown in Table 2.

	Univerbation	No univerbation
Specific N+V unit All other N+V units	$c_{11} \\ c_{21}$	$c_{21} \ c_{22}$

**Table 2:** 2×2 contingency table as used in the calculation of the strengths of the associations of N+V units with univerbation.

We're interested in deviations of the proportions between the first row and the second row, and there is a range of statistical measures for that. One can, for example, use odds ratios or effects strengths from frequentist statistical tests. We chose Cramér's  $\nu$  derived from standard  $\chi^2$  scores  $(v = \sqrt{\gamma^2/n})$ . The v measure quantifies how strongly the counts deviate from a situation where there is no difference between the individual N+V unit (cells  $c_{11}$  and  $c_{21}$ ) and all other N + V units (cells  $c_{21}$  and  $c_{22}$ ) with respect to their tendency to univerbate. Since Cramér's  $\nu$  always is in the range between 0 and 1, it allows us to compare analyses where the sample size is different. In itself,  $\nu$  does not tell us whether the deviation is negative (for a N+V unit with less than average compound spellings) or positive (for a N+V unit with more than average compound spellings). The information about the direction of the deviation is added by multiplying  $\nu$  with the sign of the upper left cell of the residual table of the  $\chi^2$  test. The association scores encode almost the same information as the second-level model in the GLMM reported in Section 3.3, but they have a much more accessible interpretation.<sup>11</sup>

We calculated the signed  $\nu$  for each of the 819 N+V units. Their distribution is plotted in the form of a density estimate in Figure 3.<sup>12</sup>

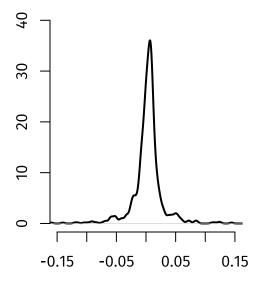
Based on the annotations in the corpus data set, we can also compare the association strengths for specific morphosyntactic contexts. The counts as shown in Table 2 are simply reduced to the counts in each of the four contexts in turn. With the resulting lower sample sizes, the  $\chi^2$  measure can no longer be calculated in a number of cases, leading to lower  $n_{Unit}$  (= the number of N+V units analysed). The resulting distributions are shown in Figure 4.

The context-wise distributions of the association scores corroborate the results from the GLMM reported in Section 3.3. In the NP context (top left panel of Figure 4), the right tail of the curve is much heavier than the left tail, which means there are mostly higher than usual tendencies towards univerbation. In the morphosyntactically similar progressive (top right panel), the distribution is (very) approximately symmetric, but given the low number of 77 N+V units for which  $\nu$  could be calculated, the re-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> p-values from frequentist statistical tests are measures of evidence, and therefore not appropriate in such situations (Schmid & Küchenhoff 2013; Küchenhoff & Schmid 2015) although they were used in early collostructional analysis. However, even collostructional analysis is now often used with measures of effect strength (Gries 2015).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See (Schäfer & Pankratz 2018) for a similar use of association measures.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> It approximates a scaled symmetric  $\chi^2$  distribution squashed between -1 and 1.



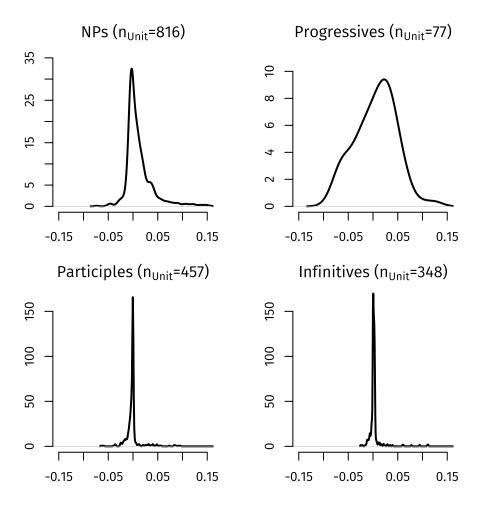
**Figure 3:** Density estimate of the distribution of the 819 association scores (across all morphosyntactic conditions).

sult cannot be seen as stable.  $^{13}$  Both prototypically verbal contexts (lower two panels) show heavier left tails, meaning that N + V units tend to resist univerbation in these contexts. Once again, this is just another (and maybe more intuitive) look at the data in addition the GLMM analysis.

For the selection of stimuli in the experiment, the overall association strength (Figure 3) is relevant, because it truly represents the effect of the unit, independently of the context. The context effect will be controlled independently in the experiment. To illustrate how the data analysis allows for a selection of N+V units based on their affinity towards univerbation, we show the top ten units with the highest negative and highest positive association in Table 3.

The tables illustrate that units with the strongest tendencies against univerbation are predominantly ones with an object relation. The ones which most strongly favour univerbation are mostly ones with an adjunct relation or an ambiguous relation. The ten items with the least clear tendency in

 $<sup>^{13}</sup>$  The low number is one the one hand due to the fact that progressives are rare compared to NPs, participles, and infinitives. On the other hand, it is likely that many N+V units cannot be used in the progressive for semantic or pragmatic reasons. The data set used here would in principle allow us to go into a detailed analysis of this question, but we postpone this for later due to space constraints.



**Figure 4:** Density estimates of the distribution of the association scores in the specific morphosyntactic conditions..

V+N Unit	Assoc.	Rel.	V+N Unit	Assoc.	Rel.
Radfahren	0.190	N/D	Gedankenmachen	-0.160	Object
Computerspielen	0.144	Adjunct	Geldverdienen	-0.140	Object
Zeitreisen	0.125	Adjunct	Rechtgeben	-0.120	Object
Skifahren	0.123	Adjunct	Spaßhaben	-0.115	Object
Autofahren	0.117	N/D	Rechthaben	-0.105	Object
Probefahren	0.111	Adjunct	Kinderhaben	-0.099	Object
Bogenschießen	0.087	N/D	Zeitnehmen	-0.093	Object
Schifffahren	0.085	N/D	Auftraggeben	-0.092	Object
Windsurfen	0.084	Adjunct	Fehlermachen	-0.088	Object
Bergsteigen	0.082	Adjunct	Urlaubmachen	-0.083	Object

**Table 3:** Top ten V+N units with a strong tendency for univerbation (left panel) and top ten V+N units with a strong tendency against univerbation (right panel).

either direction are shown in Table 4. They mostly have an internal object relation.

V+N Unit	Assoc.	Rel.
Autowaschen	0.009	Object
Zigarettenrauchen	0.007	Object
Haarewaschen	0.005	Object
Notenlesen	0.003	Object
Golfspielen	0.001	Object
Haareschneiden	-0.007	Object
Wasserholen	-0.008	Object
Feuermachen	-0.009	Object
Blutabnehmen	-0.009	Object
Schlangestehen	-0.010	Adjunct

**Table 4:** Top ten V+N units without any tendency for or against univerbation.

Among the units with an object relation, it is difficult to tell based on native-speaker intuition, why the ones in Table 4 should have no preference and the ones in Table 3 (right panel) should resist univerbation. This goes to show, that while we can model the tendencies to some extent using linguistic features, there are obvious item-specific effects which should be taken seriously from a theoretical perspective, and which must be accounted for in behavioural experiments. We now turn to such an experiment in Section 4.

# 4 Elicited production of noun-verb units

In this section, we corroborate the findings from Section 3 in a controlled experiment. We describe the rationale behind the experiment, the methods used, the design, and the group of participants in Section 4.1. Section 4.2 reports the results descriptively and in the form of a generalised linear mixed model.

## 4.1 Design and participants

The goal of the experiment was to corroborate the findings from the corpus and to test whether writers' behaviour under controlled experimental conditions is similar to the behaviour of writers under uncontrolled circumstances as found in corpora. We used pre-recorded auditory stimuli in order to elicit spellings of given N+V units. The stimuli were chosen based on theoretical criteria and information obtained from the corpus. We constructed eight sentences instantiating the four contexts. In each context, we chose one N+V unit with a high and one with a low attraction strength according to the corpus. The sentences were constructed in a ways such that all N+V units were the predicate of a subordinate clause in order to consistently ensure verb-last constituent order and avoid interfering verb-second effects, which are inevitable in independent sentences in German. The full sentences are given in Appendix C.

We added 32 fillers, resulting in a total of forty sentences being read to the participants. Of the forty sentences, twenty (including the target items, of course) had to be written down. The order of the target items was randomised, by it was made sure that there were at least three sentences in between pairs of items. There were nine distractors in the form of yes-no questions related to random sentences previously heard by the participants. An overview of the item design is shown in Table 5, where each line represents the features of one of the eight items.

In total, 61 participants took part in the experiment, all of them first-semester students of German Language and Literature at Freie Universität Berlin. They were between 18 and 44 years old with a median age of 22 years. There were two separate groups (32 and 29 participants, respec-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Given the overall constraints on the choice of the items, *low* and *high* had to be seen as relative terms. However, all low attractions scores are higher than zero, all high attraction scores are greater than zero, and for each context, the pair of low and high attraction scores differs at least by 0.05.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Of the forty fillers, six were actually items from an unrelated experiment.

Context	N+V unit	Attraction	Binary
Infinitive	Platzmachen	-0.052	Low
	Seilspringen	0.011	High
Participle	Mutmachen	-0.069	Low
	Probehören	0.055	High
Progressive	Teetrinken	-0.037	Low
	Bogenschießen	0.087	High
Clitic	Spaßhaben	-0.115	Low
	Bergsteigen	0.082	High

**Table 5:** Items from the experiment, chosen by context and attraction score.

tively), and the randomisation of the stimuli was different between the two groups.

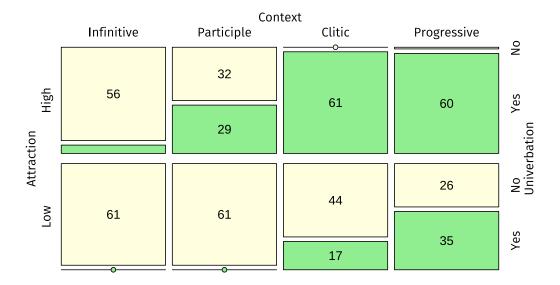
#### 4.2 Results

The distribution of responses of the experiment is shown in the form of a mosaic plot in Figure 5. It shows the number of compound spellings (univerbation) and separate spellings in each of the four contexts and for N+V units with high and low attraction score.

The overall number of positive responses (i. e., compound spellings) rises across the four contexts. It's 5 for the infinitive, 29 for the participle, 78 for NPs with a cliticised article, and finally 95 for the progressive (in each case out of 122). For the N+V units with a high attraction score, participants (almost) always use compound spelling in NPs with a cliticised article (61 out of 61) and in the progressive (60). Between the infinitive (5) and the participle (29), there is a clear differentiation in positive responses, however.

For the N+V units with a low attraction score, the items with an infinitive (0) or a participle (0) don't seem to allow univerbation at all. However, with NPs (17) and progressives (35), we see a considerable number of positive responses.

Clearly, both independent variables are highly useful in predicting the behaviour of participants. However, among the items with low association scores, we would expect the NPs as highly prototypical nominal contexts to trigger univerbation most strongly, while in the experiment they lose to the progressive (17 out of 61 for the NPs, 35 for the progressives). To examine



**Figure 5:** Mosaic plot of the responses in the production experiment (vertical right) grouped by the morphosyntactic context (horizontal) and the binned N+V unit's attraction strength calculated from the corpus (vertical left).

the results further, we proceeded to estimate the parameters of a GLMM with additional control for individual participants in the form of a random effect. Instead of using a grouping variable for the N+V units, we included their association strengths directly in the model. The model specification in R notation is given in (3). Appendix B provides the specification mathematical notation. The coefficient estimates for the GLMM are reported in Table 6.

#### (3) Universation $\sim (1|Participant) + Attraction + Context$

There is some variation between writers as captured in the standard deviation of the conditional modes (1.722), but the small difference between the marginal  $R^2$  (0.803) and the conditional  $R^2$  (0.896) suggests that speaker variation does not help to explain much of the variance in the the data. The coefficients indicate that the attraction strength derived from the corpus is positively correlated with participants tendency to univerbate (48.740). Given the large confidence interval ([-0.375..2.574]), there seems to be no evidence that the participle has a different effect than the infinitive (which is on the intercept). On the other hand, progressives (6.224) and NPs with

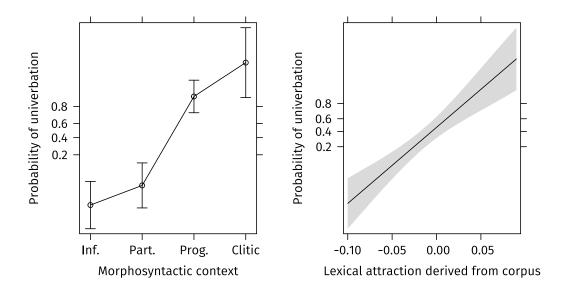
Estimate	CI low	CI high
-4.026	-5.534	-2.851
48.740	34.657	73.476
1.126	-0.375	2.574
6.224	4.691	8.184
8.166	5.978	11.513
	-4.026 48.740 1.126 6.224	48.740 34.657 1.126 -0.375 6.224 4.691

**Table 6:** Coefficient table for the GLMM modelling the experiment data with 95% confidence intervals.Nakagawa & Schielzeth's  $R_{\rm m}^2=0.893$  and  $R_{\rm c}^2=0.896$ . Random effect for participant: Intercept = 2.966, sd = 1.722 The intercept models the fixed effect Context=Infinitive as well as Attraction=0.

cliticised articles (8.166) clearly have a much more positive effect on the probability of univerbation. Thus, in the GLMM analysis NPs appear to have a stronger tendency to favour univerbation than progressives. This is in line with our theoretical predictions but seems to contradict the descriptive analysis (see Figure 5).

The effect plots in Figure 6 show the same picture as the coefficient table. The prototypically verbal contexts are associated with low probabilities of univerbation, the two prototypically nominal ones with high probabilities of univerbation. While progressives and NPs with clitics show the order predicted by theory, there is only very weak evidence that the difference is substantial (see the large and mostly overlapping confidence intervals). The attraction scores are neatly correlated with the probability of univerbation.

The apparent paradox with respect to the order of the effects of NP and progressive contexts that we see between Figure 5 on the one hand and Table 6 and Figure 6 on the other hand can be explained by looking at the concrete attraction strengths in Table 5. The unit with "low" attraction used in the progressive context (*Teetrinken*) has a numeric attraction score of -0.037, which is much closer to 0 than the one used in the NP context (*Spaßhaben*) with -0.115. At the same time, the high attraction counterparts are rather close numerically (0.087 for *Bogenschießen* and 0.082 for *Bergsteigen*). Figure 5 therefore shows a positive bias for the progressive context, which is likely due to the concrete choice of items for this experiment. The truly multifactorial analysis in the form of a GLMM compensates for it because it uses the numerical attraction scores rather than just a binned "low" and "high" classification as used in Figure 5. As the selection of the few stimuli for a given experiment is virtually never possible with perfect



**Figure 6:** Effect plots for the regressor encoding the morphosyntactic context and the attraction strength as calculated from the corpus in the GLMM modelling the experimental data.

control over all variables, the more advanced statistical analysis protects us against misinterpretation.

In sum, the experiment clearly corroborates our theoretically motivated predictions and the corpus study. We proceed to a final analysis of the phenomenon at hand in Section 5.

# 5 Explaining noun-verb univerbation

## **Acknowledgments**

We thank Luise Rissmann for her help annotating and cleaning the corpus data.

# A Corpus study: full specification of the model

In Section 3.3, the specification of the model was given in R notation as (2), repeated here as (4).

(4) Universation 
$$\sim (1|NVUnit) + Context + Relation + Link$$

This notation blurs the difference between first-level and second-level fixed effects. The model specification is the crucial step in statistical modelling since it encodes the researchers' commitment to a causal mechanism controlling the phenomenon to be modelled (in this case, writers' mental grammars with respect to the univerbation of N+V units). Model specification thus deserves more attention than (4) has to offer. Mathematically and thus more transparently, the model is given in (5). The notation with angled brackets in  $\alpha_{NV_j[i]}$  should be read as "the value of the random effect  $\alpha_{NV}$  for the factor level j, chosen appropriately for observation i.

(5) 
$$Pr(Univ_i = 1) = logit^{-1} [\alpha_0 + \alpha_{NV:[i]} + \vec{\beta}_{Context} \cdot \vec{x}_{Context}]$$

The proportion of compound spellings  $Prop_{Comp_i}$  is the logit-transformed sum of the overall intercept  $\alpha_0$ , the random intercept for the j-th N + V unit  $\alpha_{NV_j[i]}$  (whichever is found in observation i) and the dot product of the vector of dummy-coded binary value for the morphosyntactic context  $\vec{x}_{Context_i}$  and the vector of their corresponding regressors  $\vec{\beta}_{Context}$ . Since it is a multilevel model,  $\alpha_{NV}$  has its own linear model, which is given in (6).

(6) 
$$\alpha_{NV_i} = \gamma_j + \vec{\delta}_{Relation} \cdot \vec{x}_{Relation_i} + \delta_{Link} \cdot x_{Link_i}$$

It is also assumed that 7 holds, i. e., that the random intercepts for individual N+V units are normally distributed.

$$\alpha_{NV} \sim Norm$$

The random effects are assumed to be a normally distributed variable  $\alpha_{NV}$  which is for each N+V unit j given as the sum of the conditional mode of unit i (often wrongly called the *random effect* per se), the dot product  $\vec{\delta}_{Relation} \cdot \vec{x}_{Relation_j}$  of the vector of binary variables encoding the relation and the vector of their corresponding coefficients, and finally the product  $\delta_{Link} \cdot x_{Link}$  of the binary variable encoding the presence of a linking element and its coefficient.

# **B** Experiment: full specification of the model

In this appendix, we provide the mathematical notation of the model specified in Section 4.2 as (3) and repeated here as (8).

(8) Universation 
$$\sim (1|Participant) + Attraction + Context$$

The model is specified in the same notation as in Appendix A in (9). The regressor  $x_{Attract_i}$  is numeric (the attraction score), whereas  $\vec{x}_{Context_i}$  is a dummy-coded vector of binary variables.

(9) 
$$Pr(Univ_i = 1) = logit^{-1}[\alpha_0 + \alpha_{Part_i[i]} + \beta_{Attract} \cdot x_{Attract_i} + \vec{\beta}_{Context} \cdot \vec{x}_{Context_i}]$$

It is also assumed that 7 holds, i. e., that the random intercepts for individual participants are normally distributed.

$$\alpha_{Participant} \sim Norm$$

# C Sentences used in the experiment

The N+V units are typeset in smallcaps and spelled as separate words. The order of the sentences corresponds to Table 5.

- (11) Lara trat zur Seite, um PLATZ zu MACHEN. Lara stepped to the side in order room to make Lara stepped aside to make way.
- (12) Sarah ging auf den Spielplatz, um SEIL zu SPRINGEN. Sarah went onto the playground in order rope to jump Sarah went to the playground to do some skipping.

- (13) Leon konnte nur deshalb gewinnen, weil Johanna ihm Leon could only therefore win because Johanna him MUT GEMACHT hat. courage made has Leon could win only because Johanna encouraged him.
- (14) Maria hat einen Kopfhörer gekauft, nachdem sie ihn PROBE Maria has a headphone bought after she it test GEHÖRT hatte. listened had Maria bought a headphone after doing a listening test.
- (15) Melanie mag Fußball, weil es ein Sport zum SPASS HABEN ist. Melanie likes soccer because it a sport to the fun have is Melanie likes soccer because it's a fun sport.
- (16) Benjamin ruft seinen Freund an, weil er eine Frage zum Banjamin calls his friend on because he a quaestion to the BERG STEIGEN hat.

  mountain climbing has Benjamin calls his firend because he has a question about mountain climbing.
- (17) Kim sah sich das Tennisspiel an, solange sie am TEE Kim watched herself the tennis match on while she at the tea TRINKEN war.
  drink was
  Kim watched the tennis match while drinking some tea.
- (18) Simone hört ein Hörbuch, während sie am BOGEN Simone listens an audiobook while she at the bow SCHIESSEN ist. shoot is Simone listened to an audiobook while practicing archery.

## References

Arppe, Antti & Juhani Järvikivi. (2007). Every method counts: combining corpus-based and experimental evidence in the study of synonymy. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory* 3(2). 131–159. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/cllt.2007.009.

- Evert, Stefan. (2008). Corpora and collocations. In Anke Lüdeling & Maria Kytö (eds.), *Corpus linguistics. an international handbook*, 1212–1248. Berlin: Mouton. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9783110213881.2.1212.
- Fox, John & Sanford Weisberg. (2018). Visualizing fit and lack of fit in complex regression models: effect plots with partial residuals. *Journal of Statistical Software* 87(9). 1–27.
- Gelman, Andrew & Jennifer Hill. (2006). *Data analysis using regression and multilevel/hierarchical models*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511790942.
- Gries, Stefan Th. (2015). More (old and new) misunderstandings of collostructional analysis: on Schmid and Küchenhoff (2013). *Cognitive Linguistics* 26(3). 505–536.
- Kilgarriff, Adam, Vít Baisa, Jan Bušta, Miloš Jakubíček, Vojtěch Kovář, Jan Michelfeit, Pavel Rychlý & Vít Suchomel. (2014). The Sketch Engine: ten years on. *Lexicography*. 1–30. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40607-014-0009-9.
- Küchenhoff, Helmut & Hans-Jörg Schmid. (2015). Reply to "More (old and new) misunderstandings of collostructional analysis: on Schmid & Küchenhoff" by Stefan Th. Gries. *Cognitive Linguistics* 26(3). 537–547.
- Schäfer, Roland. (2020, to appear). Generalized linear mixed models. In Stefan Gries & Magali Paquot (eds.), *The practical handbook of corpus linguistics*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer.
- Schäfer, Roland & Felix Bildhauer. (2012). Building large corpora from the web using a new efficient tool chain. In Nicoletta Calzolari (Conference Chair), Khalid Choukri, Thierry Declerck, Mehmet Uğur Doğan, Bente Maegaard, Joseph Mariani, Asuncion Moreno, Jan Odijk & Stelios Piperidis (eds.), Proceedings of the eighth international conference on language resources and evaluation (LREC '12) international conference on language resources and evaluation (LREC 12), 486–493. Istanbul: European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Schäfer, Roland & Elizabeth Pankratz. (2018). The plural interpretability of German linking elements. *Morphology* 28(4). 325–358. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11525-018-9331-5.
- Schmid, Hans-Jörg & Helmut Küchenhoff. (2013). Collostructional analysis and other ways of measuring lexicogrammatical attraction: theoretical premises, practical problems and cognitive underpinnings. *Cognitive Linguistics* 24(3). 531–577. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/cog-2013-0018.
- Stefanowitsch, Anatol & Stefan Th. Gries. (2003). Collostructions: investigating the interaction between words and constructions. *International*

*Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 8(2). 209–243. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/jcl.8.2.03ste.

Zuur, Alain F., Elena N. Ieno, Neil Walker, Anatoly A. Saveliev & Graham M. Smith. (2009). *Mixed effects models and extensions in ecology with R.* Berlin etc.: Springer. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-87458-6.