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5 Accentual preferences and predictability

6 An acceptability study on split intransitivity in German

7

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The difference in the default prosodic realization of simple sentences with unergative
13 vs. unaccusative/passive verbs (assigning early nuclear accent with
14 unaccusative/passive verbs but late nuclear accent with unergative verbs) is often
15 related to the syntactic distinction of their nominative arguments as starting off in
16 different hierarchical positions. Alternative accounts try to trace this prosodic
17 variation back to asymmetries in the semantic or pragmatic contribution of the verb to
18 an utterance. The present article investigates the interaction of the assignment of
19 default nuclear accent with the predictability of the verb. In an experimental study
20 testing the acceptability of nuclear accent assignment, we confirmed that the
21 predictability of the verb influences accentual preferences (such that highly
22 predictable verbs are preferably not accented). However, the experiment also reveals
23 that the unaccusativity distinction cannot be accounted for by means of pragmatic
24 phenomena of this type: the two verb classes are associated with distinct accentual
25 patterns in the baseline condition, i.e., without the predictability manipulation.

1

2 **Keywords**

3 nuclear accent, prosodic phrasing, unaccusativity, unergative verbs, predictability,
4 information structure

5

6 **1. Introduction**

7 In simple sentences with an intransitive verb and an argument there are two options of
8 prosodic accent patterns to realize the sentence. Example (1) illustrates a realization
9 with the nuclear accent on the subject, while (1b) is an utterance with the nuclear
10 accent on the verb. Words marked in small capitals bear the nuclear accent throughout
11 this paper.

12 (1) a. MARIA kommt.

13 'MARY is coming'.

14 b. Maria SINGT.

15 'Mary is SINGING'.

16 It has been claimed that the contrast in (1) corresponds to the default prosodic
17 realizations of particular verb classes and may appear out of the blue (see Chafe,
18 1974:115; Jacobs, 2001:645f.; Kahnemuyipour 2009:103; Legate 2003; Sasse
19 1987:520; Zubizaretta and Vergnaud 2005; for German see Féry, 1993:33, 2011;
20 Kratzer and Selkirk, 2007:115ff.; Uhlmann, 1991:199).

21 In previous research, different lines of thought have been developed to explain this
22 phenomenon. A first model type is based on syntax. According to this view, the
23 contrast between (1a) and (1b) relates directly to differences in the syntax of
24 intransitive verbs. In particular, the surface subject of unaccusative verbs such as
25 *come* in (1a) is assumed to be an argument that is internal to the verb projection, while

1 the subject of unergative verbs such as *sing* in (1b) is an external argument. The
2 prosodic difference in (1) follows from the syntactic difference being reflected
3 through syntax-prosody mapping (see Kahnemuyipour, 2009; Legate, 2003; Selkirk,
4 1995; Zubizarreta and Vernaud, 2005; for German, Kratzer and Selkirk, 2007;
5 Uhmman, 1991). In this view, unaccusative verbs pattern with passive verbs whose
6 nominative DP also originates as a verbal complement. Correspondingly, simple
7 sentences with passive verbs are claimed to show the same basic prosodic pattern as
8 unaccusative verbs (compare (1a) with (2)).

9 (2) MEIN FAHRRAD wurde gestohlen.

10 'MY BIKE was stolen.'

11 Alternative accounts of the different prosodic structures associated with simple
12 intransitive sentences as illustrated in (1) and (2) refer to various functional factors,
13 among them semantic properties of the verb (e.g., (dis)appearance) and the argument
14 (e.g., animacy) (see Allerton and Cruttenden, 1979; Faber, 1987; Hirsch and Wagner,
15 2011 on English; Contreras, 1976 and Hatcher, 1956 on Spanish). Several of these
16 studies argue that the observed prosodic differences can be traced back to information
17 structural preferences for interpreting intransitive clauses. Thus, an agent constituent
18 (in contrast to a patient constituent) is a likely sentential topic. Similarly, animates are
19 more likely topics than inanimates. The background idea is that particular verb classes
20 are associated with different discourse configurations in all-new contexts, prompting
21 either topic – comment or sentence focus structures.

22 Another factor that has been identified as crucial for the assignment of nuclear
23 accent in simple intransitive sentences is the predictability of a lexical item in a given
24 context (see Bolinger, 1972; Féry, 1993:32; Gussenhoven, 1984:40; Krifka, 1984). In
25 examples such as (3) the verb is highly predictable in the context of the respective

1 subject referents and will not receive the nuclear accent in an out-of-the-blue
2 utterance.

3 (3) a. EINE BIENE summt.

4 A BEE is buzzing.

5 b. EIN CHOR singt.

6 A CHOIR is singing.

7 This factor is clearly orthogonal to the verb class distinction introduced above: note
8 that the examples in (3) contain unergative verbs, for which a syntax-based account
9 would predict a nuclear accent on the verb, as indicated in example (1b).

10 The goal of the present study is to investigate accent assignment in simple
11 intransitive sentences and determine the role of predictability in this process. In order
12 to find evidence for the influence of the predictability of the verb on the prosodic
13 realization of intransitive sentences, we carried out an experimental study on the
14 acceptability of different prosodic realizations of simple utterances with passive and
15 unergative verbs. In two experiments we tested the impact of predictability on the
16 intuition of the default accentual patterns. We thus want to investigate whether (a part
17 of) the prosodic differences that have been attributed to the syntax of split
18 intransitivity can receive an alternative explanation resulting from informational
19 properties of the sentences at issue.

20 The study proceeds as follows: Section 2 outlines in detail the approaches to
21 default accentual patterns with simple intransitive sentences as illustrated in (1). The
22 aim of this theoretical discussion is to identify the conflicting predictions that are
23 implied by these approaches. Following this outline, the main research question is
24 introduced in detail in Section 3, in which the factor predictability and its assumed
25 impact on the accentual patterns with intransitive sentences are discussed and the

1 experimental implementation of predictability is introduced. Section 4 presents the
2 experimental studies and their results. Section 5 discusses the consequences of the
3 empirical findings for our assumptions about the mapping between syntax and
4 prosody and the role of predictability on the assignment of nuclear accent.

5

6 **2. Syntax-Phonology Mapping**

7 **2.1 Prosody of intransitive sentences**

8 According to the autosegmental-metrical approach to intonation (Beckman and
9 Pierrehumbert, 1986; Gussenhoven, 2004; Ladd, 1996; Pierrehumbert, 1980), any
10 intonation phrase contains at least one pitch accent and a boundary tone. The last pitch
11 accent in a phrase is referred to as the nuclear accent. The function of pitch accents is
12 to highlight information as opposed to boundary tones which signal prosodic phrasing
13 (Grice and Baumann, 2007; Gussenhoven, 2004; Ladd, 1996).

14 Focus-to-accent theory claims that a semantic focus is expressed by means of a
15 pitch accent (Gussenhoven, 1984), which usually is the last or nuclear accent.
16 Prenuclear pitch accents and prosodic phrasing are preserved even if they are
17 associated with given constituents (Baumann and Grice, 2006; Féry and Kügler,
18 2008). In the prenuclear part of the sentence, pitch accents are not necessarily erased
19 as a consequence of information structure, but at most slightly compressed. Post-
20 nuclearly, however, pitch-accent is extremely reduced due to the large compression
21 of the register in this part of the sentence, which is often referred to as deaccentuation
22 (Ladd, 1996). In a neutral accent pattern of a sentence, thus, the last content word
23 bears the nuclear accent, cf. (1b).

1 In case of an early nuclear accent with post-nuclear deaccented constituents
2 following, only a narrow focus reading is available (cf. Féry, 2011; Gussenhoven,
3 1984; Selkirk, 1984, 1995). The postfocal words are contextually given. However,
4 following analyses in Schmerling (1976), Fuchs (1976, 1984), Jacobs (1991/2), and
5 Féry (1993:32) among others, certain intransitive sentences such as (1a) have a neutral
6 accent pattern with the subject bearing the nuclear accent and no accent on the verb.
7 This effect is analysed as being due to the integration of the subject and verb into one
8 prosodic phrase.

9 The prosodic analysis in this paper is based on the intonational grammar of
10 German developed in Féry (1993), assuming only bitonal nuclear pitch accents. The
11 most natural pitch accent as a nuclear accent in declarative sentences is the simple
12 falling tone H*L (Féry, 1993:82). Hence, the prosodic realization of (1) would be as
13 in (1)'.

- 14 (1)' a. H*L L%
15 MARIA kommt.
16 b. H*L L%
17 Maria SINGT.

18 2.2 Syntax-based approach

19 The starting point for the syntactic understanding of the prosodic contrast in (1) is the
20 distinction of two classes of intransitive verbs depending on the syntactic properties of
21 their single argument. The distinction at issue is postulated within the unaccusativity
22 hypothesis, which distinguishes between unaccusative and passive verbs whose single
23 argument is internal to the VP and unergative verbs whose single argument is external
24 (Alexiadou et al. Eds., 2004; Belletti, 1988; Burzio, 1986; Grimshaw, 1987; Levin
25 and Rappaport-Hovav, 1995; Perlmutter, 1978). Assuming that syntactic relations

1 correspond one-to-one to theta roles (Baker, 1988), this distinction correlates with
2 thematic properties: the internal argument of unaccusative and passive verbs is a
3 patient/theme while the external argument of unergative verbs is an agent. The
4 reflexes of this distinction in the syntax are diverse and involve language-specific
5 variation. To the properties that have played a crucial role in establishing this
6 distinction belong the selection of auxiliaries (in languages such as Dutch, German,
7 Italian), the formation of agentive nominalizations (English, German, Persian), the
8 availability of an impersonal passive (Dutch, German), the availability of a resultative
9 construction (English, German), and the well-formedness of discontinuous noun
10 phrases (German) (Abraham, 2001; Alexiadou et al., 2004; Burzio, 1986; Fanselow,
11 1992; Grewendorf, 1989; Haider, 1984; Kahnemuyipour, 2009; Levin and Rappaport-
12 Hovav, 1995). Based on such criteria, the inventory of intransitive verbs has been
13 classified in unaccusative and unergative verbs. Typical unaccusative verbs are the
14 verbs of existence/appearance as well as verbs of change of state, e.g., *arrive*, *fall*,
15 *break*, *melt*, *sink*, *burn*, *die*, *(dis)appear*. Typical unergative verbs are activity verbs,
16 e.g., *play*, *work*, *sing*, *speak*, *dance*, *laugh* (Alexiadou et al., 2004; Levin and
17 Rappaport-Hovav, 1995; Perlmutter, 1978; Sorace, 2000).

18 The crucial claim of the unaccusativity hypothesis is that the nominative argument
19 (i.e., the surface subject) of these two verb classes originates in different syntactic
20 positions. With unaccusative verbs, the nominative DP is merged as a verbal
21 complement, i.e., as part of the VP, while with unergative verbs the nominative DP is
22 merged at a higher position, presumably the specifier of vP, see (4) for a German V-
23 final structure. According to this view, unaccusative verbs pattern with passive verbs
24 whose nominative DP also originates as a verbal complement. The syntactic
25 difference between the two intransitive verb classes is reflected in the mapping of

1 syntactic constituents to prosodic phrases which eventually results in the contrast in
2 (4). However, the derivational steps that lead to the syntax-to-prosody mapping differ
3 across frameworks. Previous research accounted for this difference by postulating
4 rules referring to the syntactic relation of the single argument of the verb. The
5 assumption that the nuclear accent is assigned to the metrical sister that is
6 selectionally dependent (S-NSR in terms of Zubizarreta, 1998), accounts for the
7 observed facts: since the DP is a complement of the unaccusative verb, it is assigned
8 the nuclear accent, which is not the case with unergative verbs. In phase-theoretical
9 approaches, the vP constitutes a phase while the VP projection does not do so
10 (Chomsky, 2001). The spellout domain of the vP phase is the complement of its head:
11 i.e., the DP argument of unaccusative/passive verbs is part of this domain but the DP
12 argument of unergative verbs is outside of this domain (as specifier of the vP). This
13 difference is reflected in phrasing: unaccusative/passive verbs are spelled out in the
14 same phase and constitute a single prosodic entity (either assuming that they are
15 spelled out on the basis of the basic configuration, Kratzer and Selkirk, 2007, or that
16 they have undergone movement for case reasons, Kahnemuyipour, 2009). The
17 assumption that the highest phonologically eligible element in the spellout domain
18 receives the nuclear accent (Kahnemuyipour, 2009:68) predicts that the DP argument
19 will be accented. The unergative structure is spelled out in two phases, the higher
20 phase containing the specifier of the vP (after case-checking operations have taken
21 place), and the lower phase its complement, i.e., the verb. Each prosodic entity carries
22 its own pitch accent.

- 23 (4) a. Unaccusative/passive verbs
24 ((x)_φ)_t
25 [VP DP Verb]

- 1 b. Unergative verbs
 2 ((x)_φ (x)_φ)_t
 3 [_{VP} DP [_{VP} Verb]]

4 The prosodic structures in (4) are expected to occur in wide focus contexts.
 5 Information structure creates new prosodic possibilities for both verb classes. If the
 6 nominative DP is a topic, then it is expected to be phrased separately from its
 7 complement. This holds independently of verb class, i.e., it creates a new prosodic
 8 option for unaccusative and passive verbs, which is contextually restricted (to
 9 contexts in which the nominative argument is a topic).¹ The situation with foci is
 10 different: a focused nominative argument receives the nuclear accent, which is
 11 accounted for by assuming a focus-to-accent correspondence rule (Jackendoff
 12 1972:237). These prosodic options equally hold for nominative arguments of
 13 unaccusative, passive, and unergative verbs.

14 **2.3 Semantic and pragmatic approaches**

15 The assumptions outlined in Section 2.2 account for the prosodic differences observed
 16 in simple intransitive sentences as mapping syntactic differences that are
 17 independently established. A number of observations in the research on accent
 18 assignment with intransitive verbs suggest a functional view on the same facts. Some
 19 authors note that a subset of the observed differences can be accounted for without
 20 reference to syntactic categories; others assume a correlation between verb class

¹ On this background, the much discussed example pair with the unaccusative verb *die*, namely (i) *TRUMAN's DIED* vs. (ii) *JOHNSON's died* (see Schmerling, 1976:90) receives a natural explanation: (i) is felicitous in a context where Truman (including his critical health situation) is contextually given while (ii) is uttered in an all-new context where Johnson's death is completely unexpected.

1 (unaccusative/passive vs. unergative) and information structure. The aim of the
2 present section is to outline these facts and approaches and discuss their relevance for
3 the analysis of the verb class contrast.

4 Empirical research on the prosody of simple intransitive sentences challenges the
5 view that the phenomena at issue can be explained in syntactic terms. Allerton and
6 Cruttenden (1979) discuss an array of different lexical and semantic properties of the
7 verb that have an impact on the choice of the prosodic realization in (1) such as the
8 verbal notion of appearance and disappearance and verbs expressing a misfortune.
9 According to these authors, these cases have in common that the attention is drawn to
10 the subject which is more newsworthy than the verb (see similar observations in
11 Bolinger, 1972; Faber, 1987 on English and Contreras, 1976; Hatcher, 1956 on
12 Spanish). These preferences directly result from the lexical content of the verb, i.e.,
13 they do not depend on different contexts.

14 Hirsch and Wagner (2011) show by means of a series of experiments on speech
15 production in English that the prosodic structure does not correlate with the syntactic
16 difference between unaccusative and unergative verbs and argue that the prosodic
17 differences can be traced back to preferences for the interpretation of agent
18 constituents as sentential topics, which applies to unergative and not to unaccusative
19 verbs. In particular, they provide experimental evidence that verbs of disappearance
20 are more frequently accented than verbs of appearance and relate this result to the fact
21 that verbs of disappearance are more likely to be associated with referents that are
22 available in the common ground and may serve as topics (see example (5a)) while
23 subjects of verbs of appearance are more likely to introduce new referents, as
24 illustrated in (5b).

25 (5) a. The rash FADED.

1 b. A RASH formed.

2 Furthermore, Hirsch and Wagner (2011) present evidence for the impact of
3 animacy of the single argument of an intransitive verb to the effect that there is a
4 significantly higher proportion of accent on predicates with human subjects than with
5 non-human subjects. These facts are challenging because they demonstrate that the
6 accentual realization of identical syntactic structures is sensitive to semantic factors.

7 Another important factor which is orthogonal to the introduced syntactic
8 assumptions, is the role of the informational content and the related notion of
9 predictability of the lexical items in an utterance (see Allerton and Cruttenden 1979;
10 Bolinger, 1972; Féry, 1993:32; Gussenhoven, 1984:40; Krifka, 1984). The idea is that
11 the difference between the prosodic realizations in (1) is grounded in an asymmetry in
12 the contribution of the two verbs to the asserted content. The majority of occurrences
13 of a configuration such as ‘Mary is coming’ in discourse is used in order to introduce
14 a new referent, which implies that the contribution of the lexical content of the verb
15 ‘to come’ to the asserted content is minimal. The rationale of this claim is that an
16 event of ‘coming’ is less informative than an event of ‘singing’ in the sense that the
17 former is more likely than the latter to appear in a discourse about a referent of the
18 type ‘Maria’. The informativity of the parts of an utterance is inversely related to their
19 predictability. E.g., a verb that is highly predictable in the context of a given referent
20 contributes less information than a verb that is highly unpredictable.

21 The studies mentioned so far point out that particular factors that depend on lexical
22 semantics have an influence on the prosodic realization. These data show that for a
23 subset of the verbs under discussion, prosodic preferences can be explained without
24 reference to syntax. The crucial question however is whether the observations about
25 the role of the unaccusative/unergative distinction in the prosodic structure can be

1 exhaustively explained by the influence of lexical or semantic differences. If this
2 turned out to be the case, the alleged impact of syntax would be an epiphenomenon of
3 correlations between particular types of propositional content with certain information
4 structures.

5 A further issue in the research on neutral prosodic realization of intransitives is the
6 claim that the influence of syntax on prosody is mediated by information structural
7 features. This view is mirrored in the distinction between ‘thetic’ and ‘categorical’
8 utterances (Sasse, 1987) as referring to two different information structural
9 configurations, i.e., topicless utterances and topic-comment articulations that can both
10 occur in all-new contexts. Similarly, Jäger (2001) argues that the difference between
11 stative and eventive predicates correlates with information structural properties.
12 Crucially, only eventive predicates come with a reading that does not require a subject
13 topic. Building upon this claim, Kratzer and Selkirk (2007) assume that the prosodic
14 realization of stative predicates results from mapping a syntactic configuration that
15 involves the intransitive argument as topic (see also previous accounts based on the
16 difference between stage-level and individual-level predicates in Gussenhoven, 1984,
17 1992; Selkirk, 1995). Similarly, Féry (2011) assumes in an optimality-theoretical
18 account that the input of unergative verbs for the candidate generation involves a
19 topical argument (see also discussion in Irwin, 2012:240). The crucial point is that the
20 topic phrase is expected to appear in all-new contexts in these accounts, which is
21 possible with an understanding of topic as a constituent related to the comment via an
22 aboutness relation. This analysis implies that for a subset of verbs the configuration
23 that appears under all-new contexts differs in that it has to display a topic-comment
24 structure. The influence of syntax on prosody depends on this very property, i.e., it is
25 mediated by an information-structural difference. Zubizarreta and Vergnaud

1 (2005:533) are explicit in this issue: both accentual patterns can occur in wide focus
2 contexts but this does not imply that the implicit common ground is identical
3 (speakers may select the subject-accentual pattern in “a surprise context or in order to
4 highlight a certain aspect of the information being conveyed”). Although these
5 accounts are based on structural properties (subjects of unaccusatives/unergatives
6 originate in different syntactic positions in Kratzer and Selkirk, 2007; the majority of
7 constraints refer to structural properties in the approach of Féry, 2011) and do not
8 claim that the root of the prosodic difference lies in information structure, the crucial
9 difference that determines the derivation of the accentual patterns is an information
10 structural feature (cf. also Riester and Piontek, this issue, for factors of accent
11 placement in DPs/NPs).

12 **3. Argument structure and predictability**

13 **3.1 Research question**

14 The aim of the present investigation is to shed light on the root of the different
15 accentual patterns observed with simple intransitive sentences. In order to achieve this
16 goal we will observe the impact of the intransitivity split and the impact of further
17 factors with information structural correlates on the prosodic realization of simple
18 intransitive clauses. Our endeavor is motivated by the information-structural accounts
19 as outlined in Section 2.3. We want to observe how such factors interact with the
20 intransitive verb-class distinction and draw conclusions about the extent to which
21 these factors can account for the phenomena at issue. Our research question is as
22 summarized in (6).

23 (6) Can the differences in the prosodic realization of intransitive structures be
24 accounted for through semantic/pragmatic properties?

1 In order to answer the question in (6), we examine the notion of ‘predictability’,
2 which has been claimed to interfere with the prosodic patterns observed with
3 intransitive verbs (see discussion in Section 2.3). Predictability has an advantage for
4 the empirical operationalization of the research question in (6). In contrast to
5 particular semantic properties of certain verbs that have been claimed to be relevant in
6 our discussion, such as ‘appearance’ and ‘disappearance’, predictability is a gradient
7 property of any lexical item, i.e., it can be applied to the entire verb inventory.

8 **3.2 The notion of predictability**

9 New information may vary as to its contribution to the common ground. In a
10 particular environment, information may be highly expected and thus predictable or
11 not. For instance, the verb *cry* is more likely in the context of a baby and less so in the
12 context of an employee (see the German examples in (7)).

13 (7) Context: Warum waren alle so beunruhigt?

14 ‘Why was everybody so worried?’

15 a. Weil ein Baby geweint hat.

16 ‘Because a baby cried.’

17 b. Weil eine Angestellte geweint hat.

18 ‘Because an employee cried.’

19 Both utterances may present new information in a particular context, e.g., in an
20 answer to the context question given in (7). However they involve an asymmetry in
21 terms of meeting the expectations of the hearer or not. Both sentences (7a) and (7b)
22 express propositions that are not part of the common ground. The difference between
23 them lies in the relation between the noun and the verb. The type ‘baby’ is more likely
24 to be involved in events of the type ‘cry’ than the type ‘employee’.

1 The impact of predictability on the realization of an utterance has been discussed
2 both with respect to prosodic reflexes and syntactic reflexes, as for instance reflexes
3 on word order. It has been argued that predictability relates to nuclear accent
4 assignment in a probabilistic way: high predictability has a measurable influence on
5 phonetic parameters such as duration, articulation and pitch range, all of which are
6 reduced when the information is highly predictable (Aylett and Turk, 2004; Bell et al.,
7 2009; Calhoun 2010), and the presence of these phonetic cues indicates the presence
8 of an accent. Highly unpredictable words are likely to receive a nuclear accent in
9 contrast to highly predictable words which are not probable to get a nuclear accent
10 (e.g., Bolinger, 1972:644). Syntactic reflexes of high predictability are observed in the
11 English locative inversion construction, which frequently occurs with verbs such as
12 *come*, etc. that are “semantically empty”, i.e., do not have a substantial contribution to
13 the conveyed propositional content (see Birner, 1994, 1995; Birner and Ward, 1998).
14 Finally, non-predictability is considered to be a core property of focus in some
15 accounts (Lambrecht, 1994:218; Zimmermann, 2008).

16 **3.3 Operationalization of the notion of predictability**

17 The factor PREDICTABILITY is gradient in nature. In order to inspect its impact, we
18 consider the contrast between two levels of predictability of the verb, i.e., maximally
19 and minimally predictable verbs, in particular sentential configurations as illustrated
20 in (8). The implementation of the notion of predictability is based on the expectedness
21 of a particular verb in the context of a particular subject referent.

22 (8) a. Maximally predictable verb

23 Ein Chor hat gesungen. ‘A choir sang.’

24 b. Minimally predictable verb

25 Ein Arbeiter hat gesungen. ‘A worker sang.’

1 We estimate predictability of a verb by the association score of the verb with a
 2 particular subject. For this information, we relied on the calculation of “salience” in
 3 DWDS (*Digitales Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache*).² This measure is based on the
 4 formula in (9), whereby r is a particular syntactic relation (in the case at issue ‘subject
 5 of’), w and w' are the involved words, and $\|w,r,w'\|$ is the attested frequency of the
 6 words w and w' in the relation r in the DWDS corpus. Furthermore, $\|w,r,*\|$ and
 7 $\|*,r,w'\|$ represent the frequencies of the words w and w' in the relation r with any
 8 word in the corpus, respectively, and $\|*,r,*\|$ is the overall frequency of the relation r .
 9 The formula computes whether the word combinations in the relation r occur more
 10 frequently than expected, a high score indicating that the word pair is strongly
 11 collocated (see discussion and examples in Geyken, 2011:122f.).

12 (9)
$$\textit{association score}(w, r, w') = \frac{\|w, r, w'\| \times \|*, r, *\|}{\|w, r, *\| \times \|*, r, w'\|} \text{ (Geyken, 2011:123)}$$

13 On the basis of the account of predictability given in Section 3.2 and its inverse
 14 relation to the possibility of being accented our expectations regarding the prosodic
 15 structure of simple intransitive sentences are straightforward: the verb is less likely to
 16 be accented if it is maximally predictable.

17 3.4 Experimental implementation and predictions

18 In order to answer the research question outlined in Section 3.1, we designed two
 19 experiments on the acceptability of simple intransitive sentences with early vs. late

² DWDS is a digital lexical system developed and continuously extended by the *Berlin-Brandenburgische Akademie der Wissenschaften*, available at <http://www.dwds.de/>. It contains over 410.000 lemmata from diverse digitalized dictionaries of present-day German and 1,8 billion tokens from 15 corpora. Furthermore, for each lemma a word profile with statistical information about its syntagmatic behavior is available.

1 nuclear accent. The acceptability of both accent patterns was judged in the context of
2 a wide focus question which felicitously triggers an all-new answer, i.e., the structure
3 that is associated with the default prosodic structures for simple intransitive sentences
4 according to the unaccusativity hypothesis (see Sections 2.1 and 2.2). The
5 experimental sentences were constructed as verb-final dependent clauses (with
6 temporal and causal subordinators), see (7). The subject constituent invariably was an
7 indefinite marked animate DP, to induce the reading of a newly introduced
8 participant. (See Sections 4.1.4 and 4.2.4 for a detailed description of the experimental
9 procedure).

10 Experiment 1 tested passive verbs, experiment 2 tested unergative verbs. In order
11 to achieve a clear contrast for the factor PREDICTABILITY in the experimental
12 manipulation, we used passive verbs for the realization of the unaccusative/passive
13 structure in experiment 1. The decision to use passive verbs was motivated by the fact
14 that these verbs are more appropriate for testing the effects of predictability.
15 Following the information in the association score provided in the DWDS corpus (see
16 Section 3.3) typical unaccusative verbs such as *kommen* ‘come’, *ankommen* ‘arrive’,
17 *fallen* ‘fall’, *erscheinen* ‘appear’, etc. either collocated preferably with inanimate
18 subject nouns (compare *fallen*: *Entscheidung* ‘decision’, *Kurs* ‘price’, *Wort* ‘word’.
19 *etc.*; *erscheinen*: *Katalog* ‘catalogue’, *Roman* ‘novel’, etc.) or with highly generic
20 person nouns such as *Menschen* ‘humans’, *Mann* ‘man’ (*come, fall, appear, arrive*).
21 Furthermore, the association scores of these verbs with suitable subject nouns were
22 generally much lower than the corresponding association scores for unergative and
23 passive verbs (e.g., the pair *erscheinen* ‘appear’ – *Gäste* ‘guests’ had an association
24 score of 5.09; the pair *ankommen* ‘arrive’ – *Soldat* ‘soldier’ had an association score

1 of 3.7). Hence, the manipulation that we intend in this study could not be
2 implemented with verbs of this type.

3 In general, the choice of the individual verbal items in both verb groups was
4 determined by the availability of both typical and non-typical subject-noun relations,
5 which was tested on the basis of the information available in the DWDS. The
6 experimental material is listed in Appendix A. For each item the association score for
7 the verb – subject relation indicated in the DWDS is given.

8 According to the unaccusativity hypothesis, the effect of PREDICTABILITY will be
9 different depending on verb class. As outlined in Section 2.2, in syntax-based
10 approaches unaccusative/passive verbs are associated with an early nuclear accent on
11 the subject constituent whereas unergative verbs are associated with a late nuclear
12 accent on the verb. PREDICTABILITY should thus have an effect on the acceptability of
13 both accent patterns with unergative verbs since the effect of high predictability (i.e.,
14 subject accent) diverges from the default nuclear accent of these verbs (i.e., verb
15 accent). In contrast, PREDICTABILITY is not expected to interact with the default accent
16 pattern of unaccusative/passive verbs. With these latter verbs, early nuclear accent on
17 the subject is already predicted by their constituent structure, i.e., the expected
18 prosodic effect of high predictability (i.e., nuclear accent on the subject) converges
19 with the accent on the subject in neutral contexts assumed for unaccusative/passive
20 verbs.

1 **4. Acceptability judgements**

2 **4.1 Experiment 1: Passive structures**

3 4.1.1 Experimental factors

4 To test the above outlined predictions for the passive structures, the experimental
5 setup contains a 2×2 design of PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT PLACEMENT, each factor
6 containing two levels. Full permutation of the levels of both factors resulted in four
7 experimental conditions. Consider the examples in (10), which show a non-
8 predictable verb in (10a/b), a predictable verb in (10c/d), early nuclear accent
9 placement in (10 a/c), and late nuclear accent placement in (10 b/d).

10 (10) a. Passive, non-predictable verb, early nuclear accent

11 H*L L%

12 Weil eine SEKRETÄRIN gesucht wurde.

13 ‘Because a SECRETARY was looked for.’

14 b. Passive, non-predictable verb, late nuclear accent

15 H* H*L L%

16 Weil eine Sekretärin GESUCHT wurde.

17 ‘Because a secretary was LOOKED FOR.’

18 c. Passive, predictable verb, early nuclear accent

19 H*L L%

20 Weil ein SPONSOR gesucht wurde.

21 ‘Because a SPONSOR was looked for.’

22 d. Passive, predictable verb, late nuclear accent

23 H* H*L L%

1 Weil ein Sponsor GESUCHT wurde.

2 'Because a sponsor was LOOKED FOR.'

3 The factor PREDICTABILITY was calculated as indicated in section 3.3 above.
4 (10a/b) gives an example for a non-predictable subject – verb pair of the verb *suchen*
5 'to look for' with an association score of 0.0, (10c/d) shows an example for a
6 predictable subject – verb pair with an association score of 9.9 (see Appendix A,
7 Table A for the association scores of the subject – verb pairs used in experiment 1).

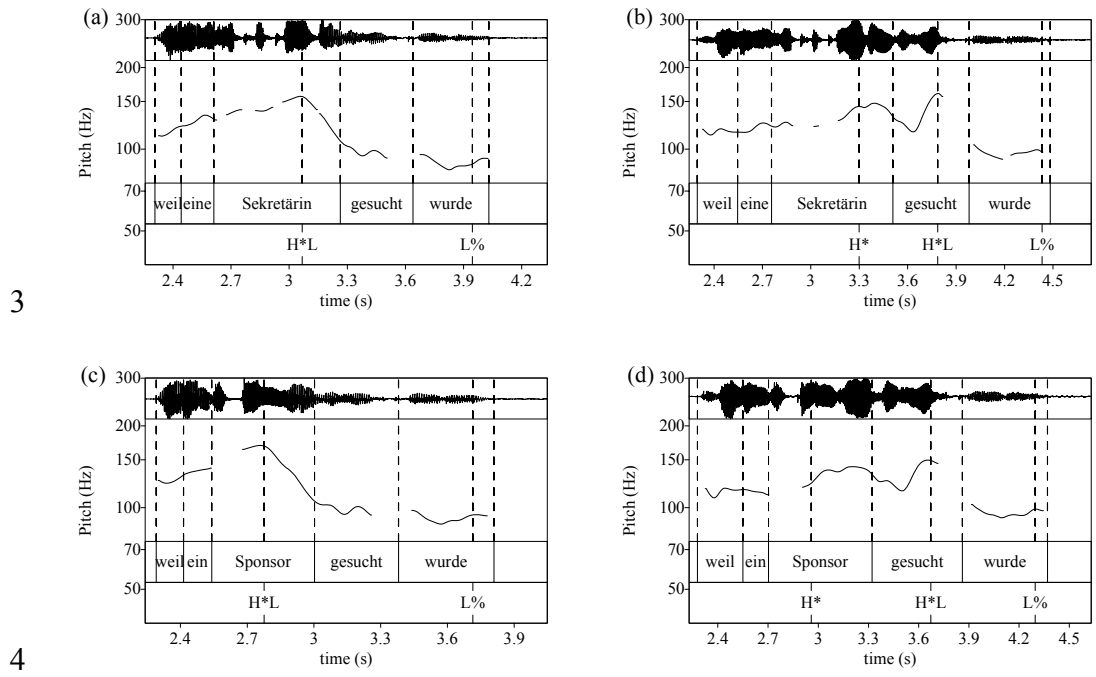
8 The second factor, ACCENT PLACEMENT was manipulated through the realization of
9 the recorded utterances. The level 'early accent' involves a nuclear accent on the
10 subject constituent, while the level 'late accent' involves nuclear accent on the verb.

11 4.1.2 Stimuli

12 Using 16 verbs in two PREDICTABILITY conditions and systematically modifying
13 ACCENT PLACEMENT of the resulting sentences yields a total of 64 target sentences (16
14 verbs × 2 PREDICTABILITY × 2 ACCENT PLACEMENT). A trained male native speaker of
15 German (second author) produced these stimuli keeping the prosodic structure of the
16 stimuli constant according to the conditions. All 64 target sentences, listed in
17 Appendix A, Table A, were digitally recorded in a sound proof booth with a
18 Sennheiser ME 64 condenser microphone applying a sampling frequency of 44.1 kHz
19 and a 16 bit resolution.

20 The speaker systematically used a nuclear falling H*L accent either on the subject
21 or the verb according to the levels of the condition ACCENT PLACEMENT; in cases
22 where the verb carries the nuclear accent, the speaker additionally produced a
23 prenuclear accent on the subject (cf. Féry, 1993; Féry and Kügler, 2008). Figure 1
24 illustrates the pitch contours of the non-predictable and predictable passive stimuli
25 given in (10). Figure 1a and 1c show that the subject carries the nuclear falling pitch

1 accent while Figure 1b and 1d show the sequence of a prenuclear pitch accent on the
 2 subject and the nuclear falling accent on the verb.



6 Figure 1. Pitch tracks of examples (10) with nuclear accent on the subject in
 7 unpredictable (a) and predictable condition (c), and nuclear accent on the verb in
 8 unpredictable (b) and predictable condition (d).

9

10 To ensure that the prosodic composition of the experimental stimuli was constant
 11 across corresponding conditions, the relevant constituents were closely inspected with
 12 respect to F0-maximum and duration in the four conditions. The F0-maximum is
 13 considered to be the phonetic cue of an H tone: for the H* pitch accent the F0-
 14 maximum shows up on the stressed syllable of each corresponding word, in particular
 15 towards the end of the syllable rime (Grabe, 1998). Table 1 presents the F0-maximum
 16 of each constituent, subject and verb, in each of the four conditions averaged over
 17 items. The subject had a significantly higher F0 when it carried the nuclear accent
 18 than when it was prenuclearly accented (168 Hz vs. 154 Hz, $t = 7.1182$, $df = 31$, $p <$

1 0.001). The verb also had a significantly higher F0 when it carried the nuclear accent
 2 than when it was post-nuclearly compressed (162 Hz vs. 108 Hz, $t = 21.0633$, $df = 31$,
 3 $p < 0.001$).

4

5 Table 1. Mean F0-maximum aggregated over items for passive structures ($n = 16$ per
 6 cell) on Subject (S) and Verb (V) split by PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT PLACEMENT
 7 condition.

NUCLEAR ACCENT PLACEMENT				
	Subject		Verb	
PREDICTABILITY	S	V	S	V
non-predictable	167	108	154	161
predictable	168	107	154	162
means	168	108	154	162

8

9 Table 2 shows the duration in milliseconds of each constituent, subject and verb, in
 10 each of the four conditions averaged over items. Duration here refers to word
 11 duration. Since the mean number of syllables differs between the subject and the verb
 12 (subject: 2.7 syllables vs. verb: 4.6 syllables), verb duration is longest compared to the
 13 corresponding subject duration.

14 Comparing verb duration across sentences, the presence of a pitch accent leads to a
 15 significant increase in duration (mean duration $V_{NoAcc} = 243$ ms vs. $V_{Acc} = 311$ ms, t
 16 $= 10.117$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$) (cf. e.g., Beckman, 1986; Kügler, 2008). Comparing
 17 subject duration across sentences, the subject is significantly longer when carrying a
 18 prenuclear accent than when nuclearly accented (mean duration $S_{PREACC} = 277$ ms vs.

1 $S_{\text{NucAcc}} = 225 \text{ ms}$, $t = -5.8119$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$).³ The main conclusion of the
 2 average F0 and duration data in Table 1 and 2 is that prosodic structure is identical
 3 across corresponding conditions; the presence of a pitch accent is reflected in longer
 4 durations and higher F0 peaks.

5

6 Table 2. Mean duration in ms aggregated over items for passive structures ($n = 16$ per
 7 cell) of Subject (S) and Verb (V) split by PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT PLACEMENT
 8 condition.

NUCLEAR ACCENT PLACEMENT				
	Subject		Verb	
PREDICTABILITY	S	V	S	V
non-predictable	197	238	231	299
predictable	253	249	323	324
means	225	243	277	311

9

10 4.1.3 Participants

11 32 native German speakers (22 female) participated in this experiment with an
 12 average age of 26.6 years. None of them reported any speech or hearing impairment.

13 They were paid a small fee for participating.

³ The fact that prenuclearly accented subjects are longer than nuclearly accented ones is due to a cumulative effect of accent and phrase boundary. The prenuclear subject seems to be phrased separately (cf. Gollrad, 2013 for phonological phrase boundary lengthening in German).

1 4.1.4 Experimental procedure

2 The experiment was scripted and performed in PRAAT using the MFC function
3 (Boersma and Weenink, 2011). Each trial consisted of a prerecorded context question
4 which instantiates a wide focus context and a following answer (cf. (11)). The task
5 was to evaluate the semantic congruency between the question and the corresponding
6 answer (cf. Kügler and Gollrad, 2011), which is why the participants were asked to
7 judge whether the performance of the answer fits with the context of the preceding
8 question. They were instructed to express their judgments on a scale from 1 (= not
9 appropriate in this context) to 7 (= appropriate in this context).

10 (11) Wide focus domain

11 A: Warum freuen sich die Leute auf dem Platz?

12 'Why are people on the market so happy?'

13 B: Weil ein Arbeiter gesungen hat.

14 'Because a workman sang.'

15 Applying a latin square design, the stimuli were distributed over four lists with
16 each one containing 16 stimuli of the four experimental conditions, but only one
17 version of each sentence. The experimental items were embedded in a list of 48 fillers
18 of similar structures. The filler sentences were question-answer pairs eliciting subject
19 or object focus. Prosodically congruent filler sentences carried the nuclear accent on
20 the focused constituent. Prosodically incongruent filler sentences carried a nuclear
21 accent on the verb so that the focused constituent (subject or object) did not receive
22 the maximal prominence of the sentence. The filler sentences functioned as a
23 reference frame for the acceptability ratings.

1 Prior to the experiment, participants performed a practice session with eight trials
2 not belonging to the 64 experimental trials. The trials were randomly displayed on the
3 screen and presented via headphones. Before each trial there was a 500ms pause.

4

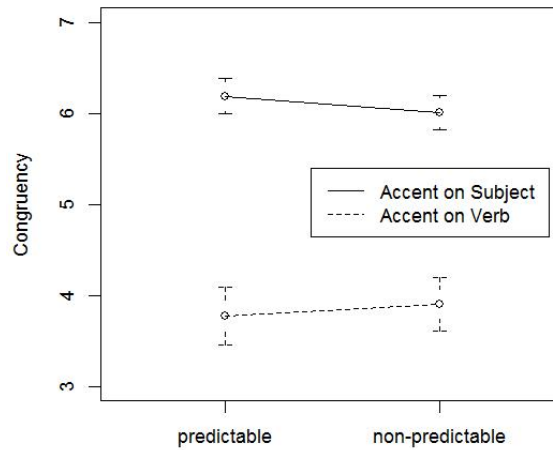
5 4.1.5 Results

6 According to our predictions, predictability of the verb should not affect the
7 acceptability of the data, since the effect of high predictability (= accent on the
8 subject) converges with the assumed default accentuation pattern of passive verbs, in
9 which case the subject carries the nuclear accent. The results shown in Figure 2
10 confirm our predictions. Passive structures with early nuclear accent, i.e., accent on
11 the subject (mean rating = 6.10), are rated significantly more congruent than those
12 with late nuclear accent, i.e., accent on the verb (mean rating = 3.84). Predictability of
13 the verb does not play a role in the acceptability of early vs. late nuclear accent with
14 passive verbs, see Figure 2 and results in Appendix B, Table A. Mean rating of
15 congruent and incongruent filler sentences was 6.57 and 1.83, respectively.

16 Fitting a linear mixed effects model⁴ with PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT PLACEMENT
17 as fixed factors and ‘listener’ and ‘item’ as random factors reveals a significant effect
18 of ACCENT PLACEMENT (SE = 0.24500, $t = 9.23$), but not for PREDICTABILITY (SE =
19 0.15984, $t = 0.17$), showing that an accent on the subject independent of the
20 predictability of the verb resulted in significantly more congruent ratings. This
21 confirms exactly the predictions: speakers have a clear preference for nuclear accent

⁴ For statistical calculations we used R (R Core Team, 2013) and the lme4 package for fitting linear mixed effects models (Bates et al., 2013). In all models, we used the more conservative measure of random slopes (Baayen et al., 2008; Barr et al., 2013) for speakers and items.

1 on the subject with passive verbs, which is not influenced by predictability
2 asymmetries.



3
4 Figure 2. Congruency ratings for sentences with passive verbs split by predictable and
5 non-predictable condition; the solid line represents ratings for sentences with nuclear
6 accent on the subject, the dotted line with nuclear accent on the verb (Y-bars:
7 confidence intervals .95).

8

9 4.2 Experiment 2: Unergative structures

10 4.2.1 Experimental factors

11 As in the previous experiment, a 2 x 2 design of the factors PREDICTABILITY and
12 ACCENT PLACEMENT was set up with unergative structures, each factor containing two
13 levels, as indicated in (12). Full permutation of the levels of both factors resulted in
14 four experimental conditions.

15

16 (12) a. Unergative, non-predictable verb, early nuclear accent placement

17

H*L

L%

1 Weil eine ANGESTELLTE geweint hat.

2 'Because an EMPLOYEE cried.'

3 b. Unergative, non-predictable verb, late nuclear accent placement

4 H* H*L L%

5 Weil eine Angestellte GEWEINT hat.

6 'Because an employee CRIED.'

7 c. Unergative, predictable argument, early nuclear accent placement

8 H*L L%

9 Weil ein BABY geweint hat.

10 'Because a BABY cried.'

11 d. Unergative, predictable argument, late nuclear accent placement

12 H* H*L L%

13 Weil ein Baby GEWEINT hat.

14 'Because a baby CRIED.'

15 Again, the factor PREDICTABILITY was calculated as indicated in section 3.3 above.

16 (12a/b) gives a non-predictable argument of the verb *weinen* 'to cry' with an

17 association score of 0.0, (12c/d) a predictable correspondent with an association score

18 of 8.17 (see Appendix A, Table B for the association scores of the subject – verb pairs

19 used in experiment 2). As in experiment 1, the factor ACCENT PLACEMENT was

20 manipulated through the realization of the recorded utterances. The level 'early

21 accent' involves a nuclear accent on the subject constituent (12a/c), while the level

22 'late accent' involves nuclear accent on the verb (12b/d).

23 4.2.2 Stimuli

24 Using 16 verbs in two PREDICTABILITY conditions and systematically modifying

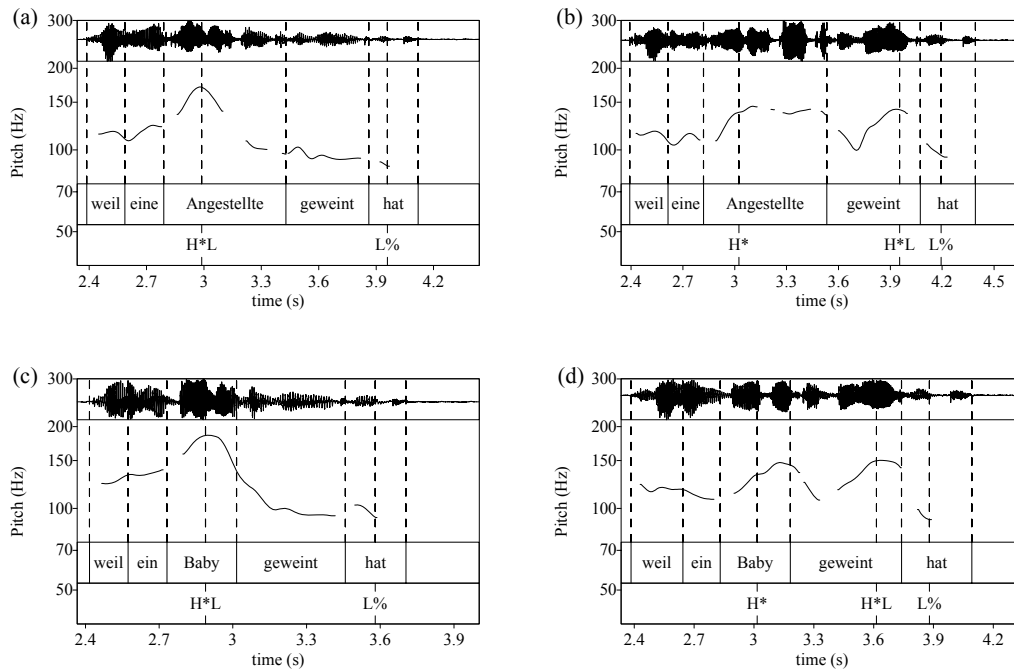
25 ACCENT PLACEMENT of the resulting sentences yields a total of 64 target sentences (16

1 verbs × 2 PREDICTABILITY × 2 ACCENT PLACEMENT). The same speaker as in
2 experiment 1 produced these stimuli keeping the prosodic structure identical across
3 conditions. All 64 target sentences, listed in Appendix A, Table B, were digitally
4 recorded during the same recording session as the stimuli for experiment 1. Stimuli
5 have a sampling frequency of 44.1 kHz and a 16 bit resolution.

6 As before, the speaker systematically used a nuclear falling H*L accent either on
7 the subject or the verb according to the conditions; in cases where the verb carries the
8 nuclear accent the speaker additionally produced a prenuclear pitch accent on the
9 subject (cf. Féry, 1993; Féry and Kügler, 2008).

10 Figure 3 illustrates the pitch contours of the non-predictable and predictable
11 unergative stimuli. Figure 3a and 3c show that the subject carries the nuclear falling
12 pitch accent while Figure 3b and 3d show the sequence of a prenuclear pitch accent on
13 the subject and the nuclear falling on the verb.⁵

⁵ Comparing the phonetic realization of the nuclear pitch accent between Figure 1 and Figure 3 a difference in slope towards the accentual H* tone can be observed. This variation exists not only between the two experiments as the examples in the figures might suggest, but the different stimuli within each experiment show this variation. Hence, in experiment 1 there were stimuli with a steeper slope as illustrated in Figure 3, and in experiment 2 there were stimuli with a shallower slope as illustrated in Figure 1.



1

2

3 Figure 3. Pitch tracks of unergative stimuli (12) with accent on the subject in
 4 unpredictable (a) and predictable condition (c), and accent on the verb in
 5 unpredictable (b) and predictable condition (d).

6

7 As in experiment 1, a close inspection of the stimuli with respect to F0-maximum
 8 and duration in the four conditions ensured that the prosodic composition of the
 9 experimental stimuli was identical across conditions. Table 3 presents the F0-
 10 maximum of each constituent, subject and verb, in each of the four conditions
 11 averaged over items. Measurements confirm that the constituent carrying the nuclear
 12 accent has the highest F0 peaks. Specifically, the subject had a significantly higher F0
 13 when it carried the nuclear accent than when it was prenuclearly accented (175 Hz vs.
 14 150 Hz, $t = 11.9592$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$). The verb also had a significantly higher F0
 15 when it carried the nuclear accent than when it was post-nuclearly compressed (155
 16 Hz vs. 115 Hz, $t = 4.5387$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$).

17

1 Table 3. Mean F0-maximum aggregated over items for unergative structures (n = 16
 2 per cell) on Subject (S) and Verb (V) split by PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT
 3 PLACEMENT condition.

NUCLEAR ACCENT PLACEMENT				
	Subject		Verb	
PREDICTABILITY	S	V	S	V
non-predictable	175	123	149	155
predictable	174	108	151	156
means	175	115	150	155

4
 5 As in experiment 1, the presence of an accent increases word duration (cf. Table 4). A
 6 paired samples t-test reveals that verb duration is significantly longer when carrying a
 7 nuclear accent compared to no accent (mean duration $V_{ACC} = 394$ ms vs. $V_{NOACC} = 310$
 8 ms, $t = 7.6445$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$). Duration of the subject is significantly longer when
 9 carrying a prenuclear accent than when nuclearly accented (mean duration $S_{PREACC} =$
 10 275 ms vs. $S_{NUCACC} = 240$ ms, $t = -4.3289$, $df = 31$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, the conclusion
 11 of the quantitative phonetic data inspection in Table 3 and Table 4 is that the prosodic
 12 structure of the experimental sentences is identical across conditions; longer durations
 13 and higher F0 peaks indicate the presence of an accent.

14
 15 Table 4. Mean duration in ms aggregated over items for unergative structures (n = 16
 16 per cell) of Subject (S) and Verb (V) split by PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT PLACEMENT
 17 condition.

NUCLEAR ACCENT PLACEMENT	
Subject	Verb

PREDICTABILITY	S	V	S	V
non-predictable	250	313	278	407
predictable	230	307	271	382
means	240	310	275	394

1

2 4.2.3 Participants

3 32 native German speakers (22 female), who did not take part in the previous
4 experiment, participated in this experiment. They were 27.2 years on average. None
5 of them reported any speech or hearing impairment. They were paid a small fee for
6 participation.

7 4.2.4 Experimental procedure

8 The experimental procedure was identical to experiment 1 (cf. section 4.1.4 above),
9 using Praat, presenting individual trials (cf. (13)) distributed across four lists, and
10 having participants rate the congruency between a target sentence and a context
11 question on a seven-point scale. As in experiment 1, filler items were prosodically
12 congruent and incongruent with respect to focus context and nuclear accent
13 placement.

14 (13) Wide focus domain

15 A: Warum waren alle so beunruhigt?

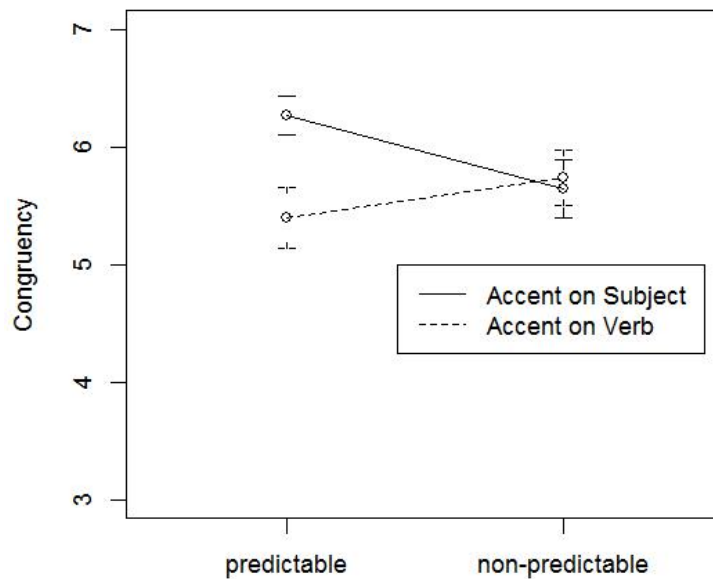
16 'Why was everybody so worried?'

17 B: Weil eine Angestellte geweint hat.

18 'Because an employee cried.'

1 4.2.5 Results

2 According to our predictions, predictability of the verb should affect the congruency
3 ratings of the data. In unergative structures, nuclear accent on the subject or the verb
4 is assumed to be equally acceptable. If, however, the verb is highly predictable in
5 relation with the subject, nuclear accent on the verb should reduce acceptability (e.g.,
6 (12d) vs. (12c)). The results shown in Figure 4 confirm our predictions. With
7 unergative verbs in the non-predictability condition, early nuclear accent (i.e., accent
8 on the subject, cf. Figure 3a, mean rating 5.64) is rated as congruent as late nuclear
9 accent (i.e., accent on the verb, cf. Figure 3b, mean rating 5.73). However,
10 PREDICTABILITY interacts with ACCENT PLACEMENT in the predicted way: With a
11 highly expected verb, constructions with early nuclear accent (accent on the subject,
12 cf. Figure 3c, mean rating = 6.27) are significantly more congruent than constructions
13 with late nuclear accent (accent on the verb, cf. Figure 3d, mean rating 5.40). See
14 Figure 4 and results in Appendix B, Table B. Mean rating of prosodically congruent
15 filler sentences was 6.42, and 1.91 for prosodically incongruent filler sentences on
16 average.



1
 2 Figure 4. Congruency ratings for sentences with unergative verbs split by predictable
 3 and non-predictable condition; the solid line represents ratings for sentences with
 4 nuclear accent on the subject, the dotted line with nuclear accent on the verb (Y-bars:
 5 confidence intervals .95).

6
 7 We fitted a linear mixed effects model with PREDICTABILITY and ACCENT
 8 PLACEMENT as fixed factors and random slopes and intercepts for ‘listener’ and ‘item’.
 9 The model reveals neither a significant effect for ACCENT PLACEMENT ($SE = 0.20257$,
 10 $t = 1.91$) nor for PREDICTABILITY ($SE = 0.16577$, $t = 0.87$). Yet, a significant
 11 interaction of both factors ($SE = 0.09533$, $t = 5.04$) reflects the disordinal interaction
 12 pattern that we see in Figure 4. This interaction indicates that the effect of ACCENT
 13 PLACEMENT depends on PREDICTABILITY. As shown in Figure 4, an accent on the verb
 14 results in a loss of acceptability with predictable verbs while both possibilities of
 15 ACCENT PLACEMENT are equally acceptable otherwise.

16

1 **5. Discussion**

2 The aim of the present empirical study was to examine the interaction of the
3 intransitive verb class distinction with semantic/pragmatic properties. In particular, we
4 investigated the effects of verb class on the accentual pattern and its interaction with
5 predictability. The main reason for examining predictability was the following: as a
6 factor, predictability can be measured for any verb-subject combination and as such
7 can lead to generalizable conclusions for the entire inventory of intransitive verbs
8 (which is not the case for anecdotal observations on particular verb groups, e.g.,
9 ‘verbs of (dis)appearance’, see Section 2.3). We used a contextual congruency
10 perception paradigm to achieve acceptability judgements on sentences with different
11 nuclear ACCENT PLACEMENT under manipulation of the verb class and the
12 PREDICTABILITY of the subject/verb configuration.

13 In a first experiment on intransitive structures with an internal argument (passive
14 verbs), we found a global preference for nuclear accent on the subject that does not
15 significantly interact with predictability; see Figure 2. This finding leads to two
16 conclusions: (a) it confirms the initial intuition obtained by introspective data that the
17 internal argument of passive verbs bears the nuclear accent; (b) it shows that this
18 intuition is independent of factors such as predictability. In a second experiment on
19 intransitive structures with an external argument (unergative verbs), we found that the
20 accentual pattern depends on predictability (empirically justified by a significant
21 interaction effect): if the verb is non-predictable, there is no evidence for a preference
22 for one or the other accent option; when the verb is predictable, the preferred option is
23 a nuclear accent on the subject; see Figure 4.

24 Due to the difficulties of implementing the factor predictability with unaccusative
25 verbs (see Section 3.4) we tested passive verbs as representatives of the classes of

1 intransitive verbs with an internal argument in experiment 1. As a matter of course, it
2 remains unclear whether the passive results carry over to unaccusative verbs,
3 especially in regard to a baseline association with nuclear accent on the subject. As
4 summarized in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, previous experimental studies on English
5 unaccusatives are inconsistent in their evidence of showing nuclear accent on the
6 subject. For German unaccusatives, experimental evidence for a baseline nuclear
7 accent on the subject is still pending.

8 The influence of predictability is only observed with unergative verbs, but not with
9 passive verbs, i.e., it is present with those verbs that allow for early OR late nuclear
10 accent in the baseline configuration, but not with verbs that are associated with early
11 nuclear accent on the subject. This finding has implications for the impact of
12 predictability on the accentual pattern. Recall that our measure of predictability is
13 based on the association score of subjects and verbs obtained from a DWDS corpus
14 query; see Section 3.3. The association score is a mutual measure which implies that
15 in the ‘maximally predictable’ combinations (see Appendix A), the subject can be
16 predicted with great confidence with the verb and vice versa, the verb can be
17 predicted with great confidence with the subject. However, the effects of
18 predictability on the accentual pattern are asymmetric: the ‘maximally predictable’
19 combinations are preferably realized with a deaccented verb and not either with a
20 deaccented verb or a deaccented subject. Our experimental results show that
21 predictability has only an impact with unergatives, i.e., it has an influence on
22 accenting the verb. There is no impact when the baseline involves an accent on the
23 subject (i.e., with passives), which indicates that subjects that can be predicted by the
24 verbs are not deaccented. Thus, we conclude that the critical issue is that certain verbs
25 are highly predictable in the context of particular subjects, but not vice versa.

1 Our findings corroborate the view that several factors have an influence on
2 accentual patterns of simple intransitive sentences (as discussed in several studies
3 since Bolinger, 1972; see recent experimental findings in Hirsch and Wagner, 2011).
4 However, comparing the effect of predictability with unergatives and passives shows
5 that there is an independent influence of verb class that cannot be reduced to the
6 impact of the factor investigated in this study. The effect of predictability has been
7 shown to depend on verb class. The potential effects of context and animacy were
8 controlled in our experiments: all utterances were presented in wide focus contexts;
9 all subjects were animate. Thus, we conclude that there is an impact of verb class that
10 is independent of predictability, animacy, and context.

11 The observed difference between passives and unergatives generally confirms
12 previous intuitions about the impact of verb class (see Féry, 1993, 2011; Kratzer and
13 Selkirk, 2007; Uhmman, 1991 for German). The challenging issue in our results is the
14 asymmetry between passives and unergatives: setting aside the interaction with
15 predictability, the accent preferences with unergatives do not show the mirror image
16 of the subject-accent preference with passives. While passives have a preference for
17 an accentual pattern, the accentual realization of unergatives seems to be
18 underspecified. This asymmetry is not in line with assuming a bi-unique relation
19 between accent and verb class, such that unaccusative/passive structures are mapped
20 with a subject accent and unergative structures with a verb accent (Kahnemuyipour,
21 2009). A part of the previous research assumes that unergatives occur with both
22 patterns (e.g., Féry, 2011; Zubizarreta and Vergnaud, 2005:533), and Irwin (2011)
23 observes an increase of variability with unergatives in an empirical study on English
24 speech production (which is, however, not statistically justified). Hoskins' (1996)
25 results from speech production in English are compatible with different

1 interpretations. This study reports averages of F_0 maxima with subject-verb structures
2 containing unaccusative, passive and unergative verbs. The results show a larger
3 difference between subject and verb with unaccusatives and passives, which implies
4 that the subject is more frequently accented in the corresponding sentences, however,
5 it is not clear from Hoskins' (1996) data whether unergatives always involve an
6 accent on the verb or display two possibilities.

7 The empirical justification of the alternative accentual patterns has crucial
8 implications for modelling the distinction between unaccusatives/passives and
9 unergatives. Approaches exclusively based on the difference in the syntactic
10 derivation of these types of clauses face a crucial problem with the optional accent
11 realization for unergative verbs. If the difference in accentual pattern only relies on
12 the different phases of derivation (as developed by Kahnemuyipour, 2009 or Irwin,
13 2012), then the optional accent of unergatives needs additional assumptions. It is
14 possible to assume an optional syntactic operation that applies to unergative
15 structures, such that unergative verbs can either be realized within the VP or in higher
16 head position (Voice^o) that is outside the spellout domain of the lower VP-phase
17 (Irwin, 2012, based on Schäfer, 2008). The theoretical problem of such accounts is the
18 stipulation of an additional derivational step and the lack of explanation for the
19 optional operation applying to a subset of intransitive verbs.

20 Models that involve a role of an information structural operation such as
21 topicalization have the advantage that they can accommodate optional phenomena in a
22 more plausible way. We have seen in Section 2.3 that several models assume the
23 possibility of different readings under wide focus. Kratzer and Selkirk (2007) and
24 Féry (2011) assume that unergative verbs come with a topic argument in all-new
25 contexts; Zubizarreta and Vergnaud (2005) illustrate that by means of notions such as

1 ‘surprise about the information conveyed’, it is possible to have different information
2 structures in the same context. Such a model can account for the observed optionality
3 by assuming that unergative verbs come with different information structures in all-
4 new contexts. This is, the presented findings are accounted for if we assume that a
5 topic-comment articulation is possible with unergative verbs, also in the absence of a
6 contextual trigger of subject topicalization.

7

8 **6. Conclusion**

9 This study investigated the accentual patterns of simple intransitive sentences in
10 German that contain unergative and passive verbs. We started with the observation in
11 previous research that these verb classes are realized with different accentual patterns
12 in all-new contexts. The pattern of passives/unaccusatives involves nuclear accent on
13 the subject, while the corresponding pattern of unergatives involves nuclear accent on
14 the verb. This difference gave rise to several accounts on syntax/prosody mapping;
15 see Section 2. The syntactic properties of the single argument differ depending on the
16 intransitive verb type: it is an internal argument with passives/unaccusatives (bearing
17 the theta role of a patient) and an external argument with unergatives (bearing the
18 theta role of an agent). Approaches based exclusively on syntax argue that the higher
19 argument of unergatives is in a syntactic projection that is phrased separately from the
20 VP, which is not the case for the argument of passives/unaccusatives; see details in
21 Section 2.2. Other approaches assume that the relation between prosody and syntax is
22 mediated by information structure, i.e., by the preference for unergatives to be
23 realized in a topic-comment configuration – even out of the blue; see Section 2.3.

24 We carried out an empirical study with acceptability judgments, which has shown
25 that the felicity of accentual patterns can be affected by the predictability of the verb

1 vis-à-vis the subject. However, there is an effect of verb class that is independent of
2 predictability and is compatible with previous analyses about an impact of syntactic
3 factors on accent placement. The crucial empirical finding is that unergatives are not
4 the mirror image of passives: while in all-new contexts, passives involve a preference
5 for accenting the subject, both examined accentual patterns are equally accepted with
6 unergative verbs.

7 The critical finding of our study can be accounted for if we assume that unergative
8 verbs come with two different information structural configurations in all-new
9 contexts: a configuration containing a topic which involves an accent on the verb and
10 a topicless configuration that is prosodically realized like passives/unaccusative verbs.

11

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21

22 **Appendix A. Target items**

23 (The column ‘as’ displays the association score for the combination of the subject constituent and the
24 verb of the target item, see definition in Section 3.3; <http://www.dwds.de>, values extracted in August
25 2012)

26

1 Table A. Associations scores of items with passive verbs, experiment 1.

item	maximally predictable		minimally predictable	
	target sentence	as	target sentence	as
01	<i>Als ein Nachfolger benannt wurde.</i>	5.2	<i>Als ein Prüfer benannt wurde.</i>	0
02	<i>Weil ein Gutachter bestellt wurde.</i>	10.1	<i>Weil ein Kamerateam bestellt wurde.</i>	0
03	<i>Weil ein Präsident gewählt wurde.</i>	17.8	<i>Weil eine Lehrerin gewählt wurde.</i>	0
04	<i>Weil ein Sponsor gesucht wurde.</i>	9.9	<i>Weil eine Sekretärin gesucht wurde.</i>	0
05	<i>Weil ein Minister ernannt wurde.</i>	13.2	<i>Weil ein Ortsvorsteher ernannt wurde.</i>	0
06	<i>Weil ein Schwerbehinderter eingestellt wurde.</i>	15.3	<i>Weil eine Reinigungskraft eingestellt wurde.</i>	0
07	<i>Als ein Toter geborgen wurde.</i>	10.5	<i>Als ein Kind geborgen wurde.</i>	1.7
08	<i>Weil ein Zwangsarbeiter eingesetzt wurde.</i>	6.6	<i>Weil ein Spitzel eingesetzt wurde.</i>	1.3
09	<i>Als ein Arzt geholt wurde.</i>	7.5	<i>Als ein Vater geholt wurde.</i>	0
10	<i>Als ein Professor berufen wurde.</i>	13.4	<i>Als ein Manager berufen wurde.</i>	0
11	<i>Als ein Polizist gerufen wurde.</i>	9.1	<i>Als ein Anwohner gerufen wurde.</i>	0
12	<i>Weil ein Zeuge geladen wurde.</i>	9.1	<i>Weil ein Beamter geladen wurde.</i>	0
13	<i>Weil eine Verletzte gebracht wurde.</i>	7.8	<i>Weil ein Mitarbeiter gebracht wurde.</i>	0.1
14	<i>Als ein Patient eingeliefert wurde.</i>	8.6	<i>Als ein Kind eingeliefert wurde.</i>	2.3
15	<i>Als eine Leiche gefunden wurde.</i>	15.1	<i>Als ein Junge gefunden wurde.</i>	0.7
16	<i>Weil ein Sohn geboren wurde.</i>	16.1	<i>Weil ein Mädchen geboren wurde.</i>	3.1
mean		10.9		0.6
SE		0.9		0.2

2

3 Table B. Associations scores of items with unergative verbs, experiment 2.

item	maximally predictable		minimally predictable	
	target sentence	as	target sentence	as
01	<i>Als ein Priester gepredigt hat.</i>	7.9	<i>Als ein Teilnehmer gepredigt hat.</i>	0
02	<i>Weil ein Arbeiter gestreikt hat.</i>	16.4	<i>Weil ein Journalist gestreikt hat.</i>	1.7
03	<i>Weil ein Sportler trainiert hat.</i>	7.2	<i>Weil ein Schüler trainiert hat.</i>	0
04	<i>Als eine Ballerina getanzt hat.</i>	8.8	<i>Als eine Sängerin getanzt hat.</i>	1.5
05	<i>Weil ein Bariton gesungen hat.</i>	11.2	<i>Weil ein Gast gesungen hat.</i>	0.1
06	<i>Als ein Zuhörer applaudiert hat.</i>	11.1	<i>Als eine Abgeordnete applaudiert hat.</i>	2.8
07	<i>Weil ein Baby geweint hat.</i>	8.2	<i>Weil eine Angestellte geweint hat.</i>	0
08	<i>Als ein Gläubiger gebetet hat.</i>	10.1	<i>Als ein Mitglied gebetet hat.</i>	0
09	<i>Weil ein Käuzchen geschrien hat.</i>	15.2	<i>Weil ein Wanderer geschrien hat.</i>	0.7
10	<i>Als ein Löwe gebrüllt hat.</i>	9.2	<i>Als ein Demonstrant gebrüllt hat.</i>	0
11	<i>Weil ein Spatz gepfiffen hat.</i>	27.3	<i>Weil ein Schaulustiger gepfiffen hat.</i>	0
12	<i>Weil eine Biene gesummt hat.</i>	15.1	<i>Weil ein Student gesummt hat.</i>	0
13	<i>Weil ein Wolf geheult hat.</i>	12.3	<i>Weil eine Schülerin geheult hat.</i>	0
14	<i>Als ein Rabe gekrächzt hat.</i>	18.3	<i>Als ein Schauspieler gekrächzt hat.</i>	0
15	<i>Als eine Möwe gekreischt hat.</i>	8.7	<i>Als eine Zuschauerin gekreischt hat.</i>	0
16	<i>Als ein Hund geknurr hat.</i>	9.9	<i>Als ein Clown geknurr hat.</i>	0
mean		12.3		0.4
SE		1.3		0.2

4

5 Appendix B. Results

1 Table A. Experiment 1: passive verbs

verb	accent	<i>n</i>	mean	SE
predictable	subject	32	6.19	0.1
	verb	32	3.77	0.2
non-predictable	subject	32	6.01	0.1
	verb	32	3.90	0.2

2

3 Table B. Experiment 2 : unergative verbs

verb	accent	<i>n</i>	mean	SE
predictable	subject	32	6.27	0.1
	verb	32	5.40	0.2
non-predictable	subject	32	5.64	0.2
	verb	32	5.73	0.2

4

5

6

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