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Modelling the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N possessive constructions in Mandarin Chinese: a mixed effects logistic regression approach

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Abstract: This study investigates the choice between two near-synonymous Mandarin Chinese possessive constructions, namely, the PP+DE+N (e.g., *wǒ de mama*, ‘my mom’) and PP+N (e.g., *wǒ mama*, ‘my mom’). Deploying a mixed effects logistic regression model to evaluate the impact of linguistic (syntactic and semantic) and extralinguistic (register) factors, this study reveals a substantial relationship between the selection of possessive constructions and several fixed effects including the number of attributes before N, the syntactic component of PP+(DE)+N, the semantic connection between PP and N, the person and number of the PP, and the context or style of the texts. Furthermore, this study uncovers that the noun serves as an essential random effect that helps determine the conceptual distance between the PP and N. To conclude, this study unveils the patterns governing the use or omission of *de* in Mandarin Chinese possessive constructions, hence enhancing our comprehension of syntactic nuances in the language. It also offers a potent methodological approach for future investigations of the reasons underpinning the formal marking of possessive constructions.

Keywords: possessive constructions; PP+(DE)+N constructions in Mandarin Chinese; mixed effects logistic regression; linguistic and extralinguistic factors

The abbreviations ‘PP’ and ‘N’ stand for personal pronoun and noun, respectively.

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1 Introduction

Every language encompasses possessive constructions,¹ as underscored by both Robert Dixon (2010: 262) and Ronald Langacker (1995: 51). However, crosslinguistic discrepancies exist concerning the formal marking of these constructions across diverse languages. Dixon elucidates this variation, observing that formal markers may appear on the possessor, on the possessed, on both, or on neither, in what he terms as ‘simply apposed’ (Dixon 2010: 262). In the context of Mandarin Chinese, possessive constructions generally incorporate the genitive marker *de* suffixed to the possessor, as demonstrated in Example (1).

- (1) 老師 的 書
lǎoshī de shū
teacher GEN book
‘teacher’s book’

However, the emergence of *de* becomes complex when the personal pronoun (PP) functions as the possessor, a scenario that is most prevalent and prototypical in Mandarin Chinese possessive constructions (MPC),² as illustrated in example (2).

- (2) a. 我 的 媽媽
wǒ de māma
1sg GEN mom
‘my mom’
b. 我 媽媽
wǒ māma
1sg mom
‘my mom’
c. 我 的 書
wǒ de shū
1sg GEN book
‘my book’

¹ This study focuses exclusively on possessive constructions within a noun phrase (NP). Predicative possessive constructions, which involve the use of verbs such as ‘have’ or ‘exist’, fall outside the scope of our investigation.

² In the research conducted by Chen Alvin Cheng-Hsien (2009), it was found that the majority of the top 20 most frequent MPC identified in the corpus were composed of personal pronouns serving as possessors.

- d. * 我 書
 wǒ shū
 1sg book
 ‘my book’

Both constructions (2a) and (2c) follow the PP+DE+N schema, while (2b) and (2d) adhere to the PP+N schema. Although (2a) and (2b) are grammatically correct and nearly synonymous possessive constructions, the grammaticality of (2c) and (2d) is directly contingent upon the inclusion or exclusion of *de*. This raises a pertinent question: what factors govern the presence or absence of the formal marker *de*. Answering this question not only elucidates the rationale behind the formal marking of MPC, but may also contribute to typological studies of possessive constructions in other languages.

In order to address the above question, the present study employs mixed-effects logistic regression to model the choice between the PP+DE+N and PP+N constructions in Mandarin Chinese. Utilizing corpus data, this study differentiates between fixed and random effects, and quantifies both linguistic factors (syntactic and semantic) and extralinguistic factors (register).³

The primary distinction between the PP+DE+N and PP+N constructions resides in the presence or absence of *de*. Extensive exploration of this topic can be found in previous literature, with the three most notable perspectives proposed by Cui Xiliang (1992), Zhang Min (1998), and Xu Yangchun (2008).

Cui Xiliang (1992) posits that the inclusion or exclusion of *de* when PP is used as an attributive depends on whether the possessive relationship between PP and the head noun is changeable. If the relationship is not changeable, *de* can either be present or omitted, rendering both the PP+DE+N form *wǒ de bàba* (meaning ‘my father’) and the PP+N form *wǒ bàba* (also meaning ‘my father’) grammatically correct. However, when the relationship is changeable, *de* becomes obligatory. Consequently, ‘my watch’ can only be expressed in the PP+DE+N form ‘*wǒ de shǒubiǎo*’, not in the PP+N form ‘*wǒ shǒubiǎo*’.

Zhang Min (1998) identifies two conditions that determine whether PP and N can form a direct relationship without the inclusion of *de*: (1) whether PP+DE+N can be represented by proper names; (2) whether PP+DE+N signifies a bidirectional possessive relationship. For instance, the PP+DE+N form *wǒ de gēge* (meaning ‘my elder brother’) can be represented by a proper name (such as a man named ‘Zhang San’), allowing for the omission of *de* between PP *wǒ* (‘I’) and N *gēge* ‘elder brother’. Conversely, the PP+DE+N form *wǒ de shǒubiǎo* ‘my watch’ cannot be represented by

³ Natalia Levshina et al. (2013) employed an alternative set of terminologies, viz., the formal, conceptual, and lectal dimensions.

a unique proper name, necessitating the inclusion of *de* between PP *wǒ* ‘I’ and N *shǒubiǎo* ‘watch’. Furthermore, a bidirectional possessive relationship exists between PP *wǒ* ‘I’ and N *gēge* ‘elder brother’, indicating that I have an elder brother and concurrently, my elder brother has me as a younger sibling. This allows for the omission of *de* between *wǒ* ‘I’ and *gēge* ‘elder brother’. This contrasts with the unidirectional possessive relationship between PP *wǒ* ‘I’ and N *shǒubiǎo* ‘watch’, where *shǒubiǎo* ‘watch’ can only be owned by PP *wǒ* ‘I’, requiring the inclusion of *de* between *wǒ* ‘I’ and *shǒubiǎo* ‘watch’.

Xu Yangchun (2008) employs the principle of relational combination to elucidate the inclusion or omission of *de* when PP is used as an attributive. He posits that if PP+N corresponds to an appellation relationship (as in *tā érzi* ‘his son’), a member-unit relationship (as in *tāmen gōngsī* ‘their company’), or a reference-location relationship (as in *tā qiánmiàn* ‘in front of her’), then *de* can be omitted between PP and N.

In conclusion, the aforementioned research provides a qualitative understanding of the rules governing the presence or absence of *de* in the PP+(DE)+N construction. However, the principles and conditions outlined in these studies are challenging to apply as quantitative criteria when faced with extensive corpus data. Concepts like ‘changeable possessive relationship,’ ‘bidirectional possessive relationship,’ and the ‘principle of relational combination’ are particularly suited for elucidating a confined set of introspective data that scrutinizes the conceptual dynamics between personal pronouns (PP) and nouns (N). Nevertheless, the characteristics of PP (e.g., person, gender, number), the nuanced semantics of N (representing entities such as ‘mom,’ ‘country,’ ‘mind,’ ‘room,’ etc.), and the broader contextual framework within which PP+(DE)+N are positioned (whether the entire structure functions as the subject or object, whether it is utilized in literary works or journalistic pieces) can collectively influence the selection between PP+(DE)+N and PP+N. To comprehensively evaluate all these variables within extensive corpora, a quantitative analysis characterized by objectivity is imperative. Hence, this study endeavors to identify explanatory variables that establish clear boundaries to predict the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N. Specifically, this study seeks to determine the significance of these explanatory variables and, if significant, quantify their explanatory power.

2 Data and methodology

2.1 Data

The data utilized in this study were sourced from the Beijing Language and Culture University Corpus Center (BCC) Corpus. This expansive online Chinese corpus boasts a volume of approximately 9.5 billion characters. It encompasses a diverse range of

sources, including newspapers (2 billion characters), literature (3 billion characters), comprehensive data (1.9 billion characters), ancient Chinese texts (2 billion characters), and dialogues (600 million characters, derived from microblogs and movie subtitles). Given its vast scale and diversity, the BCC Corpus provides a comprehensive representation of language usage within contemporary Chinese society.

The methodology for extracting targeted data from the corpus is outlined as follows.

1. Extract 16 combinations for each of PP+DE+N and PP+N based on 8 distinct personal pronouns in Mandarin Chinese and 2 registers in BCC.⁴
2. From the 150 most frequent character strings in each combination, as determined by the corpus, identify nouns appearing more than half the time across the 16 combinations in both constructions.
3. Extract 33 nouns with high frequency in both PP+DE+N and PP+N constructions (refer to Table 1).
4. Query each combination within the corpus and extract five representative sentences for each to ensure a sufficient data pool.
5. Procure a total of 4,050 observations, including 2,349 instances of PP+DE+N and 1701 instances of PP+N.
6. Manually code the observations according to explanatory variables detailed in Section 2.3.

2.2 Mixed effects models

Mixed-effects models, often abbreviated as mixed models, incorporate both fixed and random effects. As delineated by Rolf Baayen (2008: 241), fixed effects are employed for factors with replicable levels, whereas random effects are utilized for ‘factors with levels randomly sampled from a substantially larger population’. Within the context of linguistic experiments and studies, items (words) and subjects (participants) frequently serve as common random effects.

Mixed models have been employed in research pertaining to constructions and metonymic words and expressions, as evidenced in studies by Natalia Levshina et al. (2013), and Zhang Weiwei et al. (2018; 2011). Furthermore, numerous studies within the realm of second language acquisition have also utilized mixed models. These include, but are not limited to, works by Wu Shiyu et al. (2017), Qi Jing and Wang Hua (2020), Fang Yinjie and Liang Maocheng (2020), and Ji Yinglin (2020), as well as Lu Shiyi et al. (2020).

4 Mandarin Chinese comprises 8 personal pronouns: *wǒ* ‘I’, *nǐ* ‘you (sg)’, *tā* ‘he’, *tā* ‘she’, *wǒmen* ‘we’, *nimen* ‘you (pl)’, *tāmen* ‘they (masculine)’, and *tāmen* ‘they (feminine)’. The BCC corpus encompasses 2 registers, literature (3 billion characters) and newspapers (2 billion characters), each containing roughly equivalent quantities of data.

Table 1: The most frequently occurring nouns in PP+DE+N and PP+N. ‘父親 fùqin (father)’ and ‘母親 mǔqin (mother)’ are predominantly used in written contexts, whereas ‘爸爸 bàba (dad)’ and ‘媽媽 mama (mom)’ are primarily utilized in spoken discourse. ‘建議 jiànyì (suggestion)’, ‘病 bìng (disease)’, ‘計畫 jìhuà (plan)’ can also be interpreted as verbs. This study determines their noun status based on the syntactic role they play. For instance, in PP+DE+N constructions, they typically act as subjects (e.g., 他的病好了, ‘His illness has recovered’) or objects (e.g., 治好了他的病, ‘cured his illness’), establishing them as nouns. Similarly, in PP+N constructions, they frequently appear within prepositional phrases (e.g., 在他建議下, ‘at his suggestion’; 在他病中, ‘during his illness’), further confirming their noun classification in these contexts.

兄弟 xiōngdì	父親 fùqin	孩子 háizi	母親 mǔqin	兒子 érzi
‘brother’	‘father’	‘child’	‘mother’	‘son’
父母 fùmǔ	哥哥 gēge	爸爸 bàba	媽媽 mama	女兒 nǚ’ér
‘parent’	‘elder brother’	‘dad’	‘mom’	‘daughter’
手 shǒu	人 rén	心 xīn	身體 shēntǐ	臉 liǎn
‘hand’	‘people’	‘heart’	‘body’	‘face’
內心 nèixīn	腳 jiǎo	思想 sīxiǎng	生命 shēngmìng	頭腦 tóunǎo
‘inner heart’	‘foot’	‘thought’	‘life’	‘mind’
心靈 xīnlíng	國家 guójiā	耳朵 ěrduo	錢 qián	眼睛 yǎnjīng
‘soul’	‘country’	‘ear’	‘money’	‘eye’
精神 jīngshén	建議 jiànyì	病 bìng	信 xìn	房間 fángjiān
‘spirit’	‘suggestion’	‘disease’	‘letter’	‘room’
計畫 jìhuà	家庭 jiātíng	心情 xīnqíng		
‘plan’	‘family’	‘mood’		

Mixed models are employed in this study to investigate various factors within PP+(DE)+N constructions due to their ability to quantify the cumulative impact of both fixed and random effects of explanatory variables, thereby ensuring high model accuracy. To facilitate the fitting of mixed models, this study utilizes the glmer() function from the lme4 package in R.

2.3 Variables⁵

The variables incorporated within the mixed models are delineated as follows. Variables A-H serve as explanatory variables for fixed effects, while Variable I is the explanatory variable for the random effect. Variable J functions as the response variable. From another perspective, Variables A-C and E-G represent syntactic factors, whereas Variables D and I denote semantic factors. Variable H corresponds to the extralinguistic register factor.

⁵ For illustrative purposes, all examples provided in this section are introspective. The presence of parentheses (的) in the original examples signifies that *de* can either be retained or omitted within the given context.

A Number of attributes in the NP (abbreviated as num_attr)

Cheng Shuqiu (2009: 69) posits that an increase in the number of attribute items correlates with a higher likelihood of *de* being omitted following the possessive attribute. Consequently, this study designates the levels of num_attr preceding N as 1, 2, and multiple (abbreviated as ‘m’; applicable when num_attr exceeds 2).

num_attr = 1:

- (3) 我 (的) 哥哥
wǒ de gēge
1sg GEN elder brother
‘my elder brother’

num_attr = 2:

- (4) 我 (的) 哥哥 的 工作
wǒ de gēge de gōngzuò
1sg GEN elder brother GEN job
‘my elder brother’s job’

num_attr = m:

- (5) 我 (的) 哥哥 的 工作 (的) 地點
wǒ de gēge de gōngzuò de dìdiǎn
1sg GEN elder brother GEN job GEN place
‘my elder brother’s working place’

B Position

Cheng Shuqiu (2009: 110) proposes that within a noun phrase (NP), the attribute situated closer to the center is more likely to carry *de*, whereas the attribute nearer to either end is more prone to omit *de*. Consequently, this study establishes the levels of the attributive position of PP as left (abbreviated as ‘l’), middle (abbreviated as ‘m’), right (abbreviated as ‘r’), and NA (applicable when only one attribute exists within an NP).
position = l:

- (6) 我 (的) 爸爸 的 錢
wǒ de bàba de qián
1sg GEN dad GEN money
‘my dad’s money’

position = m:

- (7) 當時 的 我 (的) 家庭 的 成員
 dāngshí de wǒ de jiāting de chéngyuán
 at that time GEN 1sg GEN family GEN member
 ‘my family members at that time’

position = r:

- (8) 善良 的 我 (的) 爸爸
 shànliáng de wǒ de bàba
 kindhearted GEN 1sg GEN dad
 ‘my kindhearted dad’

position = NA:

- (9) 我 (的) 爸爸
 wǒ de bàba
 1sg GEN dad
 ‘my dad’

C Syntactic component (abbreviated as *syn_comp*)

Lu Bingfu (2011) and Pan Tingting (2021) suggest that an NP containing *de* is more likely to be omitted when it functions as a subject, compared to when it serves as an object. Consequently, this study differentiates the syntactic composition (*syn_comp*) of PP+(DE)+N as subject (abbreviated as ‘s’), object (abbreviated as ‘o’), and NA (applicable when PP+(DE)+N functions as both subject and object).

syn_comp = s:

- (10) 我 (的) 爸爸 是 老師。
 wǒ de bàba shì lǎoshī
 1sg GEN dad COP teacher
 ‘My dad is a teacher.’

syn_comp = o:

- (11) a. 她 是 我 (的) 媽媽。
 tā shì wǒ de māma
 3sg.f COP 1sg GEN mom
 ‘She is my mom.’

- b. 書 放 在
 shū fàng zài
 book put prep
 我 (的) 手 上。
 wǒ de shǒu shàng
 1sg GEN hand used after a noun to indicate the surface of something
 ‘The book is in my hands.’

syn_comp = NA:

- (12) a. 她 讓 她 (的) 孩子 學習。
 tā ràng tā de háizi xuéxí
 3sg.f let 3sg.f GEN child study
 ‘She let her child study.’
 b. 愛 我們 的 父母 是 好事。
 ài wǒmen de fùmǔ shì hǎoshì
 love 1pl GEN parent COP good deed
 ‘It’s good to love our parents.’

In the given examples, the PP+(DE)+N construction plays different roles within the sentence structure. In (10), *wǒ de bàba* ‘my dad’ functions as the subject of the sentence. In (11a), *wǒ de māma* ‘my mom’ serves as the object of the copula *shì*. In (11b), *wǒ de shǒu* ‘my hand’ is the object of the preposition *zài*. In (12a), *tā de háizi* ‘her child’ acts as both the object of *ràng* ‘let’ and the subject of *xuéxí* ‘study’. In (12b), *wǒmen de fùmǔ* ‘our parents’ is the object of *ài* ‘love’, while *ài wǒmen de fùmǔ* ‘love our parents’ serves as the subject of the sentence.

D Semantic relationship (abbreviated as *sem_rel*)

Chen Zhenyu and Ye Jingting (2014) propose a hierarchy of ‘controllability levels’, which they delineate as follows: organs, body parts > common noun > real space > kinship terms > general appellation > family, unit, and other collective nouns. Within this hierarchy, elements positioned towards the left exhibit a higher degree of controllability and a greater propensity for the utilization of possessive markers, such as *de*. Conversely, elements situated towards the right demonstrate a lower degree of controllability and a reduced tendency to employ possessive markers. To investigate the potential influence of the semantic relationship between PP and N on the inclusion or exclusion of *de*, this study incorporates semantic relationship

(sem_rel) annotations across six categories: kinship relationships, attributes, whole-part relationships, ownership, associations, and nominalizations.

Kinship relationship:

- (13) 我 (的) 母親
wǒ de mǔqīn
1sg GEN mother
'my mother'

An attribute:

- (14) 我 的 心情
wǒ de xīnqíng
1sg GEN mood
'my mood'

Whole-part relationship:

- (15) 我 的 手
wǒ de shǒu
1sg GEN hand
'my hand'

Ownership:

- (16) 我 (的) 房間
wǒ de fángjiān
1sg GEN room
'my room'

Association:

- (17) 我 (的) 國家
wǒ de guójiā
1sg GEN country
'my country'

Nominalization:

- (18) 我 的 計畫
wǒ de jìhuà
1sg GEN plan
'my plan'

E Person

Robert Dixon (1979: 85) introduces the concept of a ‘potentiality of agency’ scale, suggesting that first and second person pronouns are more likely to serve as transitive agents compared to third person pronouns. In a similar vein, William Croft (2002: 130) advances an ‘extended animacy hierarchy’, positing that first and second person pronouns exhibit a higher degree of animacy than third person pronouns. To examine the potential influence of the person of the PP on the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N constructions, this study categorizes PP as first person pronouns (denoted as 1), second person pronouns (denoted as 2), and third person pronouns (denoted as 3).

Person = 1:

- (19) 我 的 建議
wǒ de jiànyì
1sg GEN suggestion
‘my suggestion’

Person = 2:

- (20) 你 的 建議
nǐ de jiànyì
2sg GEN suggestion
‘your suggestion’

Person = 3:

- (21) 他 的 建議
tā de jiànyì
3sg.m GEN suggestion
‘his suggestion’

F Number of the PP (abbreviated as num_pp)

Chen Yu-jie (2008) delineates the plural semantics of Chinese possessive constructions, particularly those modified by plural personal pronouns, into two distinct categories. The first category, referred to as Plural Meaning 1, signifies the aggregate of disparate entities. An illustration of this is the phrase *wǒmen de nǎodai*, which translates to ‘our heads’, and is the sum of ‘my head’, ‘his head’, ‘your head’, and so forth. Conversely, the second category, Plural Meaning 2, conveys an indivisible entity. For instance, *wǒmen de xuéxiào* ‘our school’ represents the school to which we belong, rather than the sum of ‘my school’, ‘his school’, ‘your school’, etc. Chen Yu-jie

(2008) further elucidates that possessive constructions falling under Plural Meaning 1 necessitate the inclusion of *de*, whereas those under Plural Meaning 2 are typically interpreted as singular and often exclude *de*. Consequently, this study employs the tags of num_pp as singular (abbreviated as ‘sg’) and plural (abbreviated as ‘pl’) with the objective of examining whether the number of personal pronouns influences the choice between the constructions PP+DE+N and PP+N.

Num_pp = sg:

- (22) 我 (的) 兄弟
wǒ de xiōngdì
1sg GEN brother
‘my brother’

Num_pp = pl:

- (23) 我們 的 兄弟
wǒmen de xiōngdì
1pl GEN brother
‘our brother’

G Style

Li Tianguang (2012) posits that attributives in narrative and descriptive texts tend to be more complex and frequently used, typically followed by *de*. Conversely, in legal, scientific, and journalistic texts, which favor brevity and structural compactness, the usage of *de* is less prevalent. To examine whether the style of a text influences the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N, this study categorizes two styles within the corpus: literature (abbreviated as ‘lit’) and newspaper (abbreviated as ‘news’).

H Noun

The aforementioned 33 most frequently occurring nouns are incorporated into the analysis to investigate whether noun variation influences the selection between PP+DE+N and PP+N.

I Construction choices (abbreviated as cxn)

The choices of construction are bifurcated into two levels: PP+DE+N and PP+N.

In summary, Table 2 encapsulates all the variables examined in this study, while Table 3 presents the frequency distribution of the explanatory variables.

Table 2: Summary of variables.

Explanatory variable A	Num_attr	syntactic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable B	Position	syntactic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable C	Syn_comp	syntactic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable D	Sem_rel	semantic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable E	Person	syntactic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable F	Num_pp	syntactic	fixed effects
Explanatory variable G	Style	register	fixed effects
Explanatory variable H	Noun	semantic	random effects
Response variable I	Cxn		

Table 3: The frequency distribution of the explanatory variables.

Variables	Frequency	w/wo ^a	Variables	Frequency	w/wo
Num_attr = 1	3,624	2,270/1,354	Noun = brother	102	73/29
Num_attr = 2	266	69/197	Noun = father	146	75/71
Num_attr = m	160	10/150	Noun = child	121	78/43
Position = l	416	74/342	Noun = mother	143	79/64
Position = m	4	0/4	Noun = son	140	77/63
Position = r	6	5/1	Noun = parent	141	74/67
Position = na	3,624	2,270/1,354	Noun = elder brother	110	70/40
Syn_comp = s	1,077	519/558	Noun = dad	132	76/56
Syn_comp = o	2,483	1,639/844	Noun = mom	122	71/51
Syn_comp = na	490	191/299	Noun = daughter	130	73/57
Sem_rel = kin	1,287	746/541	Noun = hand	157	79/78
Sem_rel = attr	1,095	608/487	Noun = people	25	19/6
Sem_rel = whlpt	873	449/424	Noun = heart	144	73/71
Sem_rel = own	261	181/80	Noun = body	143	78/65
Sem_rel = assoc	285	168/117	Noun = face	154	76/78
Sem_rel = nomi	249	197/52	Noun = inner heart	144	73/71
Person = 1	1,055	597/458	Noun = foot	150	76/74
Person = 2	977	589/388	Noun = thought	134	76/58
Person = 3	2,018	1,163/855	Noun = life	121	80/41
Num_pp = sg	2,194	1,204/990	Noun = mind	142	76/66
Num_pp = pl	1,856	1,145/711	Noun = soul	142	75/67
Style = lit	2,095	1,209/886	Noun = country	115	72/43
Style = news	1,955	1,140/815	Noun = ear	130	72/58
			Noun = money	68	68/0
			Noun = eye	138	73/65
			Noun = spirit	137	75/62
			Noun = suggestion	73	70/3
			Noun = disease	95	62/33

Table 3: (continued)

Variables	Frequency	w/wo ^a	Variables	Frequency	w/wo
			Noun = letter	67	43/24
			Noun = room	126	70/56
			Noun = plan	81	65/16
			Noun = family	145	77/68
			Noun = mood	132	75/57

^aPP+DE+N is denoted as ‘w’, signifying constructions with *de*, while PP+N is represented as ‘wo’, indicating constructions without *de*. ‘w/wo’ is used to express the ratio between these two types of constructions.

3 Results

3.1 Model overview

The initial model is formulated as follows:

$$\text{cxn} \sim \text{num_attr} + \text{position} + \text{syn_comp} + \text{sem_rel} + \text{person} + \text{num_pp} + \text{style} + (1|\text{Noun})$$

The analysis reveals that the coefficients for position = NA was excluded due to rank deficiency in the fixed-effect model matrix. Additionally, a quasi-complete separation was observed between the variables position and num_attr. Upon the removal of the variable position, the final model is articulated as:

$$\text{cxn} \sim \text{num_attr} + \text{syn_comp} + \text{sem_rel} + \text{person} + \text{num_pp} + \text{style} + (1|\text{Noun})$$

The final model demonstrates a satisfactory fit to the data, as evidenced by a goodness-of-fit measure of C = 0.75. Moreover, the classification accuracy of the final model surpasses the baseline accuracy of 58 % (2,349/4,050), reaching a notable 70.3 %.

The methods for model validation were based on the approach proposed by Fang Yu and Liu Haitao (2021). Initially, the data in this study were randomly divided into two sets, namely the training set (comprising 75 % of the data) and the test set (comprising the remaining 25 % of the data). Subsequently, the final model was fitted to each training set, and its predictions were evaluated using the corresponding test set. The average classification accuracy across the 100 models was found to be 66.41 %, with a maximum accuracy of 68.68 % and a minimum accuracy of 64.33 %. Notably, this average accuracy surpassed the baseline accuracy of 58 %.

To assess the presence of multicollinearity among the explanatory variables for fixed effects in the final model, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was computed. The results revealed that there was no significant multicollinearity, as indicated by a maximum VIF of 1.02.

Furthermore, the importance of each explanatory variable for fixed effects was validated using the Anova() function from the car package in R. The analysis demonstrated that all six variables included in the final model significantly contributed to predicting the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N. Notably, the three most influential variables were identified as num_attr, syn_comp, and num_pp.

3.2 The analysis of fixed effects

Table 4 displays a comprehensive summary of the fixed effects observed in the final model. It is worth noting that variables exhibiting a positive estimate are associated with an increased likelihood of PP+N, whereas variables displaying a negative estimate suggest a preference for PP+DE+N.

Based on the findings presented in Table 4, it is evident that all the p-values associated with the variables in the final model are below the conventional level of significance (0.05), except for sem_rel = attr, sem_rel = own, and sem_rel = assoc. This implies that, in comparison to the reference level of sem_rel = kinsh, there is no statistically significant distinction between PP+DE+N and PP+N when sem_rel is characterized as attr, own, or assoc.

The intercept estimate in the final model is 0.341, with a significance level of $0.01 \leq p < 0.05$. This indicates a relatively significant difference between PP+DE+N and PP+N when all fixed effects variables are at their reference levels, namely num_attr = 1, syn_comp = s, sem_rel = kinsh, person = 1, num_pp = sing, and style = lit. Since the estimate represents the log odds, it is exponentiated to obtain simple odds.

Table 4: Estimates of the fixed effects in the final model.

Variables	Estimate	Std. error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	0.341	0.150	2.272	0.023*
Num_attr = 2	2.150	0.158	13.641	<0.001***
Num_attr = m	3.990	0.343	11.633	<0.001***
Syn_comp = o	−0.981	0.083	−11.812	<0.001***
Syn_comp = na	0.499	0.117	4.267	<0.001***
Sem_rel = attr	−0.039	0.176	−0.222	0.824
Sem_rel = whlpt	0.618	0.189	3.268	0.001**
Sem_rel = own	−0.352	0.278	−1.267	0.205
Sem_rel = assoc	−0.316	0.270	−1.167	0.243
Sem_rel = nomi	−1.193	0.293	−4.070	<0.001***
Person = 2	−0.242	0.100	−2.418	0.016*
Person = 3	−0.179	0.085	−2.105	0.035*
Num_pp = pl	−0.533	0.073	−7.325	<0.001***
Style = news	−0.165	0.071	−2.320	0.020*

Significance codes: *** for $p < 0.001$, ** for $0.001 \leq p < 0.01$, * for $0.01 \leq p < 0.05$

Upon exponentiation, the odds of PP+N compared to PP+DE+N are approximately 1.4. This implies that in the context of literary style, when a first-person singular pronoun functions as an attribute, the head of the phrase is a kinship term, and the entire noun phrase occupies the subject position, PP+N constructions occur approximately 1.4 times more frequently than PP+DE+N. To illustrate this preference, consider example (24) where the symbol ‘>’ denotes a higher frequency on the left side compared to the right side:

(24) In literary works:

我 媽媽 + pred > 我 的 媽媽 + pred
 wǒ māma + pred > wǒ de māma + pred
 1sg mom + pred > 1sg GEN mom + pred
 ‘my mom (PP+N) +pred > my mom (PP+DE+N) +pred’

The shorter form of 我媽媽 *wǒ māma* ‘my mom’ compared to 我的媽媽 *wǒ de māma* ‘my mom’ conveys a greater sense of intimacy and aligns better with the conceptual proximity between 我 *wǒ* ‘I’ and 媽媽 *māma* ‘mom’.

The estimate for num_attr = 2 is 2.150, which, when exponentiated, becomes 8.6. This indicates that when num_attr = 2, the frequency of PP+N is approximately 8.6 times higher than that of PP+DE+N, in comparison to the reference level of num_attr = 1. This preference is illustrated through examples (25) and (26):

(25) Reference level:

我 媽媽 我 的 媽媽
 wǒ māma wǒ de māma
 1sg mom 1sg GEN mom
 ‘my mom (PP+N)’ ‘my mom ((PP+DE+N))’

(26) 我 媽媽 的 工作 > 我 的 媽媽 的 工作
 wǒ māma de gōngzuò > wǒ de māma de gōngzuò
 1sg mom GEN job > 1sg GEN mom GEN job
 ‘the job of “my mom (PP+N)” > the job of “my mom (PP+DE+N)”’

The estimate for num_attr = m is 3.990, which equates to an odds ratio of 54.1 upon exponentiation. This signifies that relative to num_attr = 1, constructions with num_attr = m exhibit a 54.1 times higher frequency of PP+N compared to PP+DE+N. Examples (27) and (28) demonstrate this tendency of favoring PP+N when multiple attributes are present:

(27) Reference level:

我 媽媽 我 的 媽媽
 wǒ māma wǒ de māma
 1sg mom 1sg GEN mom
 ‘my mom (PP+N)’ ‘my mom ((PP+DE+N))’

- (28) 我 媽媽 的 工作 地點
 wǒ māma de gōngzuò dìdiǎn
 1sg mom GEN work place
 >
 我 的 媽媽 的 工作 地點
 wǒ de māma de gōngzuò dìdiǎn
 1sg GEN mom GEN work place
 ‘the working place of “my mom (PP+N)” > the working place of “my mom (PP+DE+N)”’

Hence, the estimates for $\text{num_attr} = 2$ and $\text{num_attr} = m$ provide evidence that an increase in the number of attributives corresponds to a higher occurrence rate of PP+N. This finding aligns with the research conducted by Cheng Shuqiu (2009).

The estimate of $\text{syn_comp} = o$ is -0.981 (exponentiated as 0.375), signifying that compared with $\text{syn_comp} = s$, the frequency of PP+N with $\text{syn_comp} = o$ is 37.5 % that of PP+DE+N. In other words, PP+DE+N occurs 2.7 ($1/0.375$) times more frequently than PP+N. Examples (29) and (30) illustrate this preferential selection.

- (29) Reference level:
 我 的 媽媽 + pred 我 媽媽 + pred
 wǒ de māma + pred wǒ mama + pred
 1sg GEN mom + pred 1sg mom + pred
 ‘my mom (PP+DE+N)+pred’ ‘my mom ((PP+N)+pred)’
- (30) pred + 我 的 媽媽 > pred + 我 媽媽
 pred + wǒ de mama > pred + wǒ māma
 pred + 1sg GEN mom > pred + 1sg mom
 ‘pred+my mom (PP+DE+N) > pred+my mom (PP+N)’

The rationale behind the compatibility of PP+DE+N with the object position has been elucidated in prior scholarly works. For instance, Pan Tingting (2021) posits that *de* serves a descriptive function by introducing new information, thereby rendering it more congruous in the object position.

The estimate of $\text{syn_comp} = na$ is 0.499 (exponentiated as 1.6). This means that compared with $\text{syn_comp} = s$, when $\text{syn_comp} = na$, PP+N appears 1.6 times more frequently than PP+DE+N. Examples (31) and (32) illustrate this preference.

- (31) Reference level:
 我 媽媽 + pred 我 的 媽媽 + pred
 wǒ māma + pred wǒ de mama + pred
 1sg mom + pred 1sg GEN mom + pred
 ‘my mom (PP+DE+N)+pred’ ‘my mom ((PP+N)+pred)’

- (32) 讓 我 媽媽 + pred
 ràng wǒ māma + pred
 let 1sg mom + pred
 >
 讓 我 的 媽媽 + pred
 ràng wǒ de māma + pred
 let 1sg GEN mom + pred
 'let my mom (PP+N)+pred > let my mom (PP+DE+N)+pred'

The reason for this preference may be related to sentence length. Sentences with a pivotal construction (SVOV) are typically longer than SVO sentences. The longer the sentence string becomes, the more likely it is for *de* to be omitted, resulting in a preference for PP+N over PP+DE+N.

The estimated value of $\text{sem_rel} = \text{whlpt}$ is 0.618, which is exponentiated as 1.9. This indicates that when $\text{sem_rel} = \text{whlpt}$, PP+N occurs 1.9 times more frequently than PP+DE+N, compared to when $\text{sem_rel} = \text{kinsh}$. This preference is illustrated in examples (33) and (34).

- (33) Reference level:
 我 媽媽 我 的 媽媽
 wǒ māma wǒ de māma
 1sg mom 1sg GEN mom
 'my mom (PP+N)' 'my mom ((PP+DE+N))'
- (34) 我 手 > 我 的 手
 wó shǒu > wǒ de shǒu
 1sg hand > 1sg GEN hand
 'my hand (PP+N) > my hand (PP+DE+N)'

Omitting *de* is easier for whole-part semantic relationships than for kinship relationships, indicating that body parts are more inalienable while kinship seems more alienable.⁶ First, Chinese culture emphasizes kinship and hierarchy, so *de* is used to create a sense of distance (respect) between relatives, making kinship seem more alienable. Second, 'PP+body parts' commonly appears after prepositions to

⁶ This result contrasts with John Haiman's (1983, p. 795) conclusion that Mandarin Chinese treats kin as less alienable than body parts. The reason for the discrepancy relates to the different objects of observation. Haiman's (1983, p. 795) conclusion is based on Charles Li and Sandra Thompson's (1981) study – a reference grammar targeting static phrases and sentences. In contrast, the current study examines the actual usage of language in corpora, which is inherently more dynamic. For instance, '我手 wóshǒu (my hand)' is ungrammatical in a reference grammar but '我手髒了 wóshǒu zāng le (My hands are dirty)' is a perfectly grammatical sentence. For a detailed discussion of the static/dynamic nature of PP+(DE)+N constructions, readers can refer to Xu Yangchun (2008).

form prepositional phrases, whereas ‘PP+kinship’ does not have the corresponding usage.

The estimated of $\text{sem_rel} = \text{nomi}$ is -1.193 , which is exponentiated as 0.303 . This means that when $\text{sem_rel} = \text{nomi}$, the occurrence frequency of PP+N is only 30.3 % of the occurrence frequency of PP+DE+N, compared to when $\text{sem_rel} = \text{kinsh}$. Another way to express this is that PP+DE+N occurs 3.3 times more frequently than PP+N. Examples (35) and (36) illustrate this preference.

(35) Reference level:

我	的	媽媽	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	1sg	mom
‘my mom (PP+DE+N)’			‘my mom ((PP+N))’	

(36) 我 的 建議 > 我 建議
 wǒ de jiànyì > wǒ jiànyì
 1sg GEN suggestion > 1sg suggestion
 ‘my suggestion (PP+DE+N) > my suggestion (PP+N)’

In instances where the head noun is a kinship word, the preceding PP and the noun typically exhibit an attribute-head relationship, thereby reducing the necessity for *de* to delineate this relationship. Conversely, when the head noun is the nominalization of a verb, the inclusion of *de* becomes essential. This requirement arises due to the potential overlap between the structure of a PP combined directly with a nominalization of a verb and the subject-verb structure. For instance, the phrase 我 wǒ ‘I, my’ + 建議 jiànyì ‘suggest, suggestion’ could be misinterpreted as the conventional Chinese subject-predicate sentence pattern ‘I suggest something’, rather than the intended ‘my suggestion’. Therefore, *de* is required to accurately signify the intended attribute-head relationship.

The estimated value for $\text{person} = 2$ is -0.242 , which becomes 0.785 when exponentiated. This indicates when $\text{person} = 2$, the occurrence of PP+DE+N is 1.3 times more frequent than PP+N, in comparison to $\text{person} = 1$. Examples (37) and (38) provide a representation of this comparison.

(37) Reference level:

我	的	媽媽	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	1sg	mom
‘my mom (PP+DE+N)’			‘my mom ((PP+N))’	

(38) 你 的 媽媽 > 你 媽媽
 nǐ de māma > nǐ māma
 2sg GEN mom > 2sg mom
 ‘your mom (PP+DE+N) > your mom (PP+N)’

The aforementioned illustration demonstrates that the second person pronoun requires the addition of *de* to reinforce the speaker-listener distance, in contrast to the first person pronoun. This finding aligns with the concept of linguistic iconicity, as proposed by John Haiman (1983: 782), which suggests that the length of the message corresponds to the social distance between interlocutors, while maintaining equal referential content.

The estimate for person = 3 is -0.179 , exponentiated as 0.836 . It signifies that when person = 3, the occurrence of PP+DE+N is 1.2 times more frequent than PP+N, in comparison to person = 1. Examples (39) and (40) provide a representation of this tendency.

(39) Reference level:

我	的	媽媽	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	1sg	mom
'my mom (PP+DE+N)'		'my mom ((PP+N))'		

(40) 他 的 媽媽 > 他 媽媽
 tā de māma > tā māma
 3sg.m GEN mom > 3sg.m mom
 'his mom (PP+DE+N) > his mom (PP+N)'

Similar to person = 2, the aforementioned preference can be attributed to the motivation of linguistic iconicity, wherein the distance between the speaker and the third person pronoun necessitates the use of *de* to reinforce it.

The estimated value for num_pp = pl is -0.533 (exponentiated as 0.587). Therefore, when num_pp = pl, the occurrence of PP+DE+N is 1.7 times more frequent than PP+N, in comparison to num_pp = sg. Examples (41) and (42) illustrate this preference.

(41) Reference level:

我	的	媽媽	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	1sg	mom
'my mom (PP+DE+N)'		'my mom ((PP+N))'		

(42) 我們 的 媽媽 > 我們 媽媽
 wǒmen de māma > wǒmen māma
 1pl GEN mom > 1pl mom
 'our moms (PP+DE+N) > our moms (PP+N)'

Given that the character string 我們 *wǒmen* 'we' + 媽媽 *māma* 'mom' can convey both an attribute-head meaning, 'our moms', and an appositive meaning, 'we, as

moms', the presence of *de* between 我們 *wǒmen* 'we' and 媽媽 *māma* 'mom' serves to separate the attribute and the noun head.

The estimated value for style = news is -0.165 (exponentiated as 0.848). This indicates when style = news, the frequency of occurrence of PP+DE+N is 1.2 times higher than the frequency of occurrence of PP+N, in comparison to style = lit. The illustration for such tendency is shown in examples (43) and (44).

(43) Reference level (lit):

我	的	媽媽	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	1sg	mom
'my mom (PP+DE+N)'			'my mom ((PP+N)'	

(44) News:

我	的	媽媽	>	我	媽媽
wǒ	de	māma	>	wǒ	māma
1sg	GEN	mom	>	1sg	mom
'my mom (PP+DE+N) > my mom (PP+N)'					

In the context of newspapers, where language tends to be more formal, the usage of PP+DE+N is more prevalent. Conversely, in literary works, where language tends to be more colloquial, the usage of PP+N is more common. This observation aligns with John Haiman's (1983, p. 800) assertion that 'the more respectful the register, the more syllables in the same message.'

Table 5 provides a comprehensive summary of the fixed effects preference. Upon reviewing Section 2.3, which introduces the variables, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The variables position and gender do not demonstrate sufficient relevance to be included in the fixed effects.
2. The effect of num_attr aligns with Cheng Shuqiu's (2009) findings, which suggest that the omission of *de* after the possessive attribute is more likely as the number of attribute items increases. The effect of syn_comp is consistent with the research of Lu Bingfu (2011) and Pan Tingting (2021), who propose that NP with *de* is more likely to be omitted when it functions as a subject compared to when it functions as an object.
3. The effect of style contradicts Li Tianguang's (2012) claim that the use of *de* is more frequent in narrative and descriptive works than in news works. Similarly, the effect of sem-rel opposes the findings of Chen Zhenyu and Ye Jingting (2014), who suggest that body parts, as opposed to kinship terms, have a higher tendency to use the possessive marker *de* due to their higher controllability.

4. The effect of person is not directly related to the ‘potentiality of agency’ or the ‘extended animacy hierarchy’ of personal pronouns mentioned earlier. Instead, it can be explained by the principle of linguistic iconicity, where the distance between the speaker and the second/third person pronoun necessitates the use of *de* for reinforcement. Similarly, the effect of num_pp is not strongly associated with the differentiation of plural meanings 1 and 2 proposed by Chen Yu-Jie (2008). Rather, it can be interpreted in terms of *de* marking the attribute-head meaning rather than the appositive meaning between PP and noun.

Table 5: Preference of fixed effects.

Variables	Preference (odds)
Num_attr = 2	PP+N (8.6)
Num_attr = m	PP+N (54.1)
Syn_comp = o	PP+DE+N (2.7)
Syn_comp = na	PP+N (1.6)
Sem_rel = attr	–
Sem_rel = whlpt	PP+N (1.9)
Sem_rel = own	–
Sem_rel = assoc	–
Sem_rel = nomi	PP+DE+N (3.3)
Person = 2	PP+DE+N (1.3)
Person = 3	PP+DE+N (1.2)
Num_pp = pl	PP+DE+N (1.7)
Style = news	PP+DE+N (1.2)

3.3 The analysis of the random effect

Table 6 provides a summary of the random effect observed in the final model. Among the 20 nouns with positive estimates, the preference is towards PP+N, whereas the 13 nouns with negative estimates exhibit a preference for PP+DE+N. Figure 1 visualizes the summary using a bar plot, where nouns favoring PP+DE+N are depicted in red, and nouns favoring PP+N are represented in blue.

Nouns that prefer PP+N can be categorized into the following five classes:

1. 房間 *fángjiān* ‘room’; 信 *xìn* ‘letter’:

Objects like rooms and letters possess a sense of privacy and are closely associated with the individual. As a result, the omission of *de* before these nouns is more common.

Table 6: Summary of the random effect.

Nouns preferring PP+N	estimate	Nouns preferring PP+DE+N	estimate
房間 <i>fángjiān</i> ‘room’	0.634	錢 <i>qián</i> ‘money’	−0.768
病 <i>bìng</i> ‘disease’	0.616	建議 <i>jiànyì</i> ‘suggestion’	−0.421
心靈 <i>xīnlíng</i> ‘soul’	0.238	生命 <i>shēngmìng</i> ‘life’	−0.388
手 <i>shǒu</i> ‘hand’	0.195	兄弟 <i>xiōngdì</i> ‘brother’	−0.317
父母 <i>fùmǔ</i> ‘parent’	0.180	耳朵 <i>ěrduo</i> ‘ear’	−0.198
女兒 <i>nǚ’ér</i> ‘daughter’	0.159	計畫 <i>jìhuà</i> ‘plan’	−0.177
媽媽 <i>māmā</i> ‘mom’	0.155	孩子 <i>háizi</i> ‘child’	−0.176
心情 <i>xīnqíng</i> ‘mood’	0.149	眼睛 <i>yǎnjīng</i> ‘eye’	−0.142
信 <i>xìn</i> ‘letter’	0.148	哥哥 <i>gēge</i> ‘elder brother’	−0.124
父親 <i>fùqīn</i> ‘father’	0.105	人 <i>rén</i> ‘people’	−0.122
兒子 <i>érzi</i> ‘son’	0.091	爸爸 <i>bàba</i> ‘dad’	−0.057
家庭 <i>jiātíng</i> ‘family’	0.080	思想 <i>sīxiǎng</i> ‘thought’	−0.055
心 <i>xīn</i> ‘heart’	0.080	頭腦 <i>tóunǎo</i> ‘mind’	−0.004
臉 <i>liǎn</i> ‘face’	0.063		
國家 <i>guójiā</i> ‘country’	0.050		
內心 <i>nèixīn</i> ‘inner heart’	0.033		
身體 <i>shēntǐ</i> ‘body’	0.025		
精神 <i>jīngshén</i> ‘spirit’	0.014		
腳 <i>jiǎo</i> ‘foot’	0.005		
母親 <i>mǔqīn</i> ‘mother’	0.002		

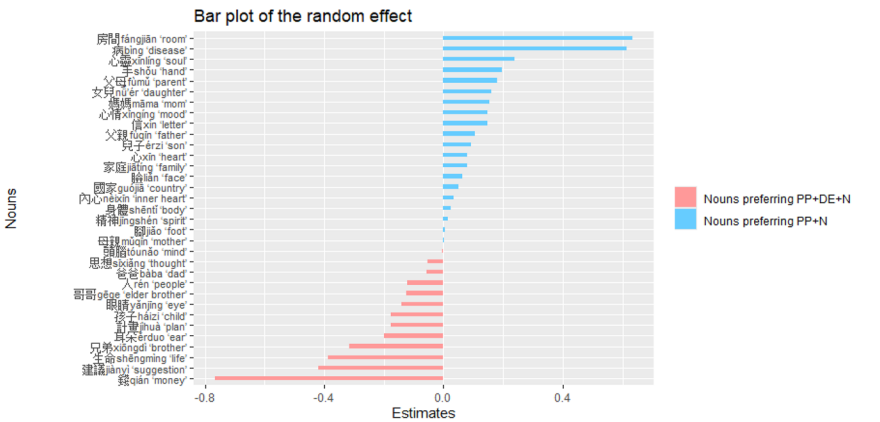


Figure 1: Bar plot of the random effect.

2. 病 *bìng* ‘disease’; 心靈 *xīnlíng* ‘soul’; 心情 *xīnqíng* ‘mood’; 心 *xīn* ‘heart’; 臉 *liǎn* ‘face’; 內心 *nèixīn* ‘inner heart’; 身體 *shēntǐ* ‘body’; 精神 *jīngshén* ‘spirit’:

These nouns possess unique characteristics and are closely tied to one's own being, leading to a tendency to omit *de* before them.

3. 手 *shǒu* 'hand'; 腳 *jiǎo* 'foot':

Hands and feet are associated with the sense of touch and mobility. They serve as important means for individuals to explore the external world, thus establishing a close relationship with oneself. Consequently, they are more likely to combine directly with PP. Additionally, in Mandarin Chinese, 'PP+hand/foot' is commonly used to form prepositional phrases following prepositions, such as 在我手上 *zài wǒ shǒu shàng* 'in my hands' and 在我腳下 *zài wǒ jiǎo xià* 'under my feet'.

4. 父母 *fùmǔ* 'parent'; 女兒 *nǚ'ér* 'daughter'; 母親 *mǔqīn* 'mother'; 媽媽 *māma* 'mom'; 父親 *fùqīn* 'father'; 兒子 *érzi* 'son':

These nouns represent family members and symbolize inseparable kinship, resulting in a tendency to omit *de* before them.

5. 家庭 *jiāting* 'family'; 國家 *guójiā* 'country':

Both family and country convey a sense of collectivity. Given that Chinese culture places emphasis on close kinship and collectivism, the omission of *de* between PP and these nouns is more prevalent.

Nouns that prefer PP+DE+N can be classified into the following eight clusters:

1. 爸爸 *bàba* 'dad'; 哥哥 *gēge* 'elder brother':

In traditional Chinese culture, the roles of a father and an elder brother are similar. The saying 'The elder brother is like a father' emphasizes the need to respect one's elder brother as one would respect their father. Consequently, dad and elder brother hold more authority and maintain a greater distance from other family members. This sense of distance necessitates the use of *de* before the nouns 爸爸 *bàba* and 哥哥 *gēge*.

2. 孩子 *háizi* 'child':

The term 'child' is a general reference to both sons and daughters. Addressing someone as a child creates a greater sense of distance compared to directly addressing them as a son or daughter. Additionally, 'child' can be used to refer to younger boys and girls who do not share a kinship relationship with the speaker,

further emphasizing the distance expressed by the term. These factors explain why *de* is more commonly used before 孩子 *háizi* in possessive constructions.

3. 兄弟 *xiōngdì* ‘brother’:

The term ‘brother’ can be used to address friends, emphasizing personal loyalty. As a result, 兄弟 *xiōngdì* carries a greater distance from kindred relatives, making it more compatible with the use of *de* in possessive constructions.

4. 耳朵 *ěrduo* ‘ear’; 眼睛 *yǎnjīng* ‘eye’:

People’s perception of sounds and images through their ears and eyes is rather general and does not necessarily reflect individuality or personalization. Therefore, 耳朵 *ěrduo* and 眼睛 *yǎnjīng* are not representative of a person’s inherent attributes and are more inclined to be preceded by *de*.

5. 錢 *qián* ‘money’; 建議 *jiànyì* ‘suggestion’; 計畫 *jìhuà* ‘plan’:

These three nouns, regardless of their concreteness, can be transferred to others. As a result, they are distant from oneself and tend to be accompanied by *de*.

6. 思想 *sīxiǎng* ‘thought’; 頭腦 *tóunǎo* ‘mind’:

Thoughts and the mind are more easily influenced than inherent attributes, making them more compatible with the use of *de* before them.

7. 生命 *shēngmìng* ‘life’:

In Mandarin Chinese, ‘life’ can appear in phrases such as ‘offering one’s life’ or ‘sacrificing one’s life’. In these contexts, life acts as an object that can be transferred, creating a distance from oneself. Thus, *de* tends to appear between PP and 生命 *shēngmìng* to indicate such distance.

8. 人 *rén* ‘people’:

‘PP+DE+人 *rén*’ expresses subordinates of somebody. These subordinates take orders from their superior, with whom they maintain a greater distance. Therefore, *de* tends to appear between PP and ‘人 *rén*’ to indicate this distance.

In summary, the random effect analysis of the noun reveals a correlation between the presence or omission of *de* and the distance between PP and the noun. John Haiman (1983: 782, 783) argues that ‘the linguistic distance between expressions corresponds to the conceptual distance between them’ and that ‘there is a closer conceptual link between a possessor and an inalienably possessed object than between a

possessor and an alienably possessed object.’ While Mandarin Chinese may not have a clear distinction between alienability and inalienability in possessed relations, it adheres to the aforementioned principle by adding *de* to increase the linguistic distance between PP and N, thereby aligning with their greater conceptual distance.

4 Conclusions

Possession constructions are found in all languages, but they exhibit variations across different languages. This study employs mixed effects logistic regression to model the choice between two nearly synonymous possessive constructions in Mandarin Chinese: PP+DE+N and PP+N. The final model incorporates both linguistic (syntactic and semantic) and extralinguistic (register) factors as fixed or random effects. The analysis reveals that the selection of the two constructions is influenced by the following fixed effects: (1) the number of attributes preceding N; (2) the syntactic component of PP+(DE)+N; (3) the semantic relationship between PP and N; (4) the person of the PP; (5) the number of the PP; and (6) the style of the works in which PP+(DE)+N is used. Additionally, N is considered a random effect, determining the conceptual distance between PP and N.

Specifically, this study contributes to the understanding of the tendency for the presence or absence of *de* in possessive constructions in Mandarin Chinese. Moreover, it offers a viable methodology for future research aiming to elucidate the reasons behind the formal marking of possessive constructions. For example, in English, possessive constructions are denoted by either the suffix *s* (*Amy’s book*, *my book*) or the preposition *of* (*the book of Amy*, *the book of mine*). These two forms of marking represent distinct tendencies and serve as key indicators in English possessive structures. The explanatory variables that assess fixed effects and the random effect in this study pertain to the analysis of English possessive constructions. By employing the methodology outlined in this study, researchers can quantify when English leans towards using the suffix *s* and when it leans towards favoring *of*. Furthermore, this approach can be adopted by researchers studying other languages to examine their own possessive constructions and conduct cross-linguistic comparisons. For instance, researchers can explore the preferred forms translators use to render possessive structures from a source language into a target language.

Lastly, further investigation can be conducted to explore whether the choice between PP+DE+N and PP+N is influenced by highly frequent constructions that are conventional, deeply ingrained, and obscure the transparency of the entire constructions. This aspect has been mentioned in previous literature, for instance, Hollmann and Siewierska (2007: 420) conclude that ‘relatively high frequency

(whether defined absolutely or relatively) of most combinations of possessive and kinship or body-part noun leads to reduction of the possessive pronoun.’

Data availability: The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available in the [mixed-effects-model] repository, at <https://github.com/Amy24680>.

Abbreviations

1	the first person
2	the second person
3	the third person
BCC	Beijing Language and Culture University Corpus Center
cxn	construction choice
COP	copula
DE	genitive marker <i>de</i>
GEN	genitive
lit	literature
m	middle; multiple
MPC	Mandarin Chinese possessive constructions
mixed models	mixed-effects models
N	noun
news	newspaper
NP	noun phrase
num_attr	number of attributes in the NP
num_pp	number of the PP
o	object
pred	predicate
prep	preposition
pl	plural
PP	personal pronoun
s	subject
sem_rel	semantic relationship
sg	singular
syn_comp	syntactic component
VIF	variance inflation factor

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