

# Gender and language: When form meets semantics in computational models

Dominic Schmitz

Master Colloquium “Phonological & Psycholinguistic Research”  
20 December 2023

# Gender meets language

- two word classes are most prominently associated with gender

(ROLE) NOUNS

e.g. *Lehrer* vs. *Lehrer\*in* in German

PRONOUNS

e.g. *they* vs. *he/she* in English

# Background: role nouns

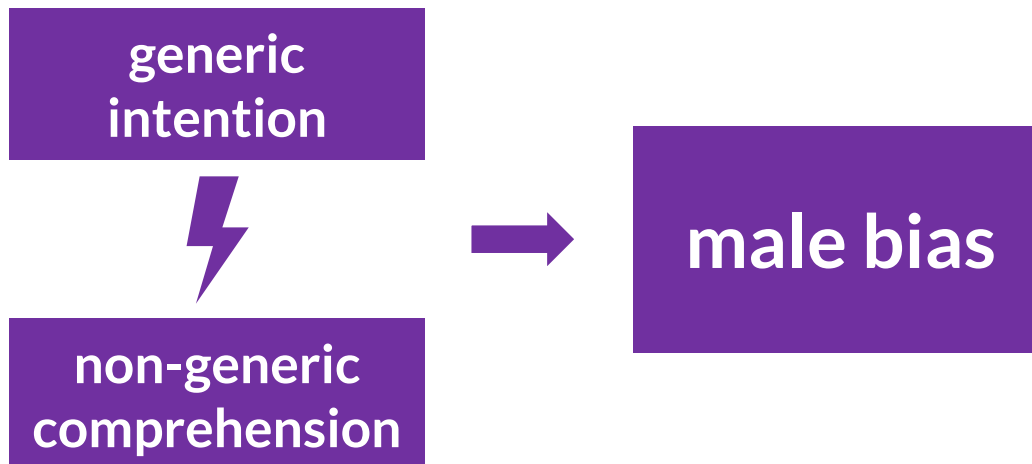
- in German, role nouns such as *Lehrer* ‘teacher’ can be used as generic forms

word	referent gender(s)	grammatical gender	number
<i>Lehrer</i>	male	masculine	singular
<i>Lehrer</i>	male or female	masculine	
<i>Lehrerin</i>	female	feminine	
<i>Lehrer</i>	male	masculine	plural
<i>Lehrer</i>	male and/or female	masculine	
<i>Lehrerinnen</i>	female	feminine	

- generic masculines are
  - orthographically and phonologically identical to explicit masculines
  - used to describe individuals of all genders in singular and plural contexts
  - traditionally assumed to “abstract away” notions of gender, i.e. to be gender-neutral (cf. Doleschal 2002)

# Background: **role nouns**

- however, previous research has cast doubt on the gender-neutral use of generic masculines
- most (if not all) behavioural studies on the subject find one overall result
  - generic masculines are not gender-neutral but show a clear bias towards the **explicit masculine reading** (e.g. Schunack & Binanzer 2022; Gygax et al. 2008; Irmen & Kurovskaja 2010; Irmen & Linner 2005; Koch 2021; Misersky et al. 2019; Stahlberg & Sczesny, 2001)



# Background: pronouns

- in recent years, the use of appropriate third-person pronouns has gained increased attention
- in contemporary English, one can differentiate at least four types of singular *they* (Conrod, 2020)
  - **generic indefinite**  
Someone ran out of the classroom, but **they** forgot **their** backpack.
  - **generic definite**  
The ideal student completes the homework, but not if **they** have an emergency.
  - **specific definite ungendered**  
The math teacher is talented, but **they** hand back grades late.
  - **specific definite gendered**  
James is great at laundry, but **they** never wash **their** dishes.

# Methods in gender linguistics

- a great variety of methods has already been used to investigate gender
  - estimated proportions of women/men after reading texts (Braun et al., 1998)
  - text and sentence continuations (Heise, 2000)
  - questionnaires (Stahlberg et al., 2001)
  - sentence evaluation paradigm (Rothmund & Scheele, 2004)
  - eye-tracking (Esaulova et al., 2015)
  - event-related potentials (ERPs; Misersky et al., 2019)
  - word-picture matching tasks (Zacharski & Ferstl, 2023)
  - sociolinguistic interviews (Steriopolo & Aussoleil, 2023)
  - morphosyntactic analyses (Conrod, 2022)
  - ...and much more!

# Today's aim

# Today's aim

- while many methods have already been used, some were long untouched by gender linguistic research, for example
  - computational methods
- and while many questions have already been asked, some areas are still understudied, for example
  - the semantics of role nouns and pronouns

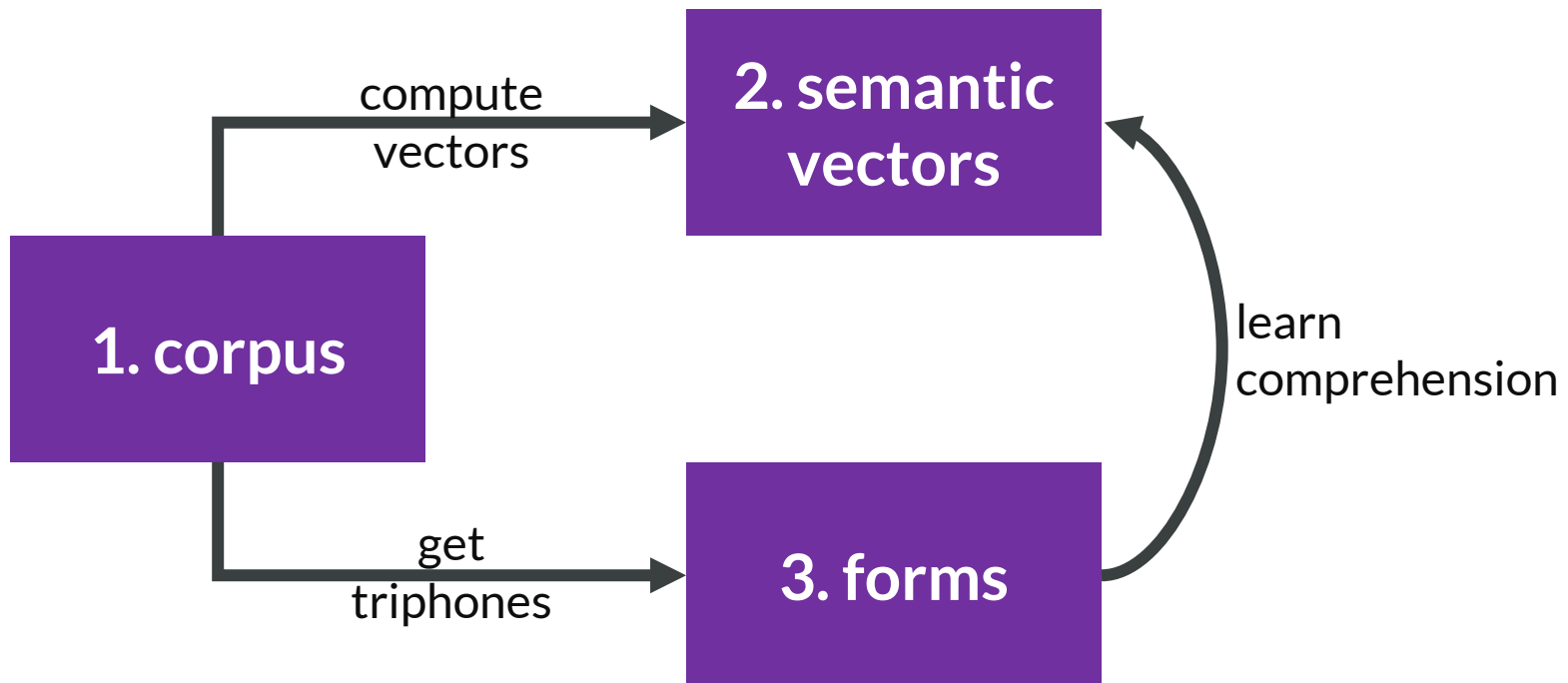
**What can a computational model based on psychological theory tell us about the semantics of role nouns and pronouns?**



# German role nouns

# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



# Corpus: Targets

- 113 target word paradigms were adapted from a study on the influence of stereotypicality on the comprehension of generic masculines (Gabriel et al. 2008)
- all target word paradigms
  - consist of role nouns
  - have common explicit feminine forms

generic & explicit masculines	translation
<i>Anwalt</i>	'lawyer'
<i>Bäcker</i>	'baker'
<i>Historiker</i>	'historian'
<i>Maurer</i>	'mason'
<i>Professor</i>	'professor'
<i>Wärter</i>	'guard'

# Corpus: Sentences

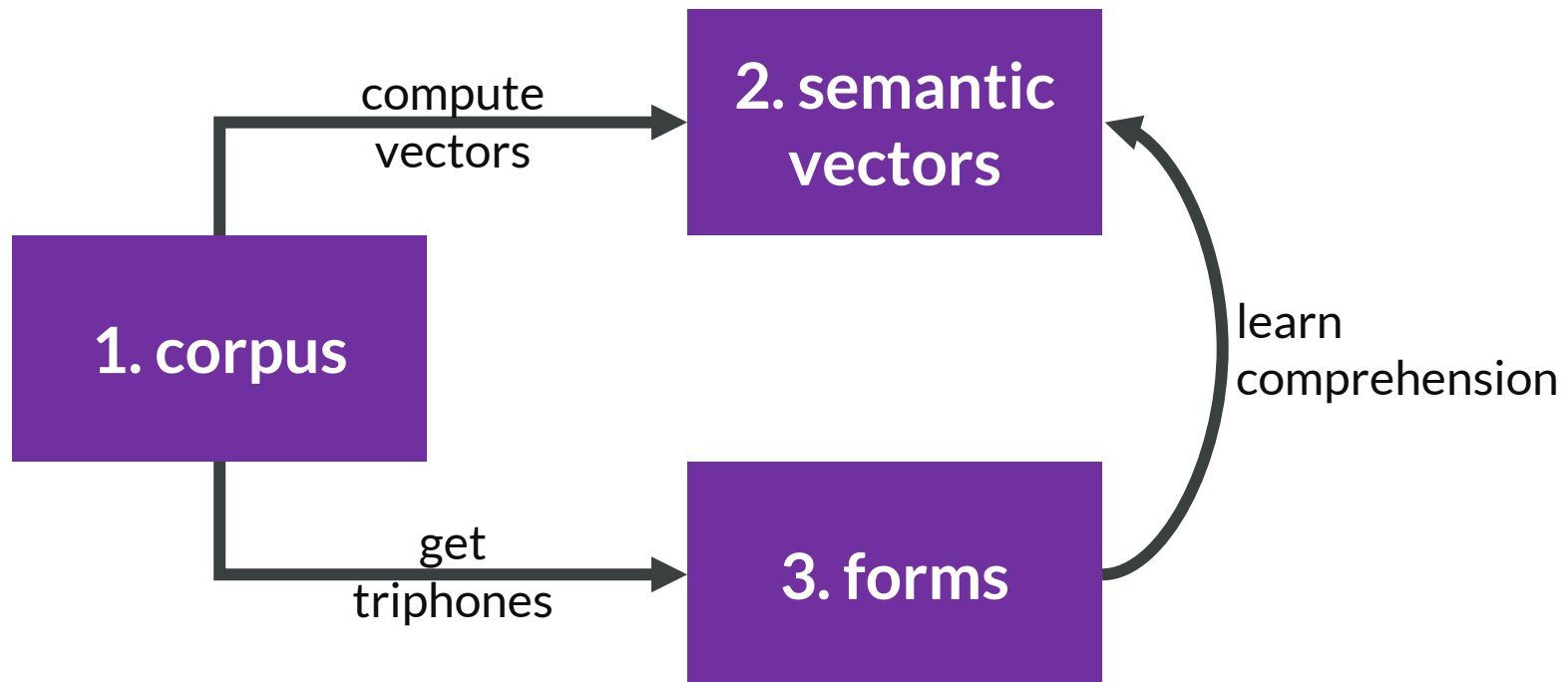
- 10 million sentences were extracted from the Leipzig Corpora Collection's subcorpus "News" (Goldhahn et al. 2012) → 1 million for each year from 2010 to 2019
- from the 10 million sentences, the following was sampled
  - 800,000 sentences without any target words
  - 30,000 sentences with target words
  - 49,044,960 words overall
- overall frequency of target word paradigms in our corpus is relative to their overall frequency in the 10 million sentences, e.g.
  - target word paradigm with 20,000+ occurrences = 600 samples
  - target word paradigm with fewer than 200 occurrences = 100 samples

# Corpus: Annotation

- the 30,000 sentences containing target words were manually annotated by two authors and two assistants, all of which were native speakers of German
- for each target word occurrence, it was annotated whether the form was
  - masculine or feminine; singular or plural; explicit or generic
- the 800,000 sentences without and the 30,000 sentences with target words were then automatically analysed and annotated using the RNNTagger software (Schmid, 1999)
- tagged information consisted of words' base forms and information on inflectional grammar

# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries

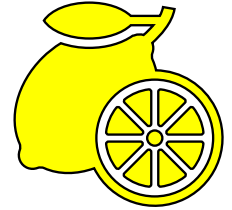
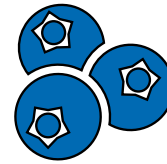
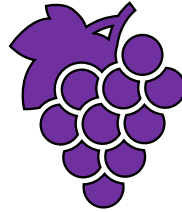
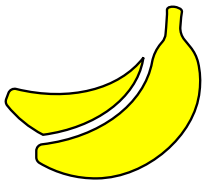
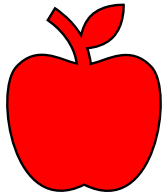


# Semantic vectors

- semantic vectors were computed based on the corpus for words and inflectional functions with **Naive Discriminative Learning** (NDL; e.g. Baayen & Ramscar, 2015)
- **NDL** follows the Rescorla-Wagner rules (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972)
  - **outcomes** (word forms) are predicted by **cues** (words/inflection)
  - the **associative strength** between an outcome and a cue is represented by a single number
- we used each sentence to predict each individual word within the sentence by the other words in that sentence

# Naive Discriminative Learning

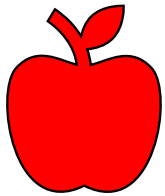
toy example: different fruits



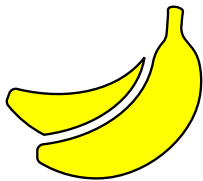


# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits



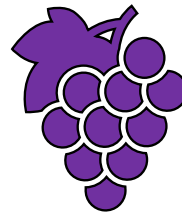
red  
sweet  
round



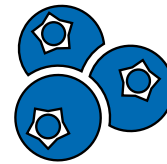
yellow  
sweet  
long



orange  
sour  
round



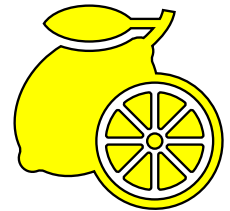
purple  
sweet  
round



blue  
sweet  
round










red  
sweet  
round  
long



yellow  
sour  
round  
long








# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	1					1		1	
		1				1			1
			1				1	1	
				1		1		1	
					1	1		1	
	1					1			1
		1					1	1	1








# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30					30		30	
		15				15			15
			18				18	18	
				10		10		10	
					5	5		5	
	45					45		45	45
		20					20	20	20








# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30	1				30		30	
		15				15			15
			18				18	18	
				10		10		10	
					5	5		5	
	45					45		45	45
		20					20	20	20








# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30	1				30	1	30	
		15				15			15
			18				18	18	
				10		10		10	
					5	5		5	
	45					45		45	45
		20					20	20	20








# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30	1	-1	-3	-2	30	1	30	-1
		15				15			15
			18				18	18	
				10		10		10	
					5	5		5	
	45					45		45	45
		20					20	20	20





# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30	1	-1	-3	-2	30	1	30	-1
	-10	15	-10	-8	-6	15	-11	-5	15
	-6	-7	18	-14	-15	3	18	18	-2
	-5	-1	-6	10	-9	10	5	10	-7
	-6	-9	-19	2	5	5	1	5	-5
	45	-6	-9	-14	-1	45	20	45	45
	-1	20	-5	-6	-8	-4	20	20	20

# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour	round	long
	30	1	-1	-3	-2	30	1	30	-1
	-10	15	-10	-8	-6	15	-11	-5	15
	-6	-7	18	-14	-15	3	18	18	-2
	-5	-1	-6	10	-9	10	5	10	-7
	-6	-9	-19	2	5	5	1	5	-5
	45	-6	-9	-14	-1	45	20	45	45
	-1	20	-5	-6	-8	-4	20	20	20



# Naive Discriminative Learning

toy example: different fruits

	red	yellow	orange	purple	blue	sweet	sour
apple	29	1	-1	-3	-2	29	1
banana	-10	15	-10	-8	-6	15	-11
orange	-6	-7	18	-14	-15	3	15
grape	-5	-1	-6	10	-9	5	5
blueberry	-6	-9	-19	2	3	4	1
strawberry	45	-6	-9	-14	-1	25	20
lemon	-1	20	-5	-6	-8	-4	20

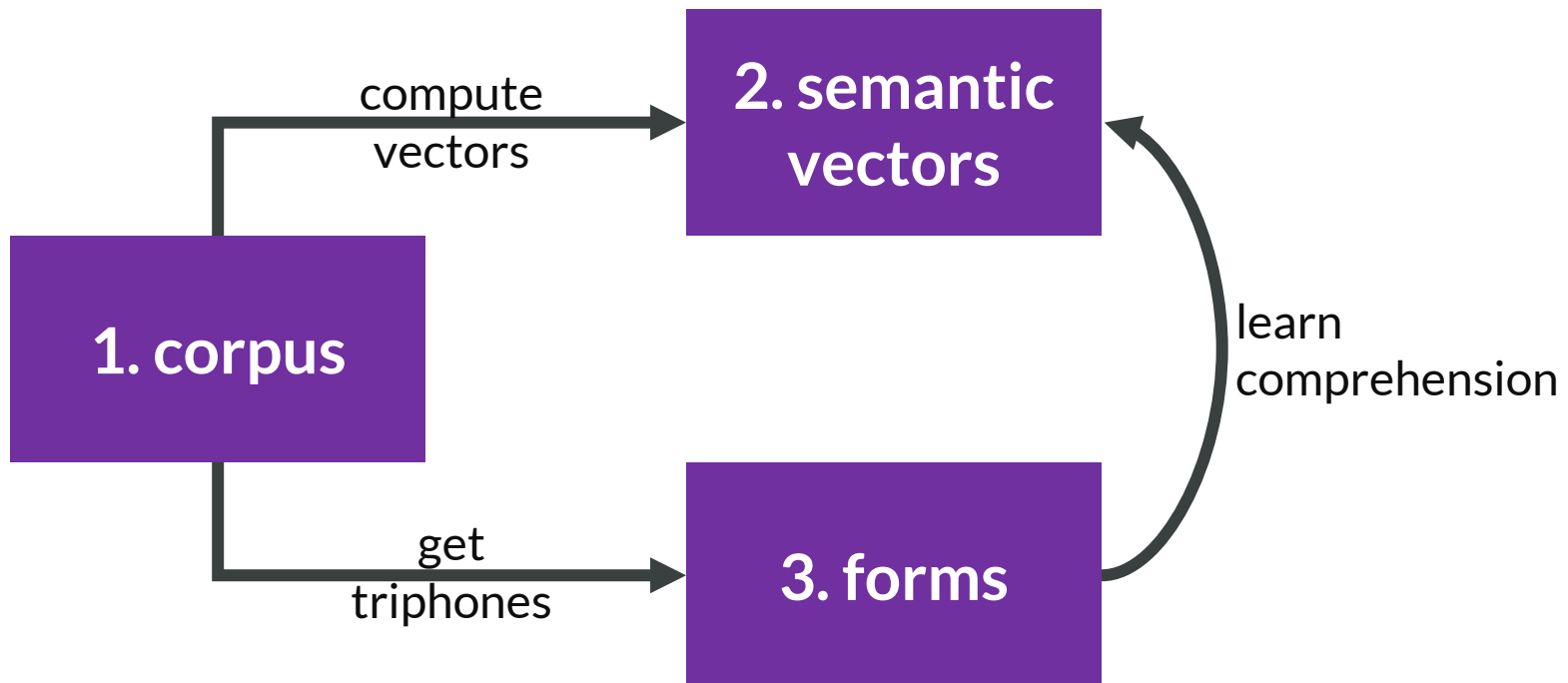
# Naive Discriminative Learning

- for content words, their semantic vector is the sum of the vectors of their parts, e.g.  $\overrightarrow{\text{apples}} = \overrightarrow{\text{apple}} + \overrightarrow{\text{plural}}$
- thus, e.g., the semantics of the target word paradigm *Lehrer* ‘teacher’ consists of

target	base		number		gender		genericity
<i>Lehrer</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{singular}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{masculine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{generic}}$
<i>Lehrer</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{singular}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{masculine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{explicit}}$
<i>Lehrerin</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{singular}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{feminine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{explicit}}$
<i>Lehrer</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{plural}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{masculine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{generic}}$
<i>Lehrer</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{plural}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{masculine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{explicit}}$
<i>Lehrerinnen</i>	$\overrightarrow{\text{Lehrer}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{plural}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{feminine}}$	+	$\overrightarrow{\text{explicit}}$

# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



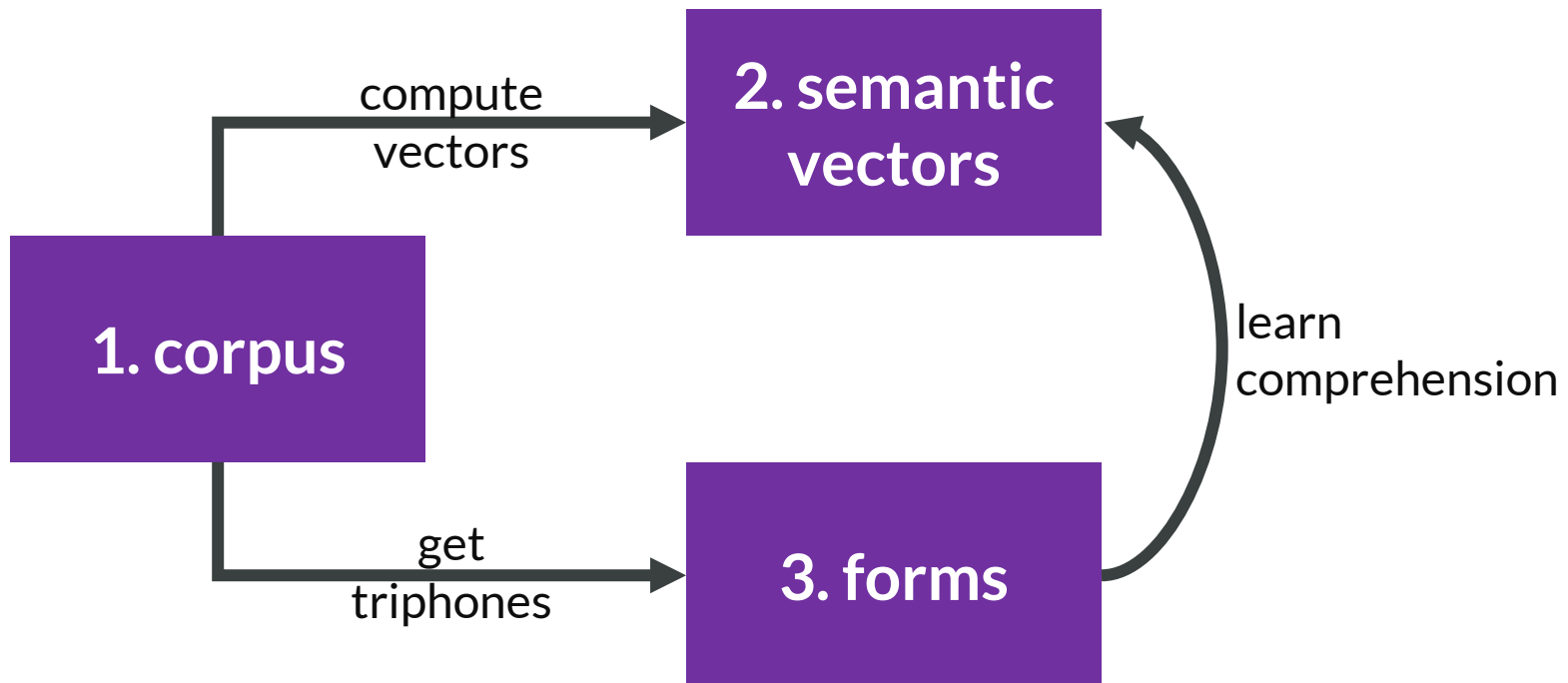
# Forms

- triphones as unit for a word's form
- trigrams / triphones have been shown to capture the form variability of words well (e.g. Chuang et al., 2020; Schmitz et al., 2021; Schmitz et al., 2023)

form	#le	ler	erA	rA#	Arl	rIn	In#
<i>Lehrer</i>	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Lehrer</i>	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Lehrerin</i>	1	1	1	0	1	1	1

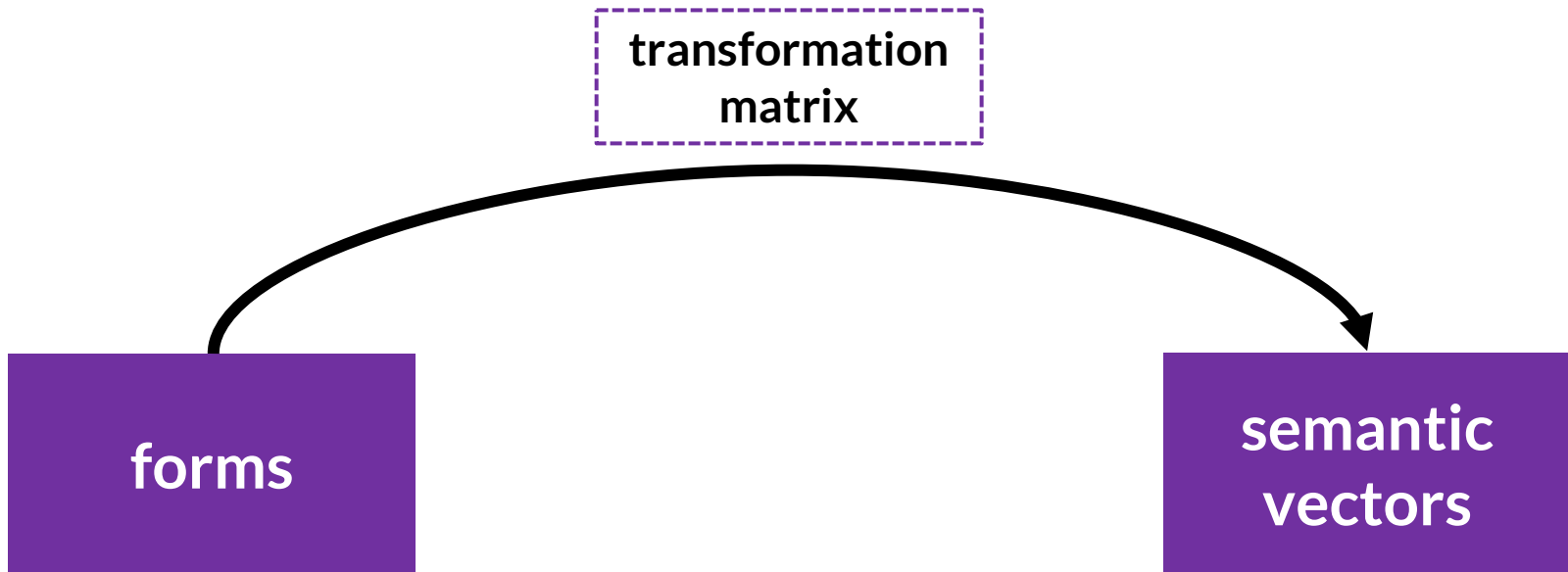
# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



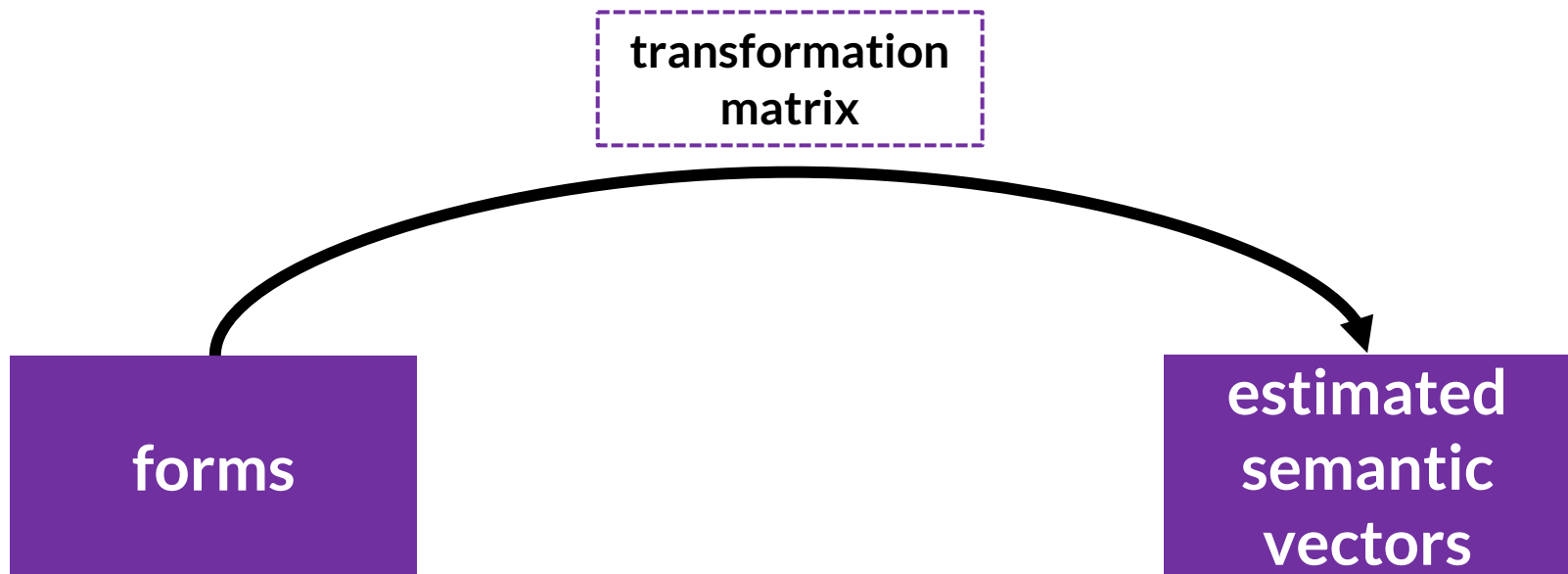
# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors



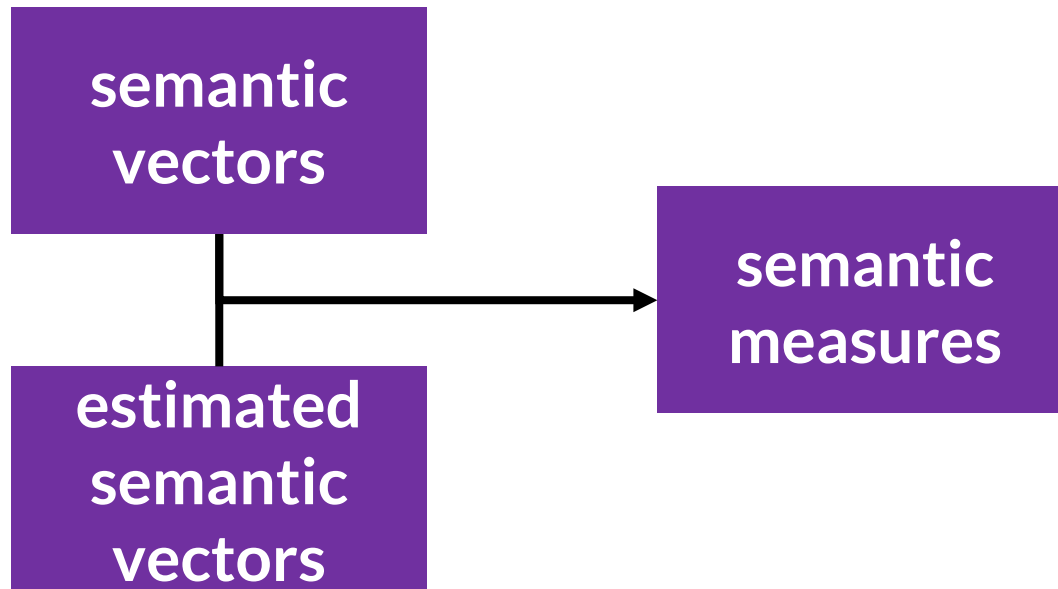
# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors



# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors





# Measures

- **COMPREHENSION QUALITY**

correlation of a target's original and estimated vectors

higher correlation = higher comprehension quality

- **NEIGHBOURHOOD DENSITY**

correlation of a target with its 8 nearest neighbours

higher density = denser neighbourhood

- **ACTIVATION DIVERSITY**

Euclidian norm of a target's vector

higher norm = higher degree of co-activation

- **STEREOTYPICALITY**

adopted from Gabriel et al. (2008)

# Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis

- dependent variable: **TYPE**

singular generic masculine; singular explicit masculine; singular explicit feminine

plural generic masculine; plural explicit masculine; plural explicit feminine

- explanatory variables

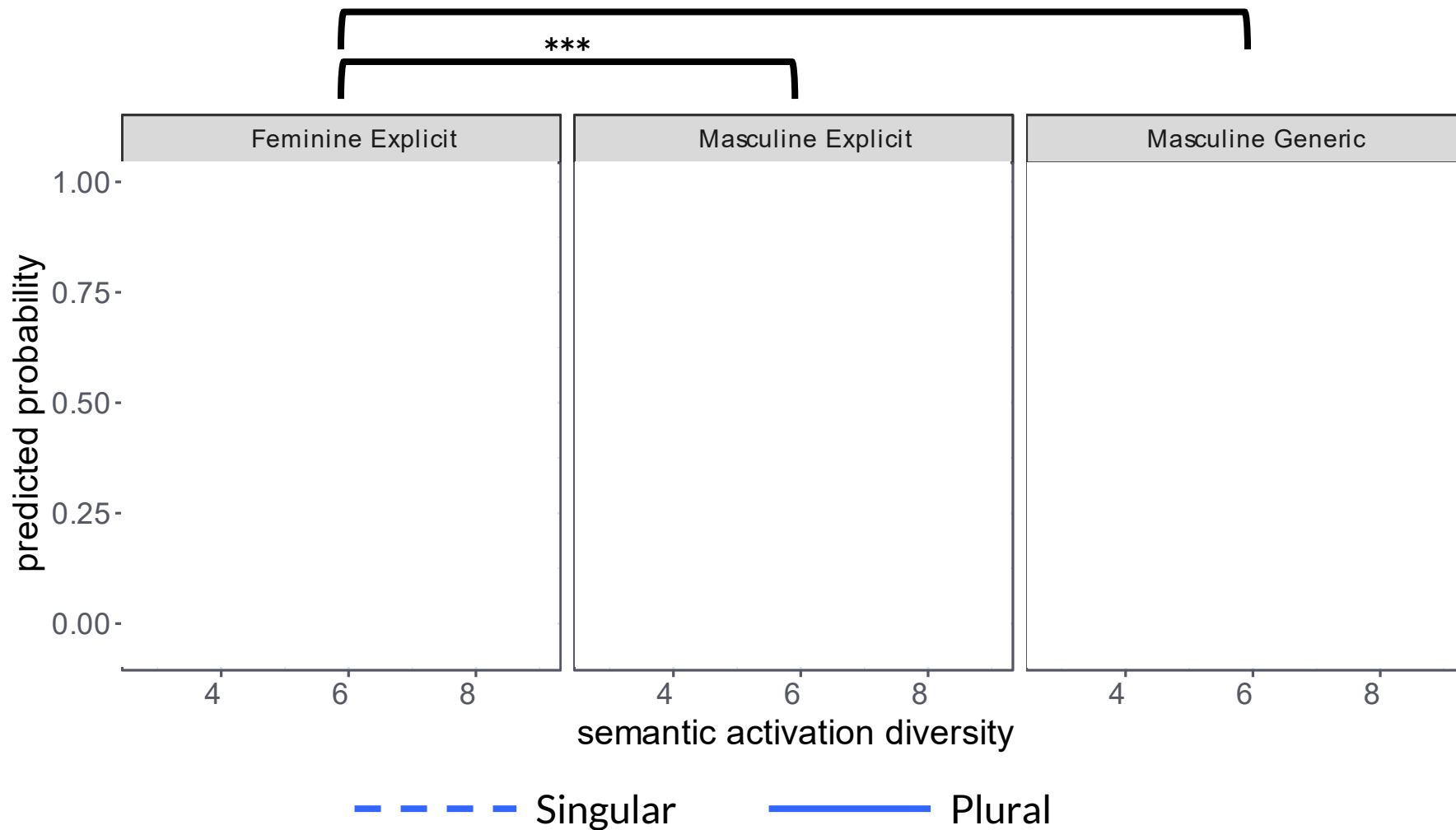
- **ACTIVATION DIVERSITY**

- **PRINCIPAL COMPONENT (COMPREHENSION QUALITY + NEIGHBOURHOOD DENSITY)**

- **STEREOTYPICALITY JUDGEMENTS** (Gabriel et al. 2008)

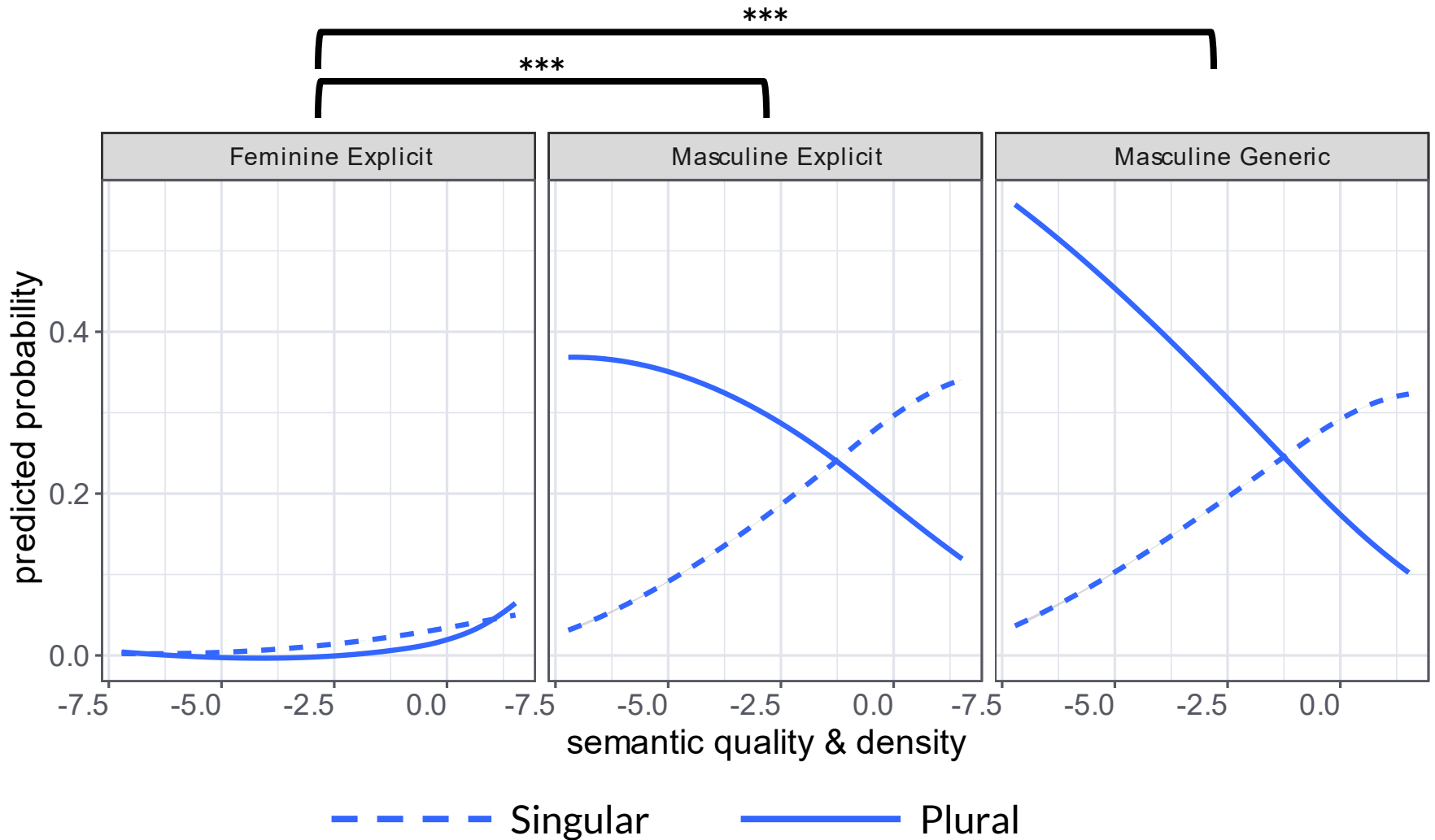
# Results

## ACTIVATION DIVERSITY



# Results

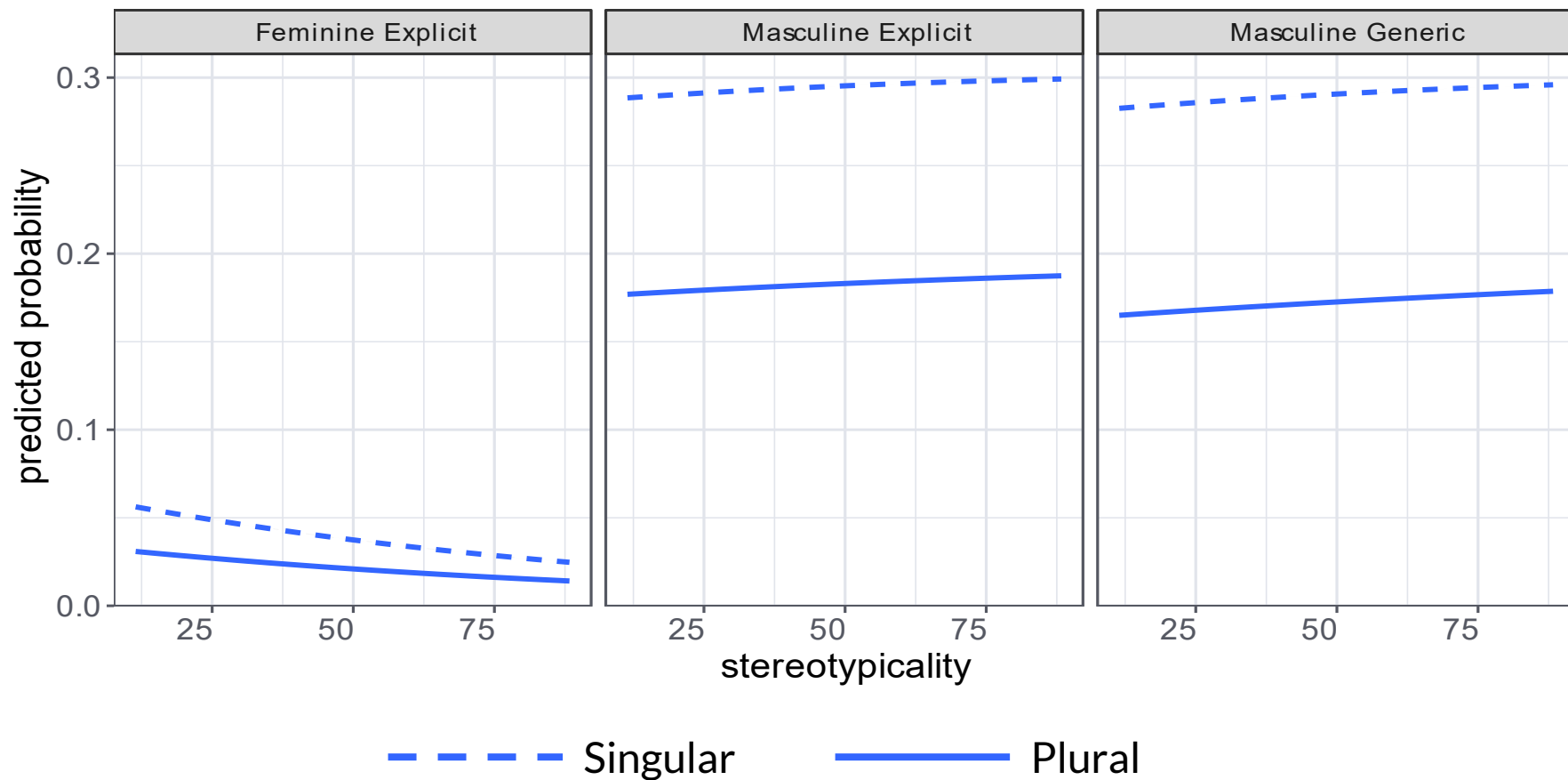
## COMPREHENSION QUALITY + NEIGHBOURHOOD DENSITY



# Results

## STEREOTYPICALITY JUDGEMENTS

no significant effects!



# Discussion

- findings are in line with assumptions found in previous research
  - Stahlberg et al. (2001)  
masculine gender of [masculine] generics has a semantic component of “maleness”
  - Irmen & Linner (2005)  
semantic similarity of generic and explicit masculines due to their resonance with the lexicon and each other
  - Gygax et al. (2012) and Gygax et al. (2021)  
generic masculines activate the underlying representations of explicit masculines, leading to a semantic activation of explicit masculines, thus a male bias

# Discussion

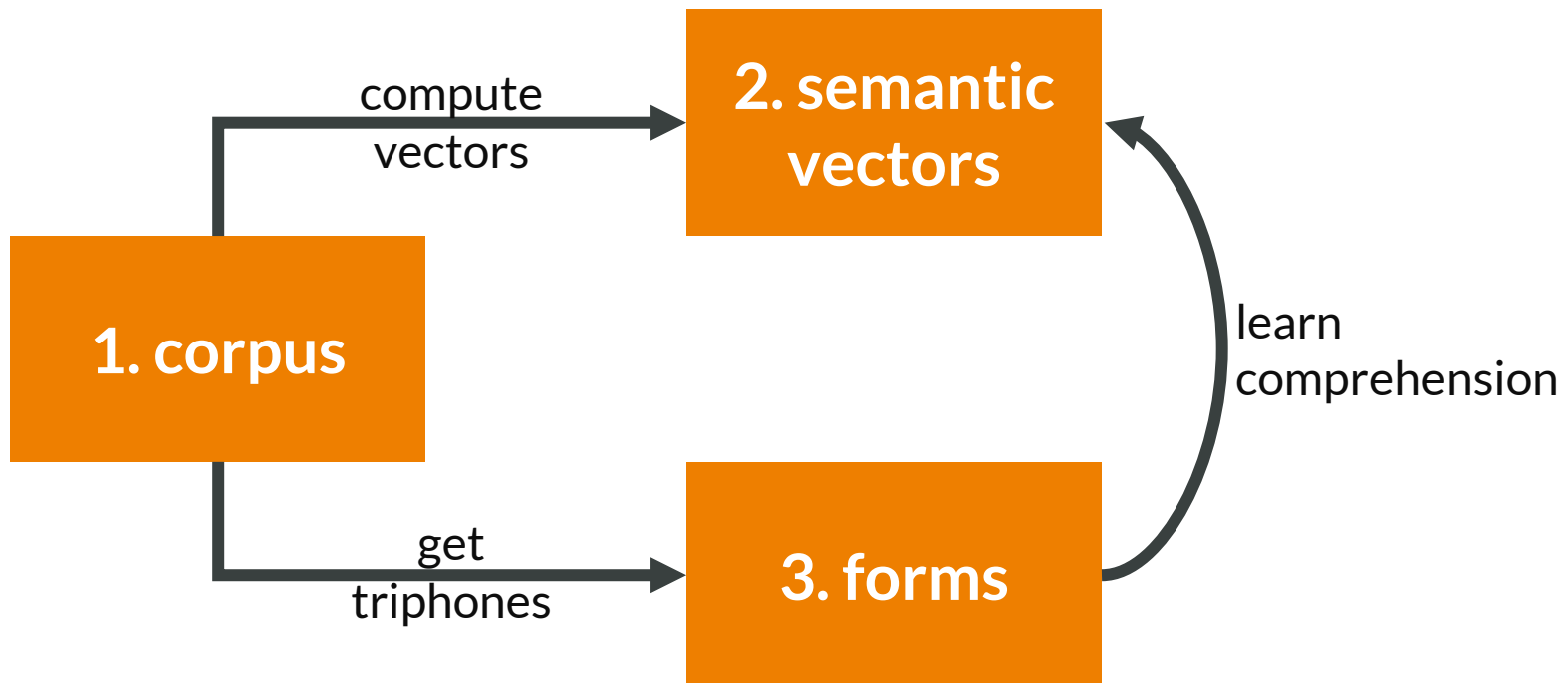
- the masculine bias found in generic masculines is due to their underlying semantic features which they share with explicit masculines
- the language itself is the reason for the masculine bias, not any non-linguistic influences
- findings confirm the bias found in previous behavioural studies (e.g. Schunack & Binanzer 2022; Gygax et al. 2008; Irmen & Kurovskaja 2010; Irmen & Linner 2005; Koch 2021; Misersky et al. 2019; Stahlberg & Sczesny, 2001)
- future research will show
  - whether the LDL measures computed for our data are predictive of behavioural measures
  - how (new & allegedly) more neutral forms, e.g. *Lehrer\*innen*, *LehrerInnen*, perform

# English pronouns



# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries

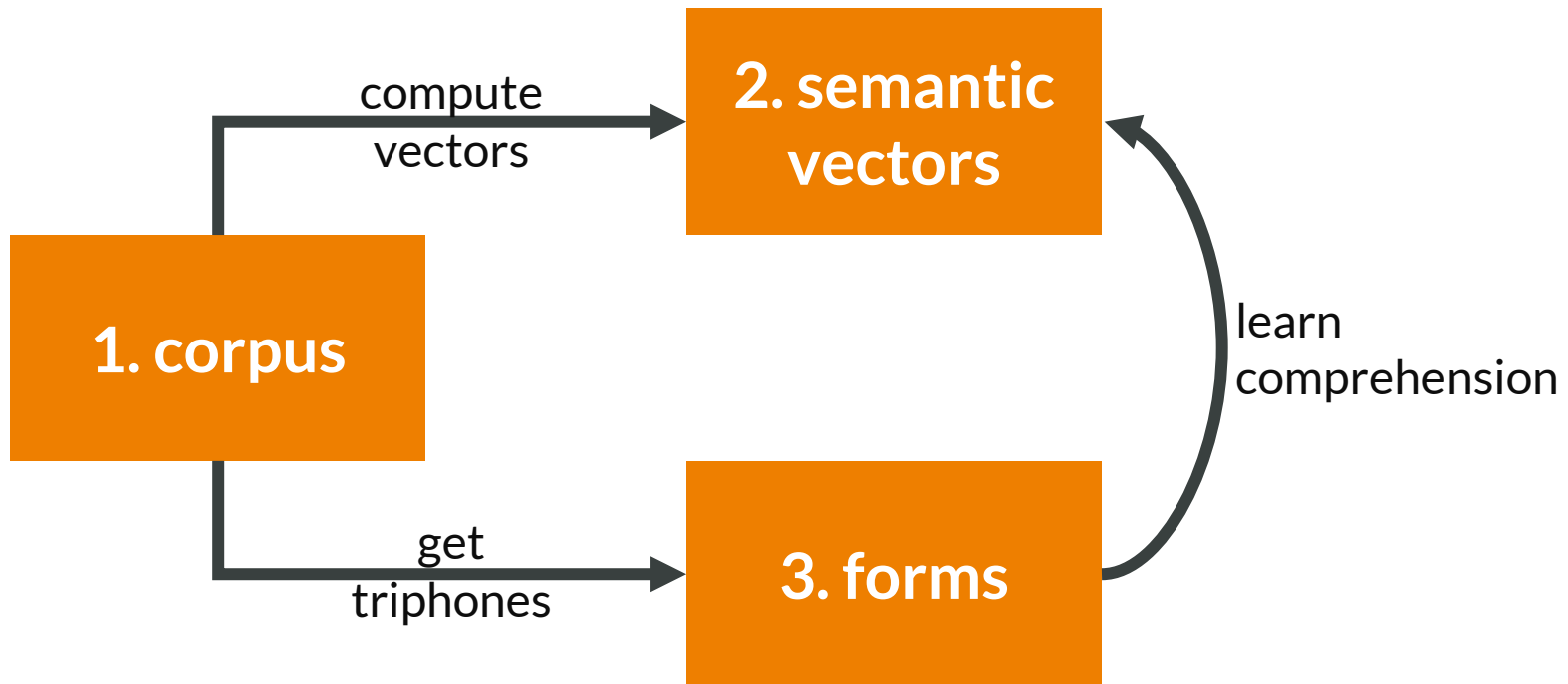


# Corpus

- small corpus based on COCA (Davies, 2008-)
  - 17,805 word form tokens
  - 1,000 sentences
  - 60 + attestations of each target pronoun  
*he, she*, and plural and singular *they*
- pronoun attestations were manually checked for number and genericity
- automatically analysed and annotated for inflection using the RNNTagger software (Schmid, 1999)

# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



# Semantic vectors

- semantic vectors were computed based on the corpus for words and inflectional functions with **Naive Discriminative Learning** (NDL; e.g. Baayen & Ramscar, 2015)
- **NDL** follows the Rescorla-Wagner rules (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972)
  - **outcomes** (word forms) are predicted by **cues** (words/inflection)
  - the **associative strength** between an outcome and a cue is represented by a single number
- we used each sentence to predict each individual word within the sentence by the other words in that sentence

# Semantic vectors

- however: 1 vector per base/function word/inflectional function  
= 1 vector per pronoun
- potentially very different semantics of pronoun attestations are conflated into one vector representation
- this is an **issue!**
  - pronouns are assumed to inherit the semantics of their referents

# Instance vectors

- the solution: instance vectors (Lapesa et al., 2018)
  - take  $n$  preceding and following words
  - get the semantic vectors of these words
  - compute the mean of these vectors

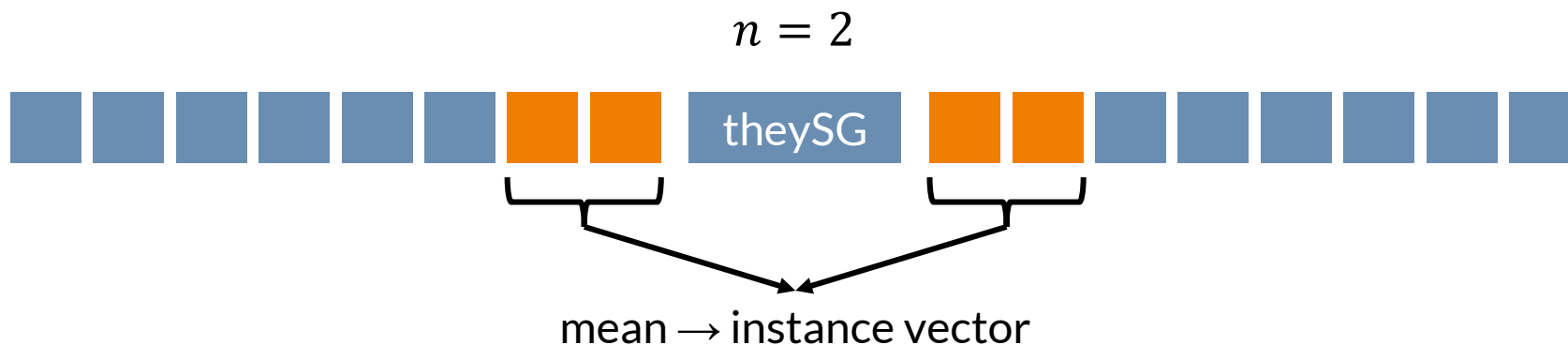
= instance vector



# Instance vectors

- the solution: instance vectors (Lapesa et al., 2018)
  - take  $n$  preceding and following words
  - get the semantic vectors of these words
  - compute the mean of these vectors

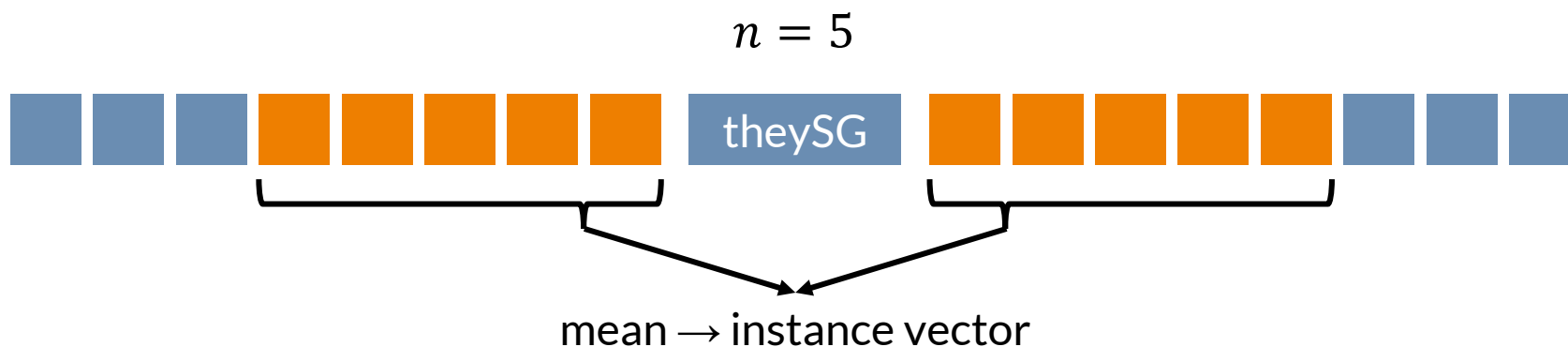
= instance vector



# Instance vectors

- the solution: instance vectors (Lapesa et al., 2018)
  - take  $n$  preceding and following words
  - get the semantic vectors of these words
  - compute the mean of these vectors

= instance vector

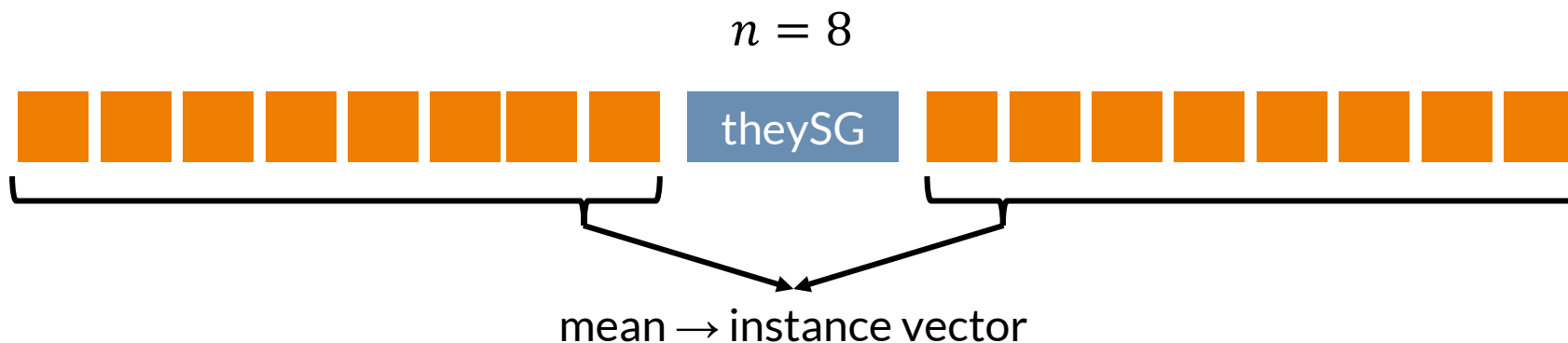




# Instance vectors

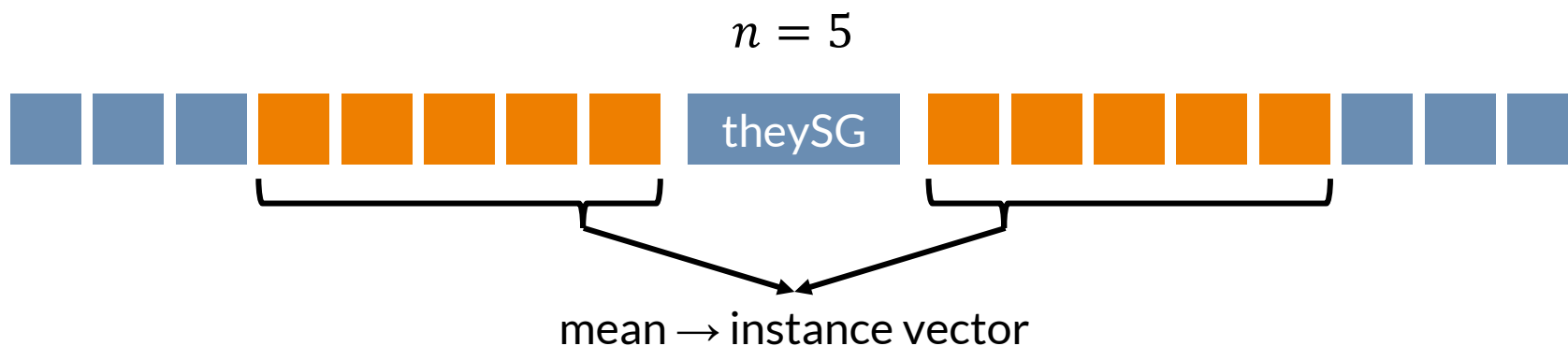
- the solution: instance vectors (Lapesa et al., 2018)
  - take  $n$  preceding and following words
  - get the semantic vectors of these words
  - compute the mean of these vectors

= instance vector



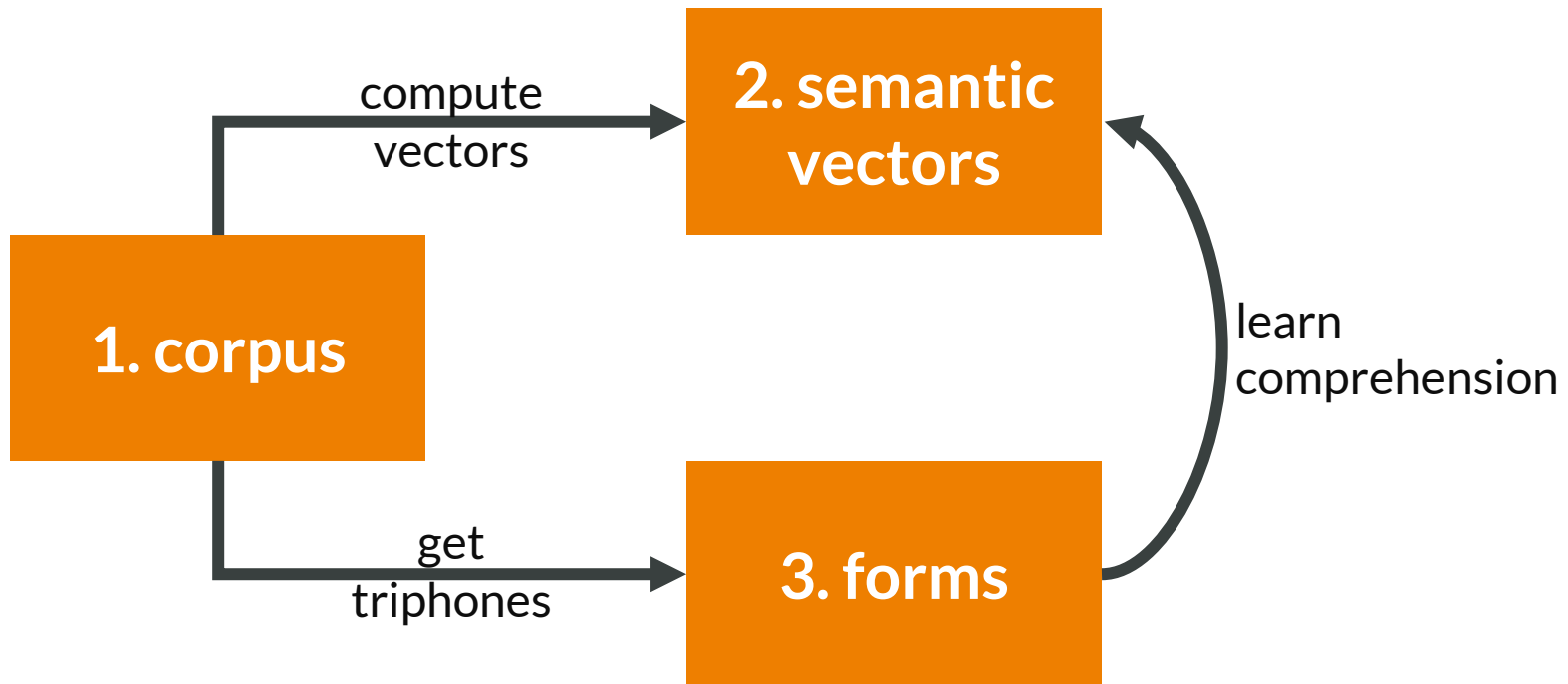
# Instance vectors

- for the present study
  - $n=5$
  - preceding and following units: vectors for bases/function words/inflectional functions
  - preceding and following semantic vectors: via NDL



# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



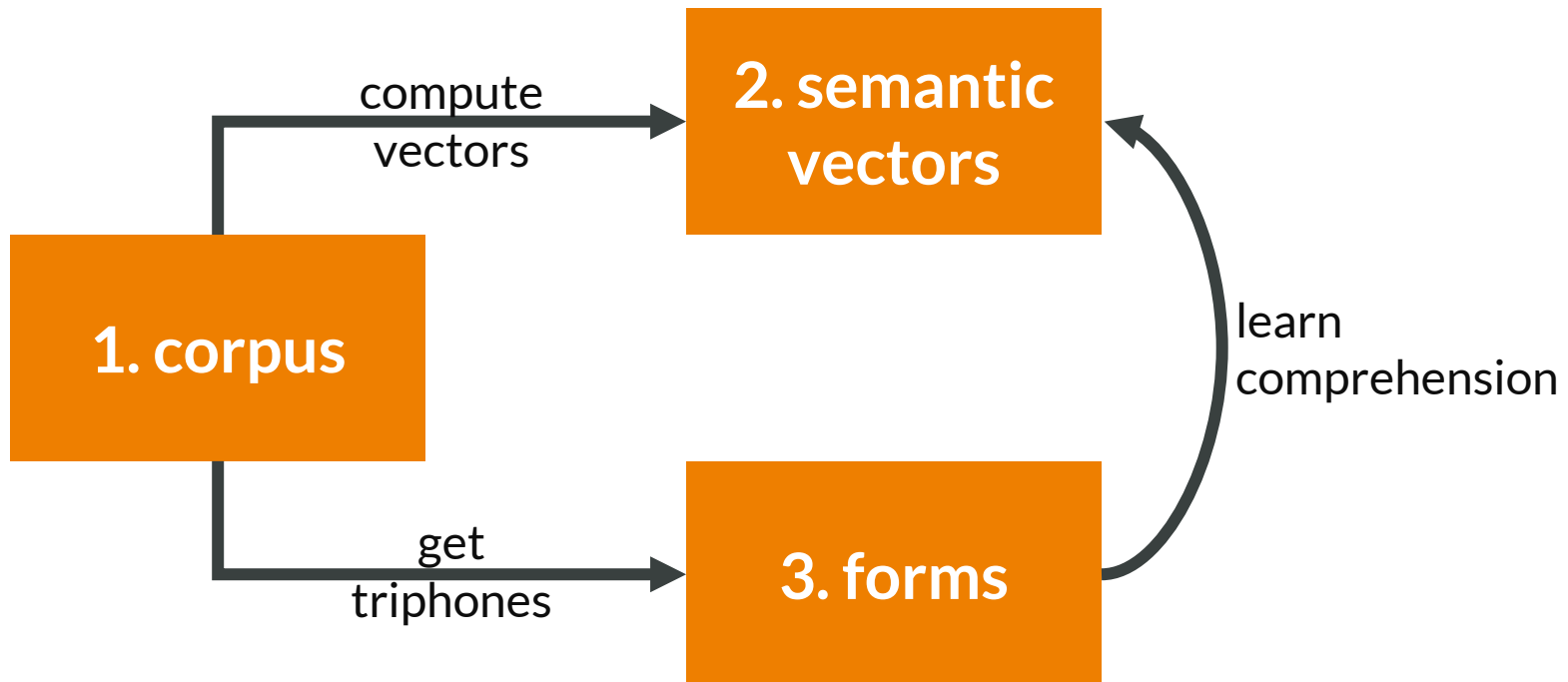
# Forms

- trigrams as unit for a word's form
- trigrams / triphones have been shown to capture the form variability of words well (e.g. Chuang et al., 2020; Schmitz et al., 2021; Schmitz et al., 2023)

form	#ca	cat	at#	cap	ap#	#ba	bat
<i>cat</i>	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
<i>cap</i>	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
<i>bat</i>	0	0	1	0	0	1	1

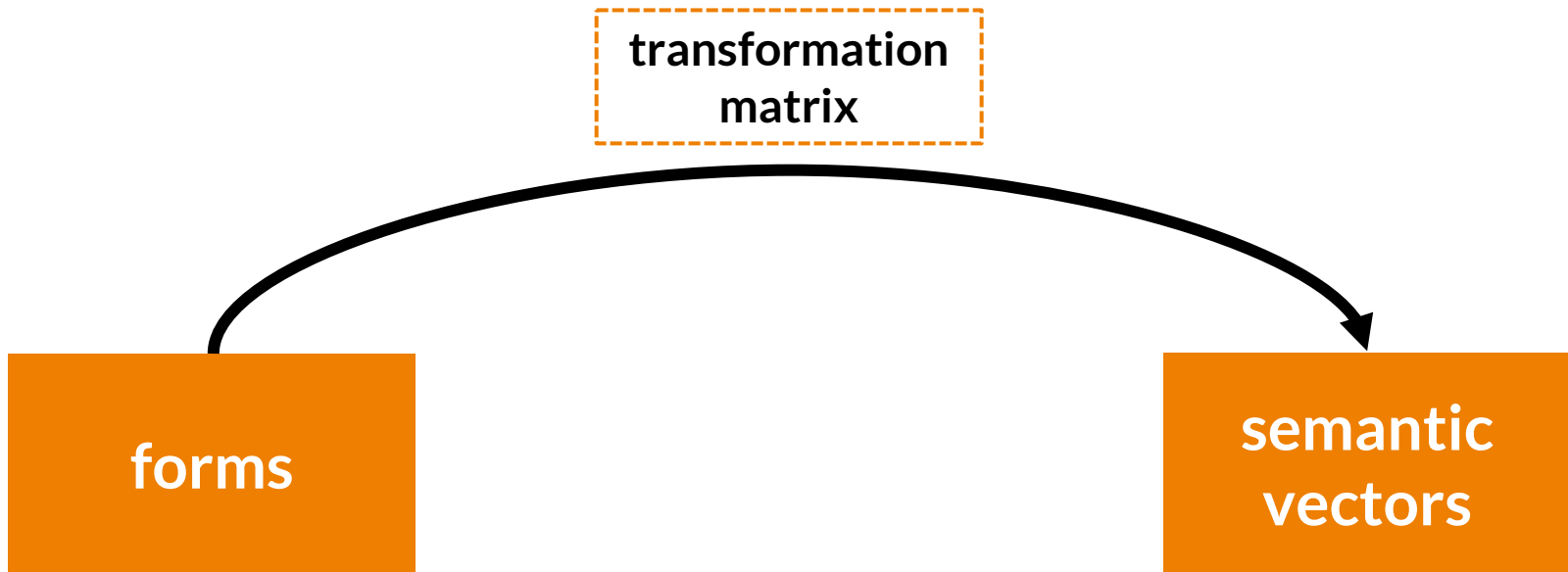
# Linear Discriminative Learning

- we simulate a mental lexicon by implementing a linear discriminative learning network (e.g. Baayen et al. 2019)
- using this mental lexicon, we can extract semantic measures for its entries



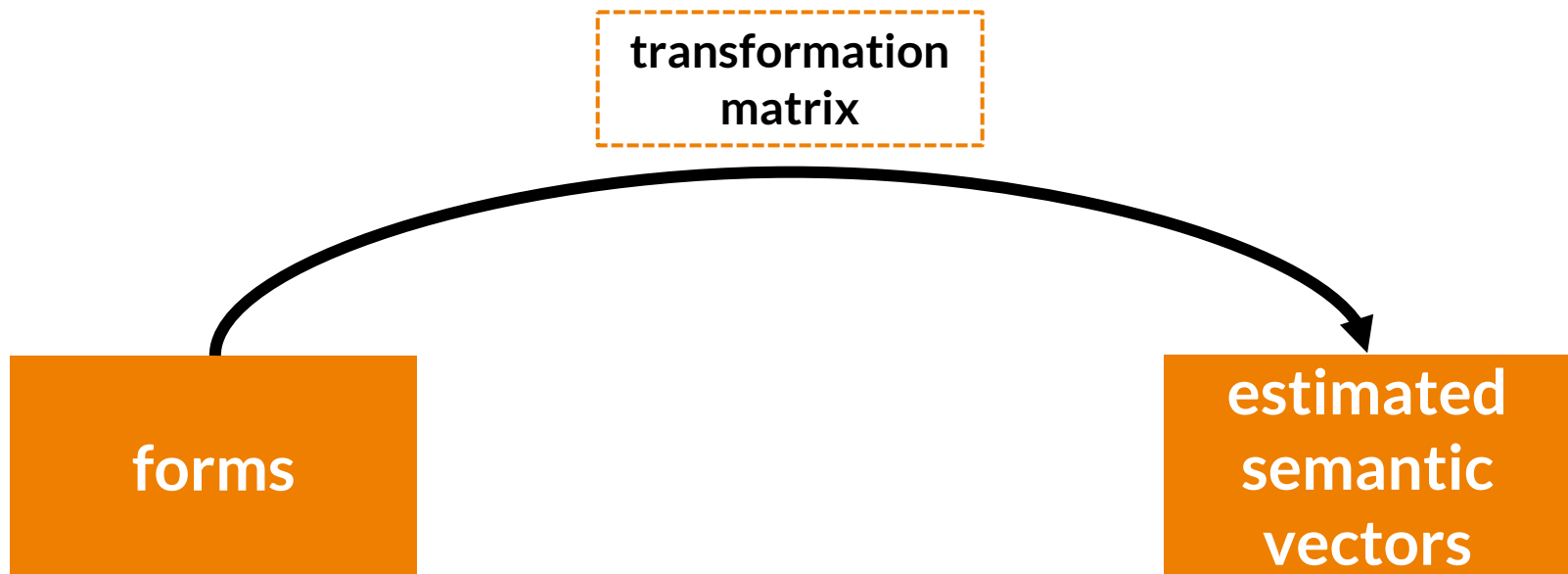
# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors – this done 60 times with different instance vectors for *he*, *she*, singular *they*, and plural *they*



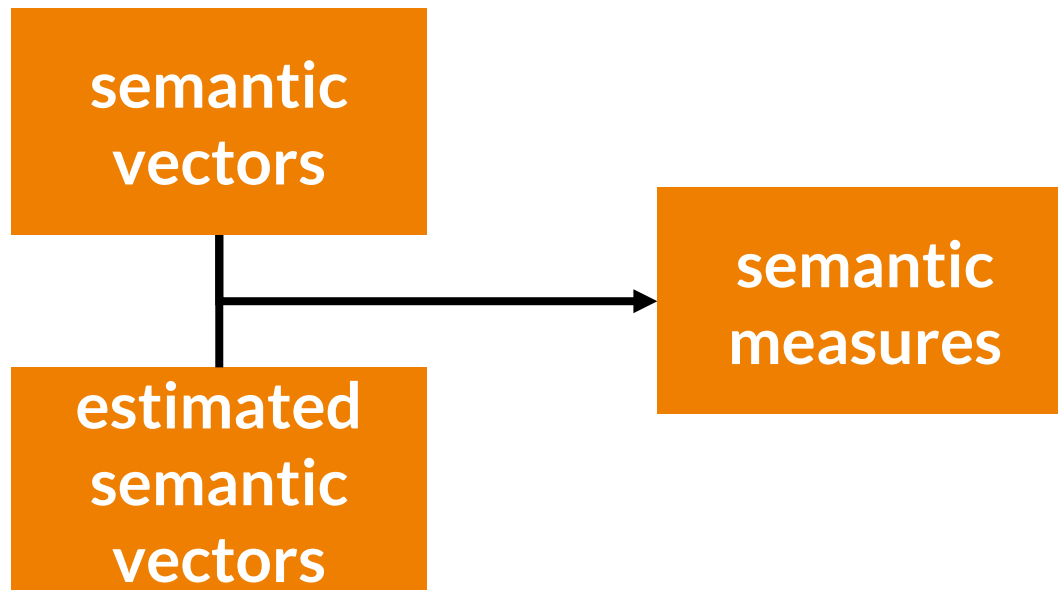
# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors – this done 60 times with different instance vectors for *he*, *she*, singular *they*, and plural *they*



# Learning comprehension

- Comprehension is learnt by linearly mapping the matrix of forms onto the matrix of semantic vectors – this done 60 times with different instance vectors for *he*, *she*, singular *they*, and plural *they*



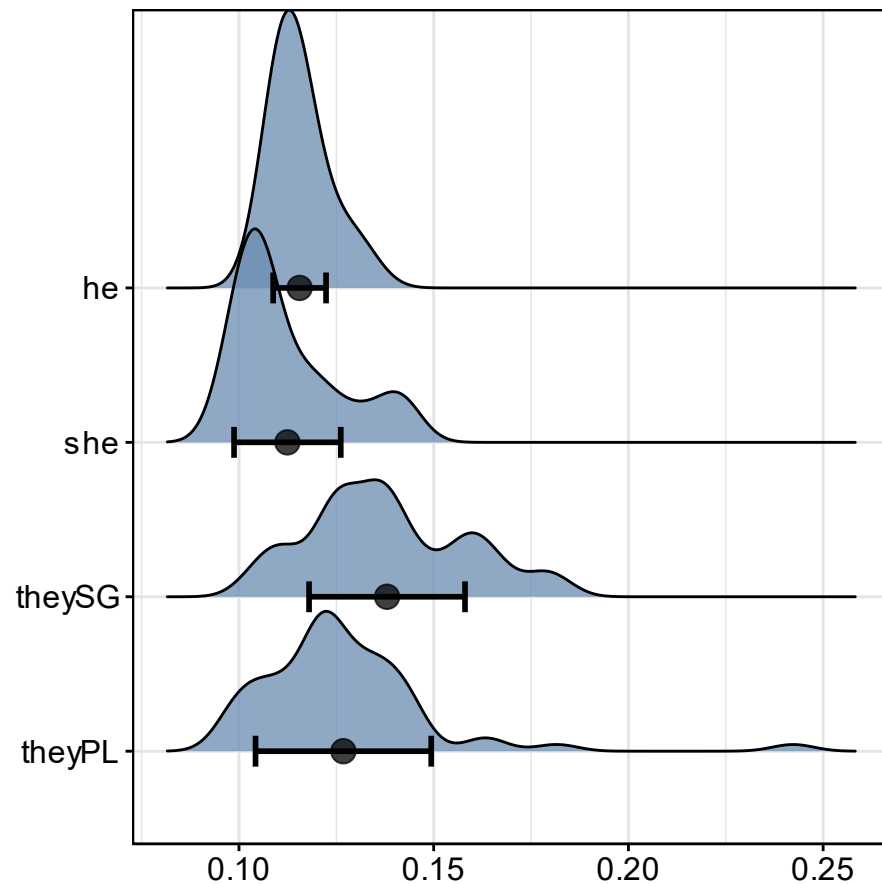


# Results

## DEGREE OF SEMANTIC CO-ACTIVATION

- higher = more co-activation

	he	she	theyPL
she	**		
theyPL	***	***	
theySG	***	***	**

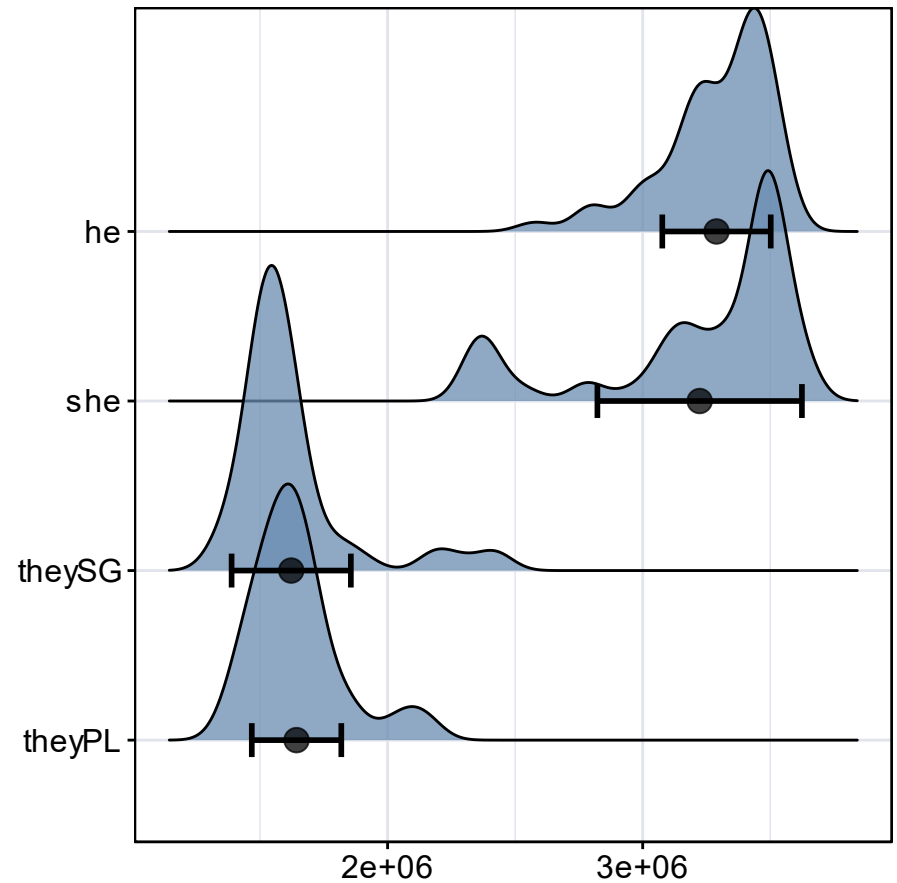


# Results

## SEMANTIC UNCERTAINTY

- higher = more uncertain

	he	she	theyPL
she	n.s.		
theyPL	***	***	
theySG	***	***	n.s.

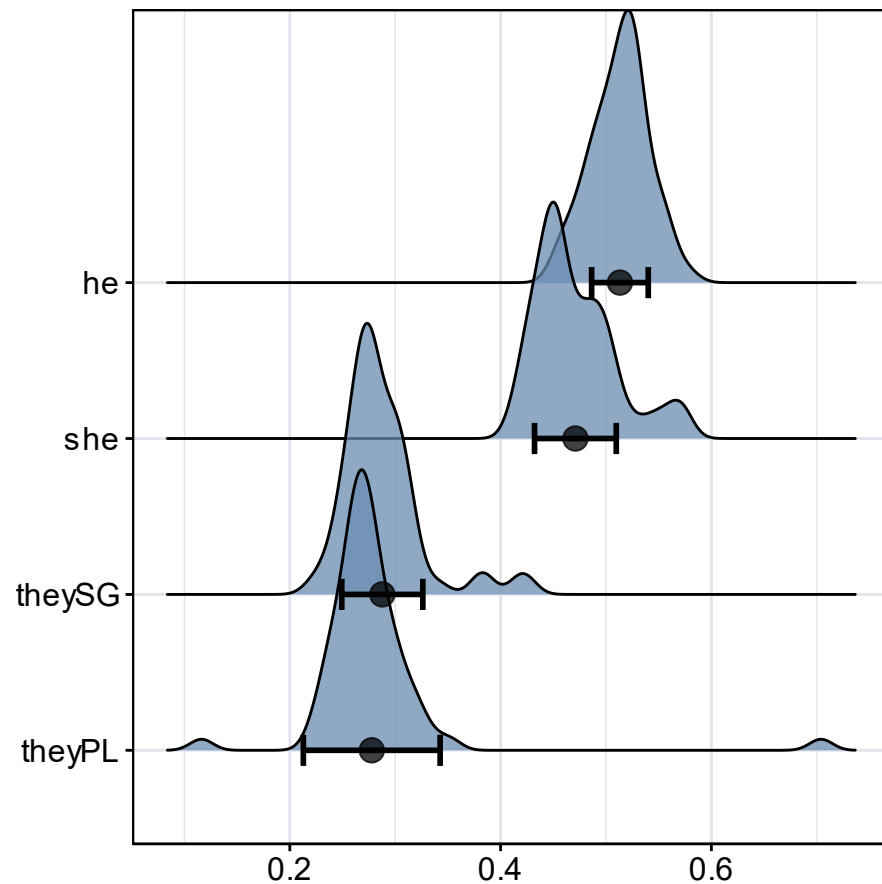


# Results

## SEMANTIC NEIGHBOURHOOD DENSITY

- higher = more close neighbours

	he	she	theyPL
she	***		
theyPL	***	***	
theySG	***	***	n.s.



# Discussion

- *he* and *she* co-activate to a lower degree than generic and plural *they*
  - *he* and *she* are less strongly connected to other entries of the lexicon  
= generic and plural *they* are more generic (?)
- *he* and *she* are semantically less certain than generic and plural *they*
  - referents of *he* and *she* are more specific than those of generic and plural *they*,  
i.e. *they* is “more often correct”
- *he* and *she* have more close neighbours than generic and plural *they*
  - *he* and *she* are more specific than plural *they*, while generic and plural *they* are more generic (?)

# Summary

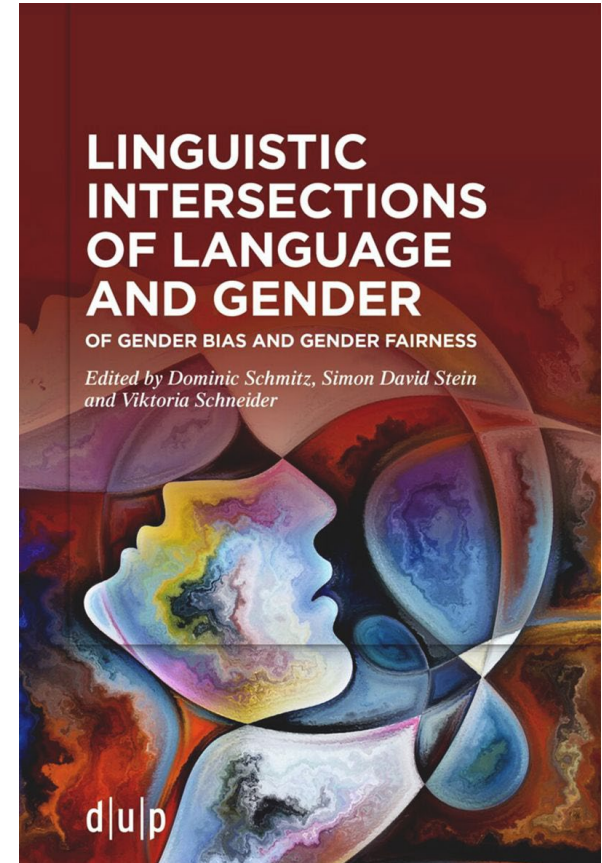
# Summary

- computational methods provide novel insights into
  - generic masculines and their male bias
  - pronouns and their semantic similarities and differences
- computational methods are a fruitful addition to the field of gender linguistics
  - however, such methods only recently entered the field (Schmitz, 2023a; Schmitz, 2023b; Schmitz et al., 2023)
- more computational research is definitely called for

# Summary

- a huge variety of different methodological approaches generally lead to complementary findings in gender linguistic research
- and, more generally, to new insights into the intersections of language and gender
- however: what is beyond the scope of linguistic research is what society makes of these findings

**THANK YOU!**



Schmitz, D., Stein, S. & Schneider, V. (2025). *Linguistic intersections of language and gender: Of gender bias and gender fairness*. düsseldorf university press.

# References 1/2

- Baayen, R. H., Chuang, Y.-Y., Shafaei-Bajestan, E., & Blevins, J. P. (2019). The discriminative lexicon: A unified computational model for the lexicon and lexical processing in comprehension and production grounded not in (de)composition but in linear discriminative learning. *Complexity*, 2019, 4895891. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/4895891>
- Baayen, R. H., & Ramscar, M. (2015). Abstraction, storage and naive discriminative learning. *Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics*, 39, 100–120. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110292022-006>
- Chuang, Y.-Y., Lõo, K., Blevins, J. P., & Baayen, R. H. (2020). Estonian case inflection made simple: A case study in Word and Paradigm Morphology with Linear Discriminative Learning. In L. Körtvélyessy & P. Štekauer (Eds.), *Complex words* (pp. 119–141). Cambridge University Press.
- Conrod, K. (2020). Pronouns and gender in language. In *The Oxford Handbook of Language and Sexuality*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780190212926.013.63>
- Doleschal, U. (2002). Das generische Maskulinum im Deutschen. Ein historischer Spaziergang durch die deutsche Grammatikschreibung von der Renaissance bis zur Postmoderne. *Linguistik Online*, 11(2). <https://doi.org/10.13092/lo.11.915>
- Gabriel, U., Gygax, P., Sarrasin, O., Garnham, A., & Oakhill, J. (2008). Au pairs are rarely male: Norms on the gender perception of role names across English, French, and German. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(1), 206–212. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.40.1.206>
- Goldhahn, D., Eckart, T., & Quasthoff, U. (2012). Building large monolingual dictionaries at the Leipzig Corpora Collection: From 100 to 200 languages. *Proceedings of the 8th International Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'12)*.
- Gygax, P., Gabriel, U., Sarrasin, O., Oakhill, J., & Garnham, A. (2008). Generically intended, but specifically interpreted: When beauticians, musicians, and mechanics are all men. *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 23(3), 464–485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01690960701702035>
- Gygax, P., Sato, S., Öttl, A., & Gabriel, U. (2021). The masculine form in grammatically gendered languages and its multiple interpretations: a challenge for our cognitive system. *Language Sciences*, 83, 101328. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2020.101328>
- Han, C. H., & Moulton, K. (2022). Processing bound-variable singular they. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics/Revue Canadienne de Linguistique*, 67(3), 267–301. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CNJ.2022.30>
- Irmen, L., & Kurovskaja, J. (2010). On the semantic content of grammatical gender and its impact on the representation of human referents. *Experimental Psychology*, 57(5), 367–375. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1618-3169/a000044>
- Irmen, L., & Linner, U. (2005). Die Repräsentation generisch maskuliner Personenbezeichnungen. *Zeitschrift Für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology*, 213(3), 167–175. <https://doi.org/10.1026/0044-3409.213.3.167>
- Konnolly, L., Cowper, E., Konnelly, L., & Cowper, E. (2020). Gender diversity and morphosyntax: An account of singular they. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics*, 5(1). <https://doi.org/10.5334/GJGL.1000>



# References 2/2

- Misersky, J., Majid, A., & Snijders, T. M. (2019). Grammatical gender in German influences how role-nouns are interpreted: Evidence from ERPs. *Discourse Processes*, 56(8), 643–654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2018.1541382>
- Rescorla, R. A., & Wagner, A. R. (1972). A theory of Pavlovian conditioning: Variations in the effectiveness of reinforcement and nonreinforcement. In A. H. Black & W. F. Prokasy (Eds.), *Classical conditioning II: Current research and theory* (pp. 64–99). Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Schmid, H. (1999). Improvements in part-of-speech tagging with an application to German. In S. Armstrong, K. Church, P. Isabelle, S. Manzi, E. Tzoukermann, & D. Yarowsky (Eds.), *Natural language processing using very large corpora* (pp. 13–25). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-2390-9\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-2390-9_2)
- Schmitz, D. (2023). In German, all professors are male. In J. Pfeifer, S. Arndt-Lappe, H. Dorgeloh, G. Kunter, & C. Uffmann (Eds.), *INGO 6.0. The Proceedings. New empirical Insights about laNguage, presented on a Great day Out in September*. Preprint. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/yjuhc>
- Schmitz, D. (2023). Instances of bias: The gendered semantics of generic masculines in German revealed by instance vectors. *Preprint*. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/73k4m>
- Schmitz, D., Plag, I., Baer-Henney, D., & Stein, S. D. (2021). Durational differences of word-final /s/ emerge from the lexicon: Modelling morpho-phonetic effects in pseudowords with linear discriminative learning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.680889>
- Schmitz, D., Schneider, V., & Esser, J. (2023). No genericity in sight: An exploration of the semantics of masculine generics in German. *Glossa Psycholinguistics*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.5070/G6011192>
- Schunack, S., & Binanzer, A. (2022). Revisiting gender-fair language and stereotypes - A comparison of word pairs, capital I forms and the asterisk. *Zeitschrift für Sprachwissenschaft*, 41(2), 309–337. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ZFS-2022-2008>
- Stahlberg, D., & Sczesny, S. (2001). Effekte des generischen Maskulinums und alternativer Sprachformen auf den gedanklichen Einbezug von Frauen. *Psychologische Rundschau*, 52(3), 131–140. <https://doi.org/10.1026//0033-3042.52.3.131>