

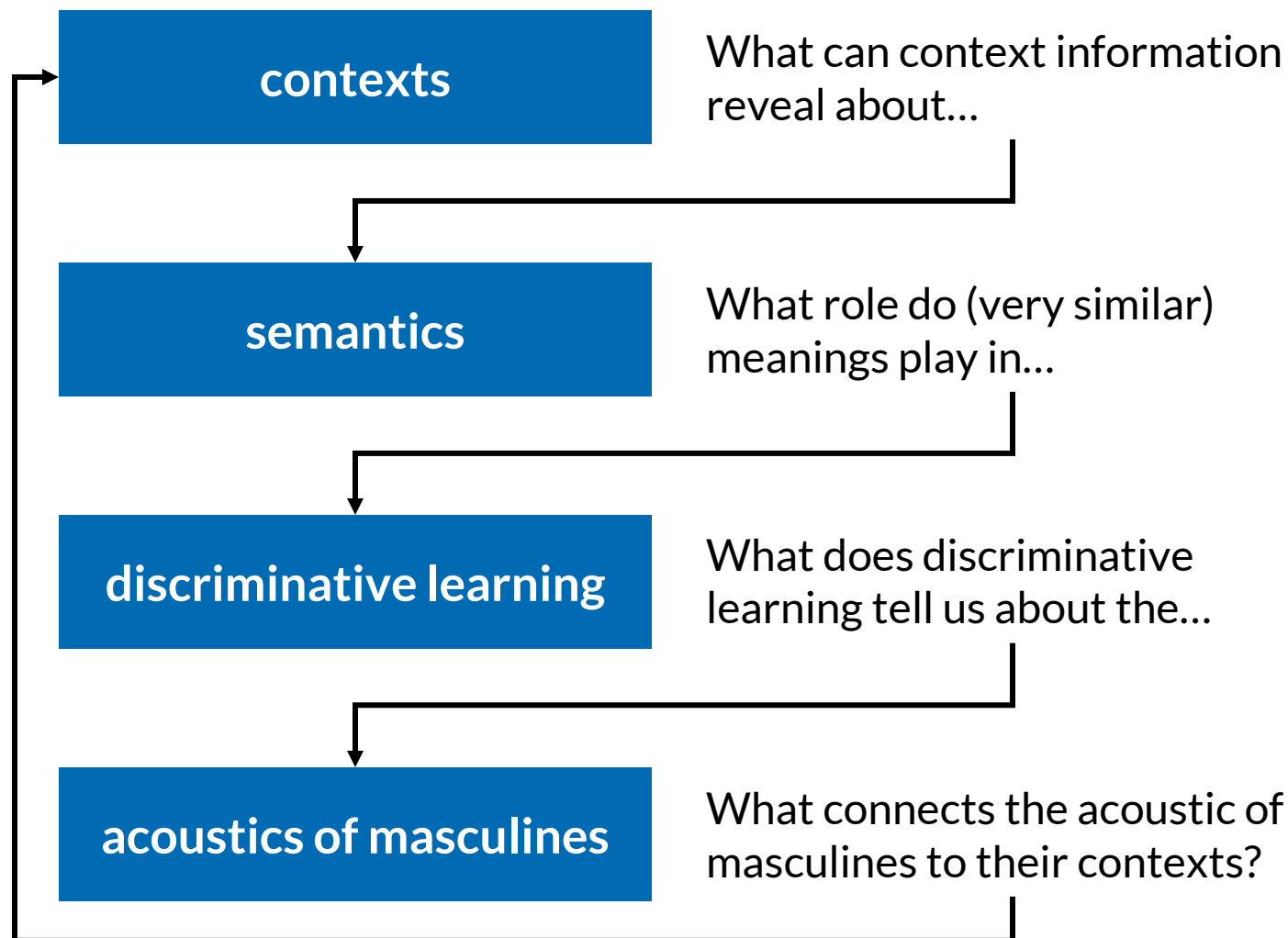


# Gendered language and the mental lexicon: Computational insights

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# What this talk is about



Who do you picture?

**Künstler**  
'artist'

- a male artist?
- a female artist?
- a nonbinary or genderqueer artist?

## Who do you picture?

Darin sind jene frühen Arbeiten des **Künstlers** zu sehen, die er lange vor seinem Aufstieg schuf.

‘It features the **artist's** early works, created long before his rise to fame.’

- a male artist?
- a female artist?
- a nonbinary or genderqueer artist?

# Who do you picture?

Heute geht es um die Verkehrslage und eine tolle  
**Künstlerin** im Konzerthaus.

‘Today we're talking about the traffic situation and a great **artist** at the concert hall.’

- a male artist?
- a female artist?
- a nonbinary or genderqueer artist?

## Who do you picture?

Für jeden Song fallen 0,4 Cent für den **Künstler** ab,  
mit der Zeit läppert es sich.

‘For each song, 0.4 cents go to the **artist**, and over time it adds up.’

- a male artist?
- a female artist?
- a nonbinary or genderqueer artist?

# German role nouns

- most German role nouns come in two flavours: **masculine** and **feminine**

Darin sind jene frühen Arbeiten des **Künstlers** zu sehen, ...

‘It features the artist's early works, ...’

Heute geht es um eine tolle **Künstlerin** im Konzerthaus.

‘Today we're talking about a great artist at the concert hall.’

- masculine role nouns show two distinct usage cases
  - **specific**: referring to male individuals
  - **generic**: referring to individuals of any/unknown/irrelevant gender

Für jeden Song fallen bei 0,4 Cent für den **Künstler** ab.

‘For each song, 0.4 cents go to the artist.’

- specific and generic masculines are **identical in form**: *Künstler*

# The role of context

- even though *Künstler*<sub>specific</sub> and *Künstler*<sub>generic</sub> share their form, you were rather certain who you're thinking of, at least in the specific case
- how can this be?
- the answer: context
- context may reveal whether a masculine role noun is intended to be specific or generic
- apparently, context is rather important for the meaning of masculine role nouns!



# Distributional semantics

- meaning is reflected in patterns of use
- Harris (1954)

*“Words that occur in similar contexts tend to have similar meanings”*

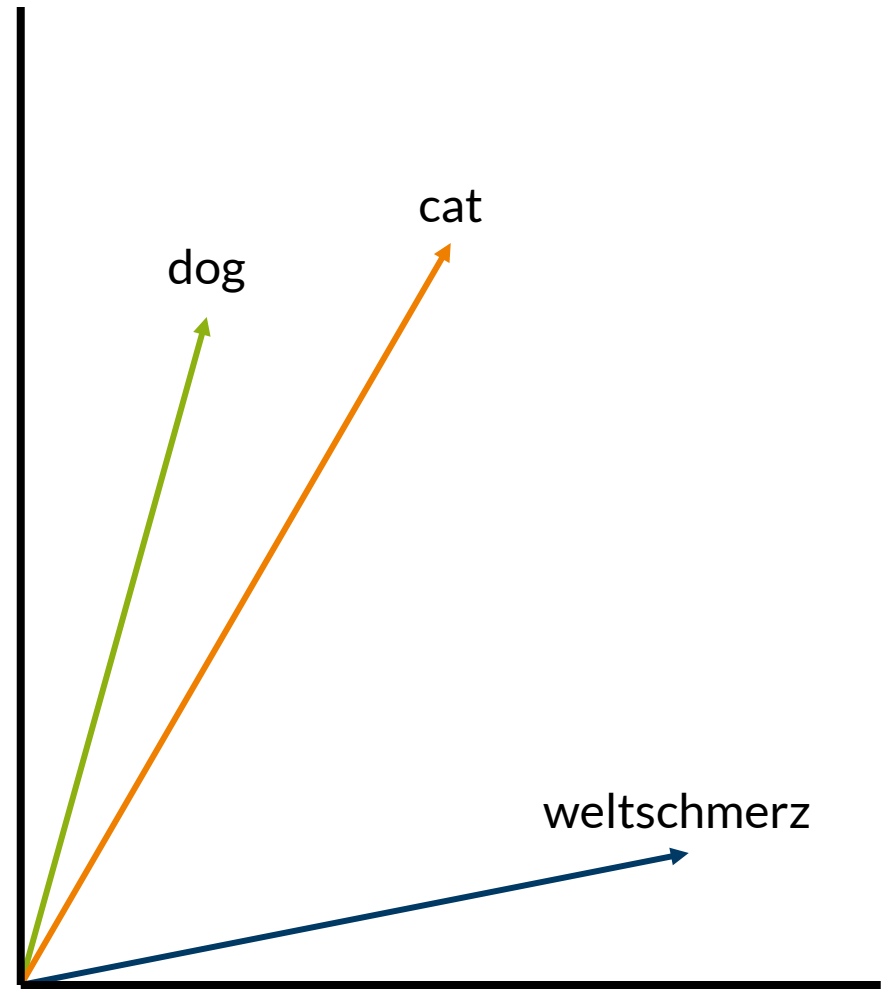
- Firth (1957)

*“You shall know a word by the company it keeps”*

- distributional models reverse-engineer meaning by tracking contextual regularities in large corpora
- output: high-dimensional semantic vectors representing patterns of linguistic behaviour

# Vector space models of meaning

- each word becomes a point in a multidimensional semantic space
- dimensions capture statistical properties of contexts (often not interpretable individually)
- semantic similarity corresponds to geometric closeness (e.g. cosine similarity)
- distances encode graded, continuous semantic relatedness



# What counts as “context”?

- context can mean many things
  - words in a window ( $\pm n$  words)
  - sentence, paragraph, document
  - syntactic relations
  - multimodal contexts (e.g. visual information)
- different models operationalise context differently, leading to different semantic spaces
- key idea: semantically similar words have overlapping context distributions

## Defining context

The apple is the pomaceous fruit of the apple tree, species *Malus domestica* in the rose family (Rosaceae). [...] There are more than 7,500 known cultivars of apples, resulting in a range of desired characteristics. [...] The apple forms a tree that is small and deciduous, reaching 3 to 12 metres (9.8 to 39 ft) tall, with a broad, often densely twiggy crown. [...] The apple tree was perhaps the earliest tree to be cultivated, and its fruits have been improved through selection over thousands of years. [...]

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	tree	fruit	forms	perhaps	apple	...
...						
apple	3	2	1	1	0	...
tree	0	1	1	1	3	...
...						

Thater (2011)



# Defining context

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rows

the vocabulary we are interested in

columns

"features" of the vocabulary, i.e. semantic dimensions

	tree	fruit	forms	perhaps	apple	...
...						
apple	3	2	1	1	0	...
tree	0	1	1	1	3	...
...						

## From co-occurrence to vectors

- start with a large vocabulary and context inventory
- build a matrix: rows = target words, columns = contextual features
- fill the matrix with counts or derived statistics
- each row  $\rightarrow$  a word vector, e.g.  $v_{apple} = \langle 3, 2, 1, 1, 0, \dots \rangle$

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Thater (2011)

# Design choices in distributional models 1

## Pre-processing

- do we use word-forms (*teachers, teacher, Teacher*) or simplified forms (teacher)?
- do we keep function words (*the, of, to*) or remove them?
- how do we treat punctuation, compounds, or multi-word expressions?

## Context

- a fixed window (e.g. the five words around the target)?
- whole sentences or paragraphs?
- grammatically defined relations (e.g. subject-verb-object links)?

# Design choices in distributional models 2

## Associative strength

- some methods simply count co-occurrences
- others give more weight to informative contexts (rare but meaningful associations)
- some methods learn these weights automatically

## Model type

- **count-based models**  
build a large co-occurrence table and transform it
- **predictive models**  
learn vectors by predicting missing words from context
- **subword models**  
include information from letter sequences to handle morphological richness

## Predictive models: *word2vec*

- instead of counting co-occurrences, predictive models learn meaning by **guessing** words
- the model sees sentences and repeatedly asks itself questions like “Given this context, which word is likely to appear here?”
- to guess well, the model must learn which words occur in similar situations
- words with similar contexts end up having similar vectors

The \_\_\_\_\_ grows on trees.



## Subword models: *fastText*

- many languages have rich morphology: *Student, Studentin, Studierende, ...*
- traditional models treat each word as unrelated, even if they clearly share meaning
- *fastText* improves this by breaking words into small letter chunks
- these ‘subword’ pieces also get vectors, and a word’s meaning is built from these pieces, e.g.  $v_{student\_n3} = \langle stu, tud, ude, den, ent \rangle$
- result
  - better handling of rare (and even novel) forms
  - better handling of inflected words
  - more realistic similarity between related forms

# Subword models: *fastText*

- example: *Student*

- $v_{student\_n2} = \langle st, tu, ud, de, en, nt \rangle$

- $v_{student\_n3} = \langle stu, tud, ude, den, ent \rangle$

- $v_{student\_n4} = \langle stud, tude, uden, dent \rangle$

- $v_{student\_n5} = \langle stude, tuden, udent \rangle$

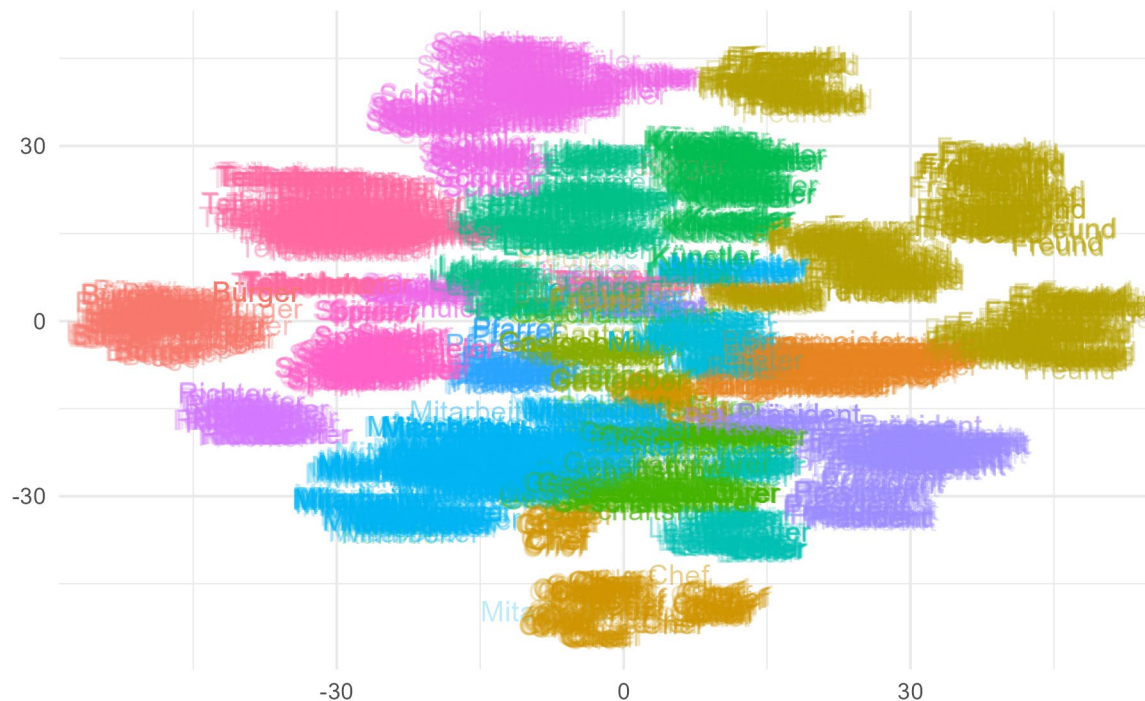
- $v_{student\_n6} = \langle studen, tudent \rangle$

- $v_{student\_full} = \langle student \rangle$

- $$v_{student} = \left\langle v_{student\_n2} + v_{student\_n3} + v_{student\_n4} + v_{student\_n5} + v_{student\_n6} + v_{student\_full} \right\rangle$$

# The final semantic space

- t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbour Embedding
- aim: reduce high-dimensional vectors to 2 or 3 dimensions without losing local patterns or structure between the vectors



van der Maaten & Hinton (2008)



## How vector similarity is measured

- to compare two words, we measure the angle between their vectors  
= **cosine similarity**
  - small angle  $\rightarrow$  vectors point in similar directions  $\rightarrow$  high similarity
  - large angle  $\rightarrow$  vectors diverge  $\rightarrow$  low similarity
- the resulting values range from:
  - +1 (= identical direction)
  - 0 (= unrelated)
  - -1 (= opposite directions)

## Guess the similarity!

	surgeon	empathy
nurse		

	classroom	male
teacher		

	newspaper	man
editor		

	queen	castle
king		

remember: 1 = identical meaning; 0 = unrelated meaning; -1 = opposites

## Guess the similarity!

	surgeon	empathy
nurse	0.52	0.23

	classroom	male
teacher		

	newspaper	man
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king		

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<b>teacher</b>	0.61	0.22

	<b>newspaper</b>	<b>man</b>
<b>editor</b>	0.50	0.22

	<b>queen</b>	<b>castle</b>
<b>king</b>		

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	<b>newspaper</b>	<b>man</b>
<b>editor</b>	0.50	0.22

	<b>queen</b>	<b>castle</b>
<b>king</b>	0.71	0.38

remember: 1 = identical meaning; 0 = unrelated meaning; -1 = opposites

## Back to role nouns

- *Künstler*<sub>specific</sub> and *Künstler*<sub>generic</sub> share their form, but apparently context can help us disambiguate them
- so, in theory, the differences in contexts should also be represented by pertinent semantic vectors - because semantic vectors make use of contextual information
- let's see whether this is actually the case...

# Oh no!

- before we can look into this, we first need to solve a problem
- German masculine role nouns pose a methodological issue:  
one form - two meanings
- *fastText* doesn't know this, it only sees the one spelling *Künstler*
- so, both meanings collapse into one vector  $v_{Künstler}$
- with one vector for two meanings, we cannot do anything meaningful...



## A solution: instance vectors

- following Lapesa et al. (2018) we can compute instance vectors
  - instead of one vector per word type, compute one vector per token based on the actual words around it
- instance vector computation
  1. take a target token (e.g. *Arbeiter*)
  2. take the  $n$  content words before and after it
  3. average their *fastText* vectors
  4. the result = an instance vector capturing the meaning in this sentence
- instance vectors are thus a method of contextual semantic disambiguation that remains purely distributional, without resorting to grammars or lexicons

# Study: instance vectors and role nouns

## 1. corpus

30,000 manually annotated attestations of role nouns (generic vs specific use)

## 2. target paradigms

76 role nouns from Gabriel et al. (2008)

## 3. context vectors

pre-trained German *fastText* vectors (subword-based)

## 4. instance vector computation

for each target token, compute one instance vector at window sizes  $n = 2, 5, 8$

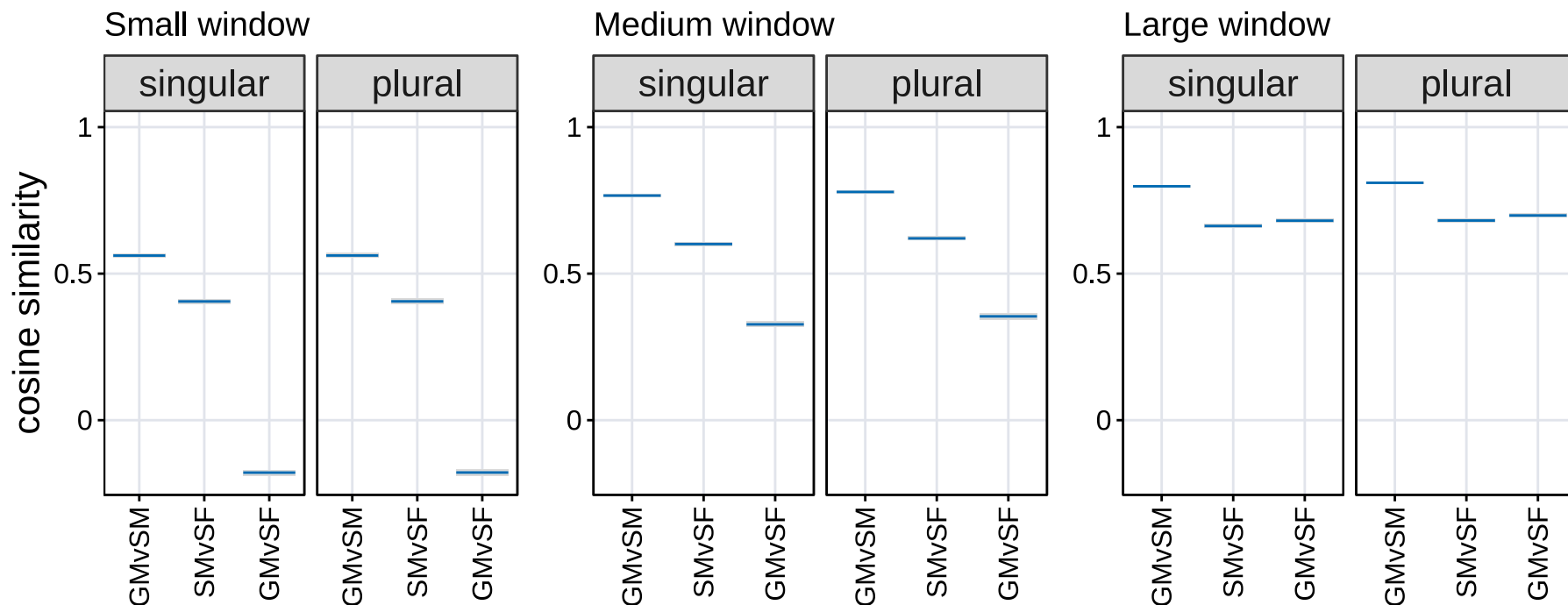
## 5. analysis

compute cosine similarities within paradigms (generic  $\leftrightarrow$  specific masc;

generic masc  $\leftrightarrow$  specific fem; specific masc  $\leftrightarrow$  specific fem)

model using beta-regression

## Study: instance vectors and role nouns



- across number and window sizes, generic masculines are always more similar to specific masculines than to specific feminines

## Study: instance vectors and role nouns

- a single *fastText* vector cannot solve the generic/specific ambiguity
- but instance vectors can
- instance vectors allow us to
  - treat each token as its own semantic event,
  - recover the contextual meaning of *Arbeiter* as used in that sentence,
  - and measure similarity patterns that reveal systematic male bias in generic uses
- ...but is any of this cognitively plausible?




# From distributional semantics to discriminative learning

- distributional models capture semantic similarity through patterns of co-occurrence
- they give us representations, but they are not motivated by cognitive insights or theories
- discriminative learning models address exactly this
- they implement error-driven learning, cue competition, and discriminability, providing a cognitive model of how lexical knowledge emerges from usage patterns




## Discriminative learning: the basic idea

- learning is **error-driven**: what is learned is the difference between predicted and observed outcomes
- **cues** compete to predict **outcomes**
- correct predictions strengthen cue → outcome links;  
incorrect predictions weaken cue → outcome links
- learning is incremental, usage-based, and continuous across the lifespan
- lexical knowledge emerges from these learned mappings
- **naive discriminative learning** (NDL) follows the Rescorla–Wagner model of associative learning (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972)

# The learning mechanism: error-driven updating

- imagine the model is trying to learn that the sound /kæt/ means (   not  )

## Step 1: Look at the cues in the input







- When the model hears /kæt/, it identifies the cues: /k/, /æ/, /t/
- These cues each have weights pointing to many possible meanings (  ,   .. )

# The learning mechanism: error-driven updating

- imagine the model is trying to learn that the sound /kæt/ means (  not






## Step 2: Add up the current evidence for each meaning




- The model adds the cue → meaning weights
  - maybe /k/ gives weak support for (  and (  )
  - /æ/ gives strong support for (  )
  - /t/ gives modest support for (  )
- This creates the model's **prediction**:  
 might get a medium score, (  ) low score, etc.






## The learning mechanism: error-driven updating

- imagine the model is trying to learn that the sound /kæt/ means (    not





### Step 3: Compare prediction with the actual outcome

- Reality is:  = correct, all others = incorrect
- If the model did not predict  strongly enough, this is an error
- If the model gave too much support to  that is also an error

# The learning mechanism: error-driven updating

- imagine the model is trying to learn that the sound /kæt/ means C  not  

## Step 4: Adjust the weights to reduce this error next time

- Strengthen the weights from the present cues (/k/, /æ/, /t/) towards C  because  should have been predicted more strongly
- Weaken the weights from these same cues towards   because the model wrongly predicted them
- After many such steps, the cue → meaning weights come to reflect the statistical structure of the input

## NDL as a model of semantic structure

- each outcome has a vector of incoming cue weights
- if we specify outcomes and cues to be words, we compute word embeddings
- each embedding reflects the cues that reliably predict the meaning of its outcome
- outcomes with similar patterns of predictive cues are semantically similar
- NDL thus provides a purely usage-based semantic space aligned with psychological learning principles

# Why NDL is useful beyond theory

- **transparent:** mathematically equivalent to linear regression
- **flexible** cue choices: orthography, phonology, morphology, syntax, prosody, social meaning signals
- **no morpheme segmentation or rule system required** — structure emerges from data
- **connects semantics and processing**
  - predicts activation, competition, confusability, semantic neighbourhood effects
  - can feed into behavioural models (RTs, choices, acoustic durations)

## Back to role nouns (again)

- *Künstler*<sub>specific</sub> and *Künstler*<sub>generic</sub> share their form, but apparently context can help us disambiguate them
- so, in theory, the differences in contexts should also be represented by pertinent semantic vectors - because semantic vectors make use of contextual information
- let's see whether this is actually the case...
- NDL lets us treat the features of these forms as distinct cues/outcomes with separate semantic representations
- by learning from real corpus data, the model reconstructs how the two meanings differ in their contexts

# Study: NDL and role nouns

## 1. corpus

30,000 manually annotated attestations of role nouns (generic vs specific use)

## 2. target paradigms

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## 3. NDL setup

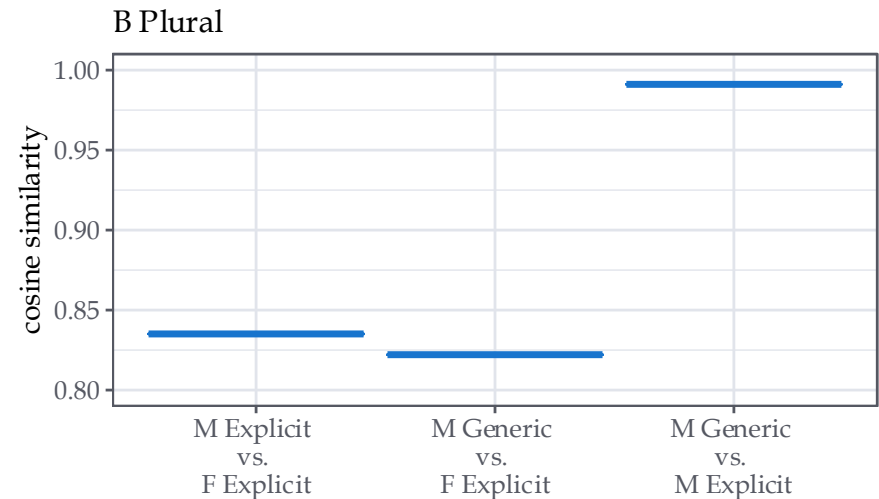
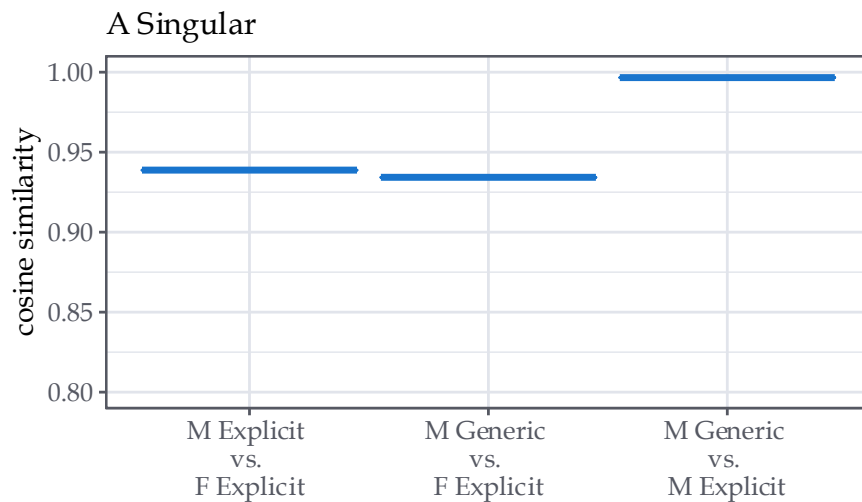
- cues and outcomes: all content words in a sentence, reduced to base form, and grammatical gender, number, generic/specific
- each sentence is a learning event; all cues → each outcome present in that sentence

## 4. vectors

- sum of parts vectors for target words, e.g.

$$v_{Arbeiter\_masc\_sg\_g} = v_{Arbeiter} + v_{masculine} + v_{singular} + v_{generic}$$

# Study: NDL and role nouns



- across number, generic masculines are more similar to specific masculines than to specific feminines
- ...and what about the mental lexicon?

## From learned semantics to lexical processing

- NDL and other algorithms of distributional semantics give us semantic embeddings: vectors describing how cues relate to outcomes
- but language processing involves (at least) two mappings
  - comprehension: form  $\rightarrow$  meaning
  - production: meaning  $\rightarrow$  form
- **linear discriminative learning (LDL)** models both mappings directly
- LDL uses the same learning principles as NDL but extends them to high-dimensional mappings between form and meaning



# What is LDL?

a linear learning model in which **form vectors** and **meaning vectors** are linked through **linear mappings** that are learned from experience

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## Form vectors

- LDL represents a word's form as a **binary vector** encoding which sublexical cues it contains
- standard cues are  $n$ -grams
- each unique  $n$ -gram across the lexicon becomes a column in the form matrix  $C$ ; each word is a row, marked with 1s where its  $n$ -grams occur
- this avoids assuming phonemes: speech is contextual, gradients matter, and  $n$ -grams capture this better than discrete phonemes
- $C$  can be built from orthography, phonology, syllables, or even acoustic vectors
- because only a few cues are present per word,  $C$  is a sparse matrix, optimised for efficient computation

Baayen et al. (2019); Chuang & Baayen (2021)

## Form vectors

- example: *Student*, *Studentin*, *Ärztin*, *resistent*

	#st	stu	tud	ude	den	ent	nt#	nti	tin	in#
student	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
studentin	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
ärztin	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
resistent	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0

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# Meaning vectors

- meanings are represented by semantic vectors
- vectors come from NDL or other distributional methods

	<b>D1</b>	<b>D2</b>	<b>D3</b>	<b>D4</b>	<b>D5</b>	<b>...</b>
<b>student</b>	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.9	0.8	...
<b>studentin</b>	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.8	0.7	...
<b>ärztin</b>	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	...
<b>resistent</b>	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.4	...

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# Linear mappings

- linear mappings allow transparent, interpretable learning
- they implement discriminative learning in vector spaces
- efficient enough to scale to full lexicons (tens of thousands of words)
- empirically successful in modelling
  - lexical decision (Chuang et al. 2020),
  - auditory recognition (Arnold et al. 2017),
  - morphological processing (Baayen & Smolka 2020),
  - semantic priming (Baayen & Smolka 2020),
  - subphonemic durational differences (Schmitz et al. 2021),
  - and more

## Linear mappings: comprehension

- the model learns which form features reliably point to which areas of meaning space
- LDL learns a transformation matrix  $F$  so that  $S = C \cdot F$
- because  $S$  and  $C$  are high-dimensional,  $C \cdot F$  never results in  $S$ , but in  $\hat{S}$
- $\hat{S}$  is the best approximation to  $S$  possible
- $\hat{S}$  reflects the outcome of the comprehension process, i.e. differences between  $S$  and  $\hat{S}$  represent the doings of the simulated mental lexicon
- based on  $\hat{S}$ , meaningful measures based on semantics in the mental lexicon can be derived

## Linear mappings: production

- the model learns which pieces of form are most likely for what it wants to say
- LDL learns a transformation matrix  $G$  so that  $C = S \cdot G$
- because  $S$  and  $C$  are high-dimensional,  $S \cdot G$  never results in  $C$ , but in  $\hat{C}$
- $\hat{C}$  is the best approximation to  $C$  possible
- $\hat{C}$  reflects the outcome of the comprehension process, i.e. differences between  $C$  and  $\hat{C}$  represent the doings of the simulated mental lexicon
- based on  $\hat{C}$ , meaningful measures based on forms in the mental lexicon can be derived

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- form vectors in  $\mathcal{C}$ , meaning vectors in  $\mathcal{S}$
- comprehension via  $F$  for  $\hat{S}$ , production via  $G$  for  $\hat{C}$
- once trained, LDL can
  - map form  $\rightarrow$  meaning
  - map meaning  $\rightarrow$  form
  - compute different measures based on comprehended semantics and produced form

# Study: LDL and role nouns

## C matrix

- orthographic trigrams used as form cues
- each word type corresponds to a row; each trigram cue is a column

## S matrix

- the NDL semantic embeddings for each word serve as meaning vectors

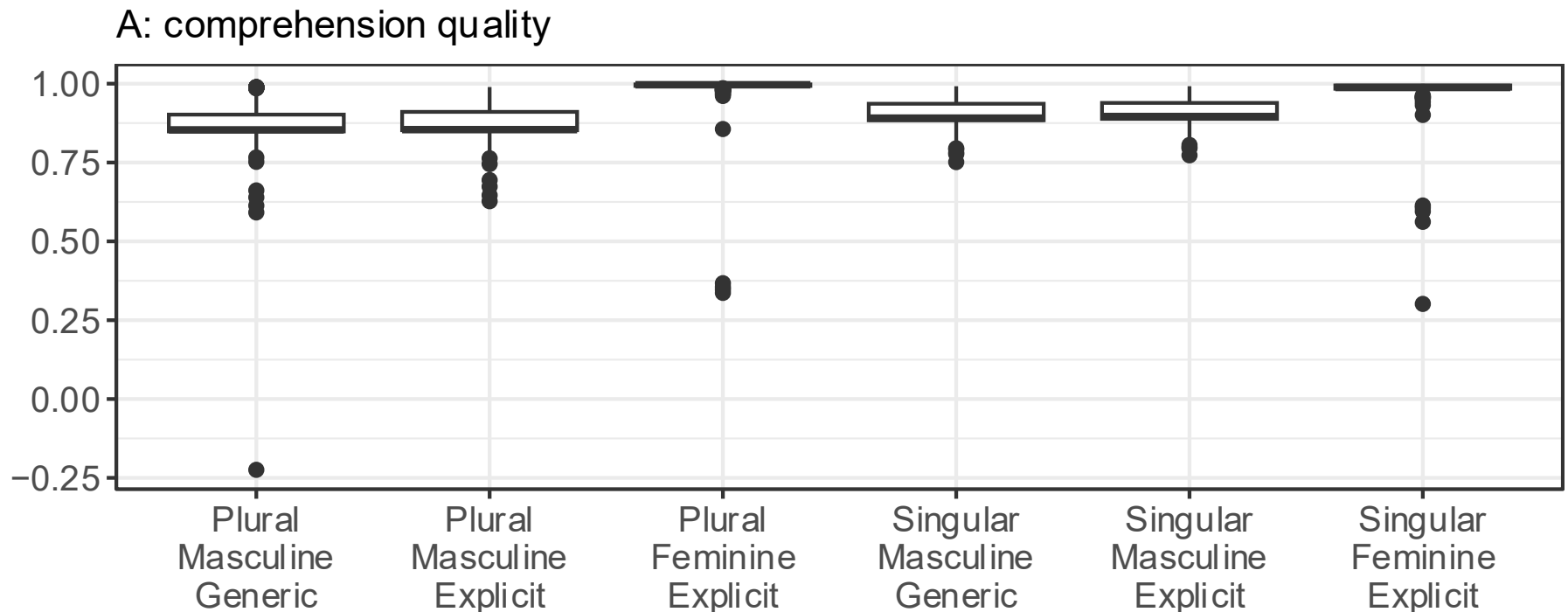
## idea

- this time we're not interested in cosine similarities, but in **measures** extracted from the comprehended semantics of our target words - are they different between generic masc, specific masc, and feminines?

# Study: LDL and role nouns

## Measure 1: comprehension quality

- how well is the input semantic vector comprehended?  
= correlation of input vector and comprehended vector

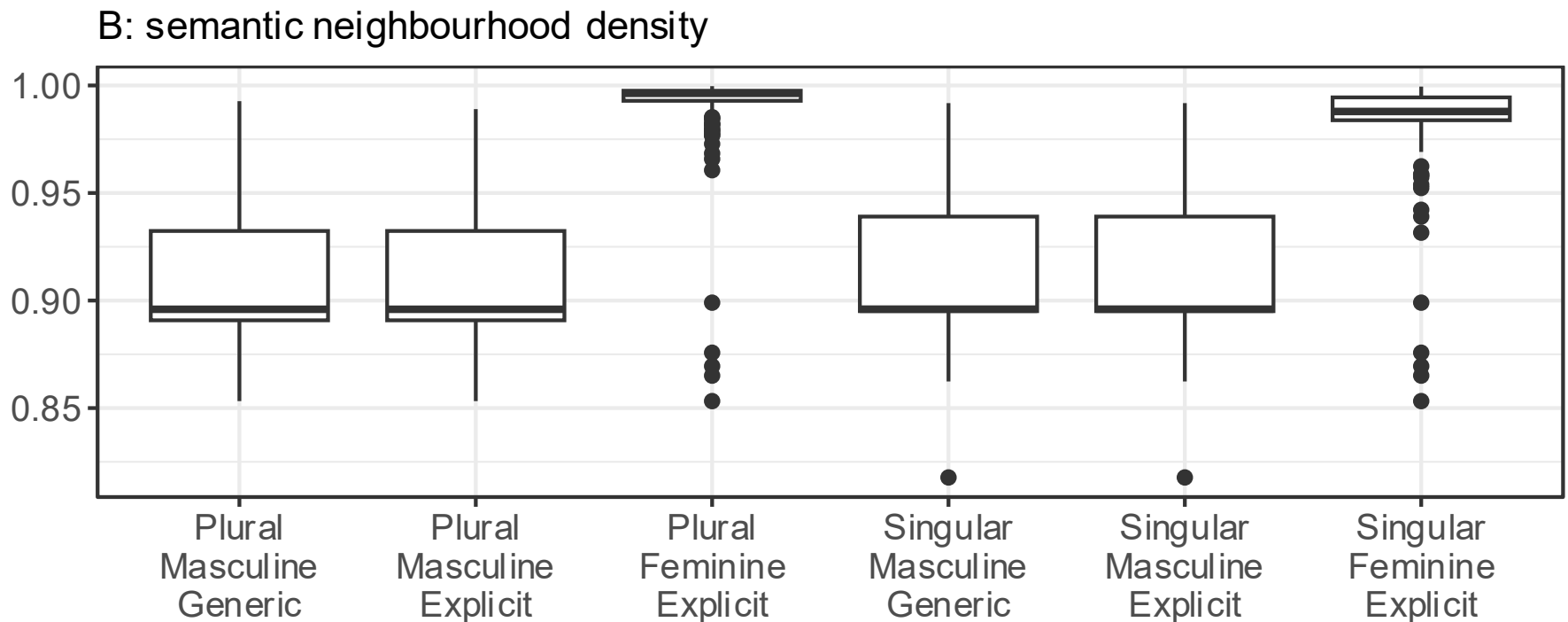




# Study: LDL and role nouns

## Measure 2: semantic neighbourhood density

- how dense is the semantic neighbourhood of a target?  
= mean correlation of 10 nearest neighbours



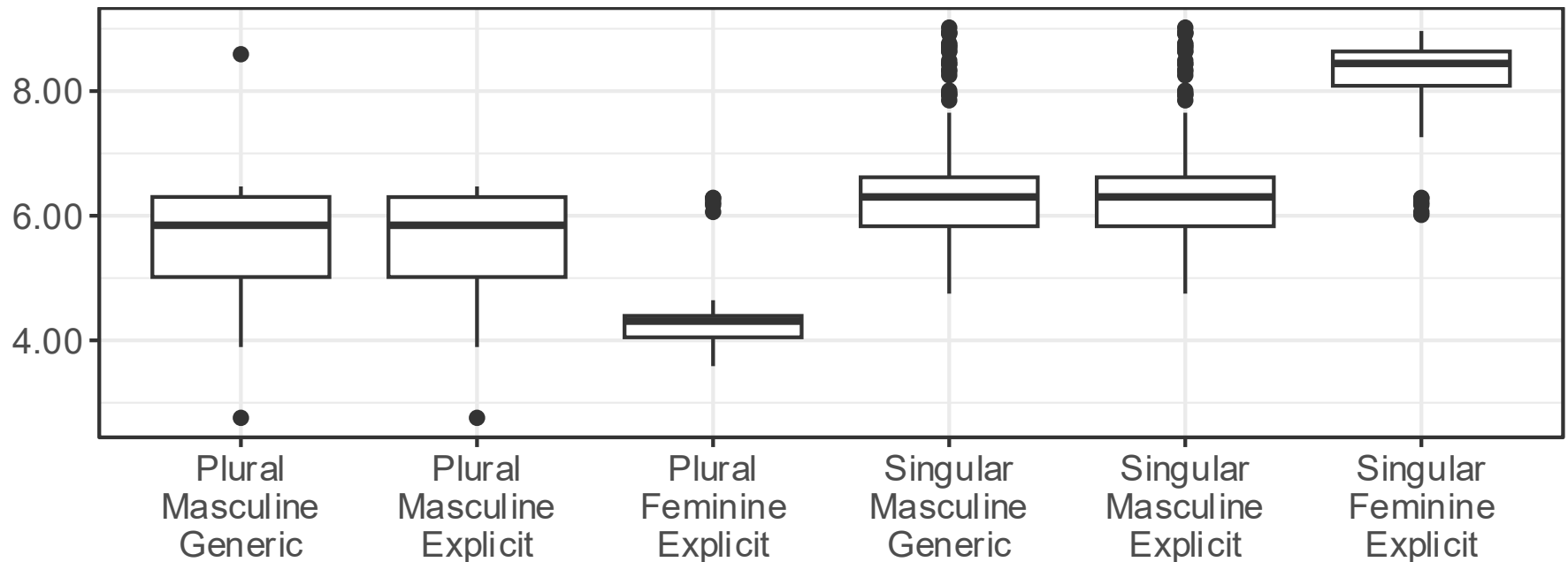
Schmitz et al. (2023)

# Study: LDL and role nouns

## Measure 3: semantic activation diversity

- how strongly are semantic dimensions activated by the target?  
= Euclidean norm of the comprehended semantic vector

C: semantic activation diversity



## Role nouns in the lexicon

- by now we know that
  - semantically, generic and specific masculines are highly similar
  - when it comes to their form, they are identical
  - the interplay of very similar meaning and identical form leads to almost no difference in their comprehension
  - feminine forms, in contrast, are different than masculine forms
- but what happens when we introduce a new third form to the paradigm?

## Study: LDL and the gender star

- a paradigm now has four members
  - specific masculine *Künstler*
  - generic masculine *Künstler*
  - specific feminine *Künstlerin*
  - gender star form *Künstler\*in*
- based on a manually annotated corpus, semantic embeddings were computed
- these embeddings - and the forms of the targets - are the input for yet another LDL model
- ... or rather, 20 of them

# Study: LDL and the gender star

## C matrix

- orthographic trigrams used as form cues

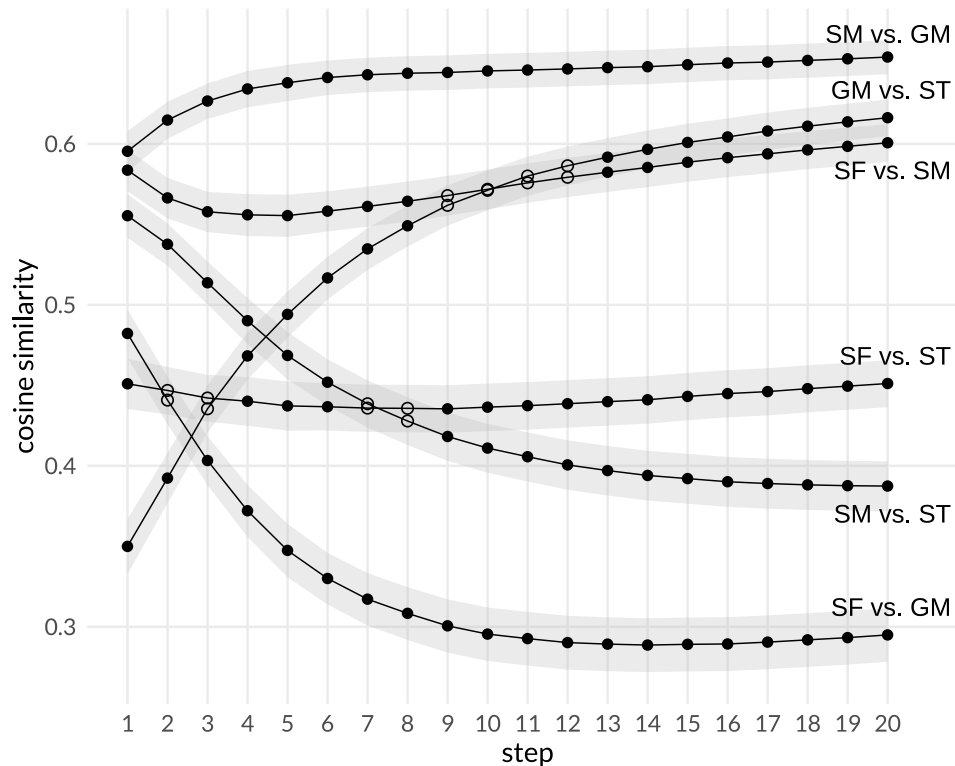
## S matrix

- *fastText* semantic embeddings for each word serve as meaning vectors

## mapping

- this time we're using another flavour of matrix mapping: frequency-informed
- across the 20 LDL models, the frequency of the gender star form approaches the frequency of its generic masculine counterpart

# Study: LDL and the gender star



- generic ↔ specific masculine:  
consistently most similar at all steps
- gender-star ↔ generic masculine:  
similarity increases as star frequency rises
- gender-star ↔ specific masculine:  
similarity decreases over steps
- gender-star ↔ specific feminine:  
relatively stable, and from about step 9 onward, gender star is more similar to feminine than to specific masculine

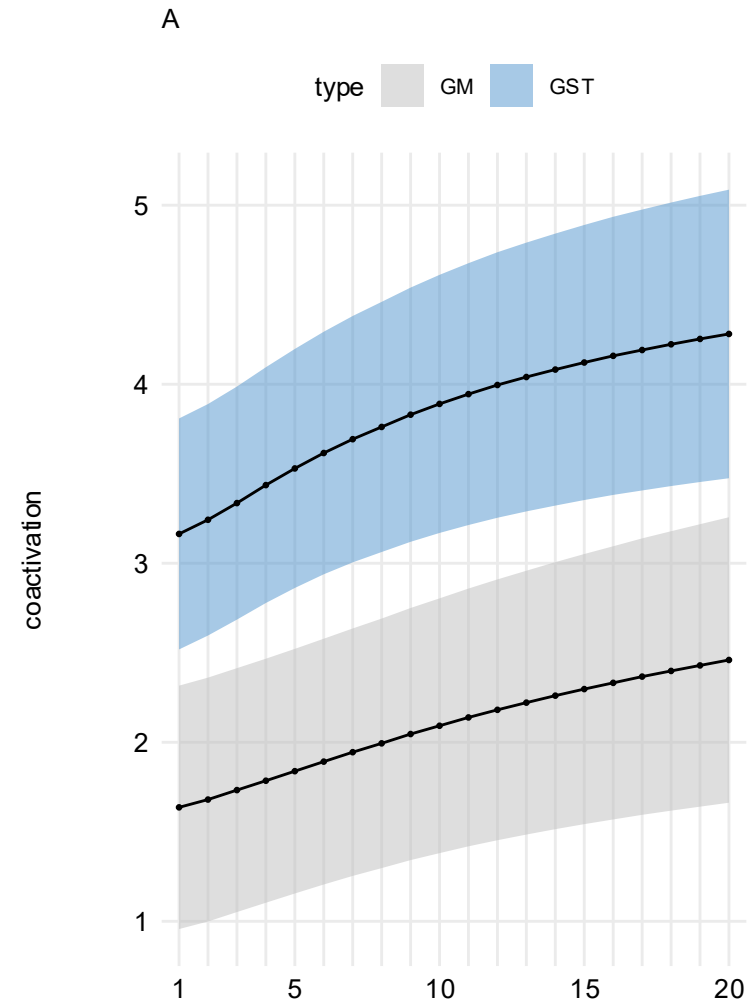
## Study: LDL and the gender star

- gender star forms are pulled toward generic masculines in terms of semantics, but their form overlap with feminines shapes their position relative to specific masculines and feminines
- so, what about the underlying semantic measures of gender star forms?
- let's look at
  - semantic coactivation
  - word-level certainty
  - lexicon-level uncertainty

# Study: LDL and the gender star

## semantic coactivation

- both GM and GST increase over steps
- GST always higher than GM
- accessing a gender-star form activates more semantic dimensions



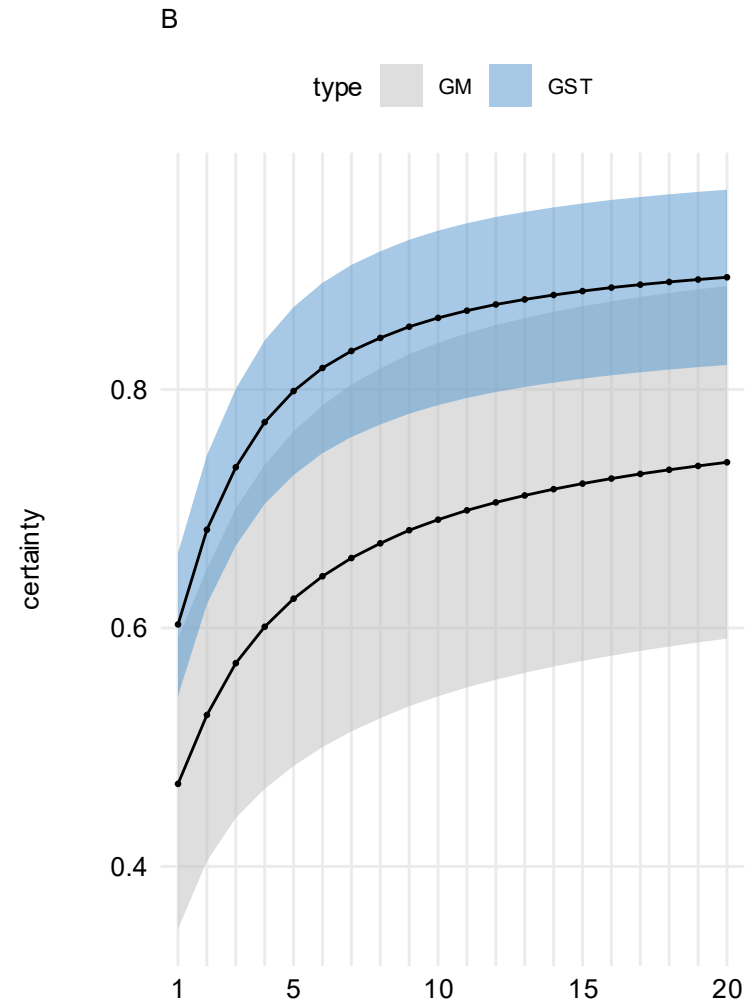
Schmitz (submitted)



# Study: LDL and the gender star

## word-level certainty

- both GM and GST become more certain with frequency
- GST consistently more certain than GM
- LDL predicts GST semantics reliably once frequency is sufficient

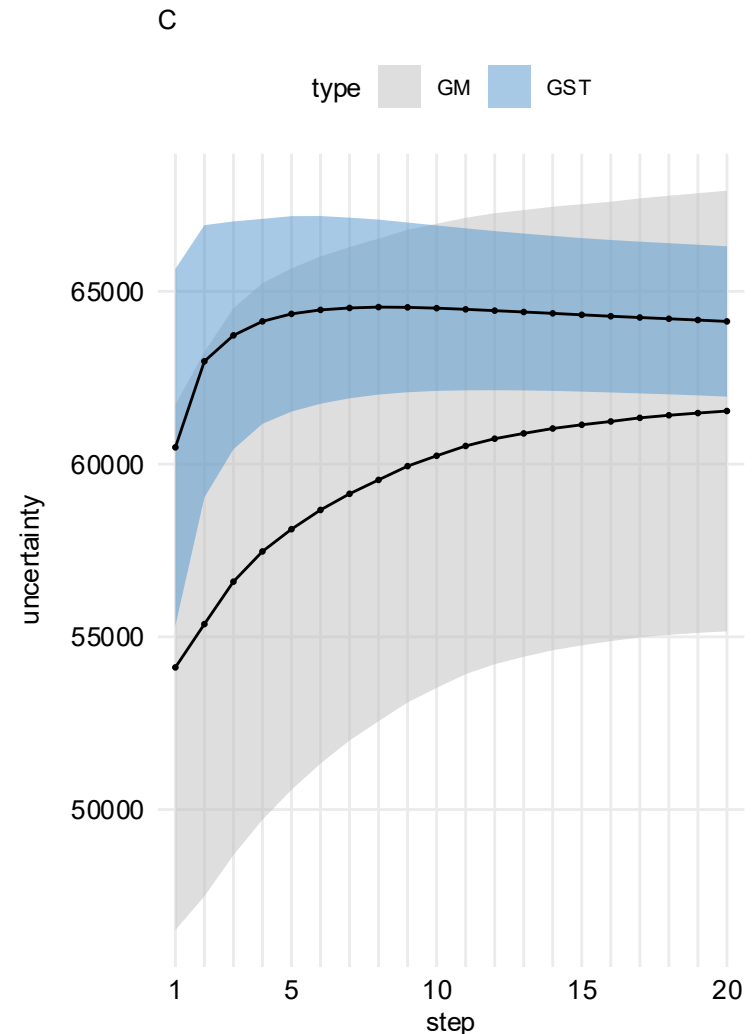


Schmitz (submitted)

# Study: LDL and the gender star

## lexicon-level uncertainty

- both GM and GST show high uncertainty values
- GST has higher lexicon-level uncertainty than GM, especially in early steps, then plateau/slight decrease
- GST sits in a densely populated semantic region (many near neighbours)



Schmitz (submitted)

## Study: LDL and the gender star

- what do these findings mean for actual language use and processing?
- let's re-analyse some psycholinguistic studies!
  - Körner et al. (2022): continuation judgement RTs,
  - Kurz & Mulder (2023): exemplar retrieval,
  - Schunack & Binanzer (2022): perceived gender ratios
- idea: replace simple categorical predictor type (GM vs GST) with LDL measures (coactivation, certainty, uncertainty)
- result: LDL measures, esp. coactivation, meaningfully account for patterns like
  - slower RTs for male continuations after GST,
  - increased proportion of female exemplars with GST,
  - higher estimated female ratios for GST paradigms

**Study: ???**



## Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

- previous research found durational differences conditioned by morphologically different but phonologically identical elements

- homophonous free and bound (pseudo-)stems (e.g. Seyfarth et al. 2017)

*frees* vs. *freeze*

- homophonous prefixes (e.g. Ben Hedia & Plag 2017)

*impossible* vs. *implant* (negative vs. locative)

- types of /s/ (e.g. Plag et al. 2017, Schmitz et al. 2021)

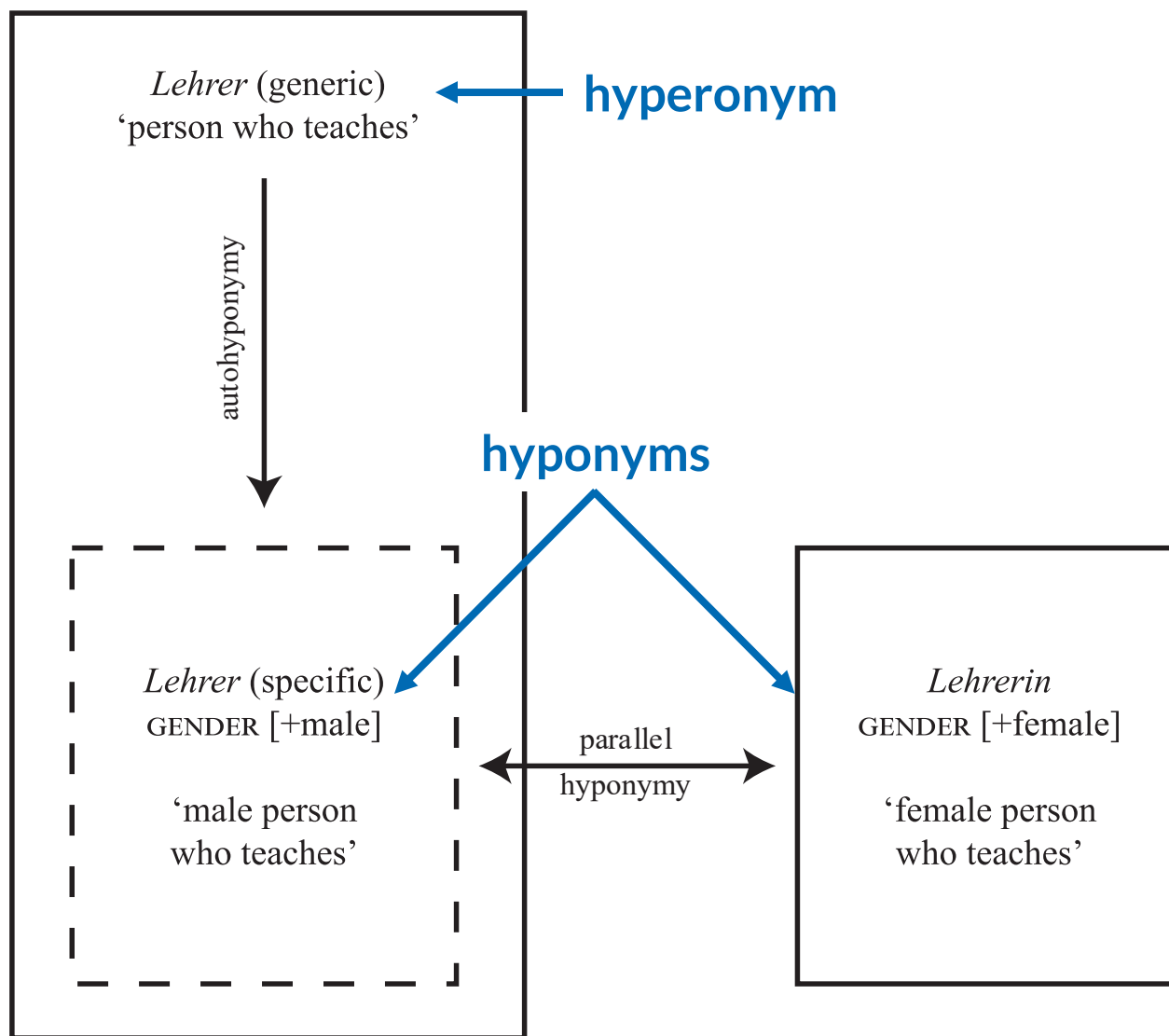
*bus* vs. *cats* vs. *cat's* (non-morphemic vs. suffix vs. clitic)

- homophonous forms show differences in their phonetic realisation

## Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

- according to prominent linguistic theories, morphology and phonetics are strangers (e.g. Levelt et al. 1999, Chomsky & Halle 1968) – just as semantics and phonetics are
- but: we just heard of counterevidence for the connection of morphology and phonetics via homophonous elements
- so, what about another type of lexical ambiguity: polysemy?

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon



# Study: Masculines, /ɐ/, and the mental lexicon

## Items

- **targets:** 20 role nouns ending in the -er suffix, i.e. /ɐ/

### stereotypically female (Misersky et al., 2014)

<i>Balletttänzer</i> 'ballet dancer'	<i>Eiskunstläufer</i> 'ice skater'	<i>Flugbegleiter</i> 'flight attendant'	<i>Geburtshelfer</i> 'obstetrician'	<i>Haushälter</i> 'housekeeper'
<i>Hellseher</i> 'clairvoyant'	<i>Kosmetiker</i> 'beautician'	<i>Pfleger</i> 'carer'	<i>Schneider</i> 'tailor'	<i>Verkäufer</i> 'salesperson'

### stereotypically male

<i>Bauarbeiter</i> 'construction worker'	<i>Elektriker</i> 'electrician'	<i>Fußballspieler</i> 'football player'	<i>Kranführer</i> 'crane operator'	<i>Maurer</i> 'mason'
<i>Programmierer</i> 'programmer'	<i>Rennfahrer</i> 'race driver'	<i>Reporter</i> 'reporter'	<i>Schreiner</i> 'carpenter'	<i>Wahrsager</i> 'fortuneteller'

- **fillers**
  - feminine forms of target items, e.g. *Balletttänzerin*, *Bauarbeiterin*
  - used with female referents only



# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Contexts - Reading Task

1. phrase or sentence introducing the referent
2. phrase or sentence containing the target item

specific

**Matteos Vater** kann richtig gut nähen. **Er** ist **Schneider** von Beruf.

'Matteo's father is really good at sewing. **He** is a **tailor** by profession.'

generic,

**Mein Kind** kann richtig gut nähen. **Es** ist **Schneider** von Beruf.

gender unspecified

'**My child** is really good at sewing. **It** is a **tailor** by profession.'

generic,

**Marias Mutter** kann richtig gut nähen. **Sie** ist **Schneider** von Beruf.

gender specified

'**Maria's mother** is really good at sewing. **She** is a **tailor** by profession.'

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Participants - Reading Task

- 40 participants
- L1 German
- age: mean 29.1 years, range: 20 – 64 years

## Procedure - Reading Task

- 1 set of context and target phrase/sentence per trial
- instructions: read quietly before reading aloud
- self-paced

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Reading Task

**Matteos Vater kann richtig gut nähen.  
Er ist Schneider von Beruf.**

Ton aufnehmen

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Contexts - Recall Task

1. sentence introducing the referent
2. sentence introducing the referent's occupation
3. question about the referent's occupation

specific

*Das ist Lasse. Lasse ist **Pfleger** im Hospiz. Was ist Lasse?*  
'This is Lasse. Lasse is a **nurse** at the hospice. What is Lasse?'

generic

*Das ist Lisa. Lisa ist **Pfleger** im Hospiz. Was ist Lisa?*  
'This is Lisa. Lisa is a **nurse** at the hospice. What is Lisa?'

feminine

*Das ist Lisa. Lisa ist **Pflegerin** im Hospiz. Was ist Lisa?*  
'This is Lisa. Lisa is a **nurse** at the hospice. What is Lisa?'

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Participants - Recall Task

- 210 participants
- L1 German
- age: mean 42.3 years, range: 22 – 64 years

## Procedure - Recall Task

- 1 context per trial
- instructions: read quietly, then answer the question
- self-paced

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Recall Task



**Das ist Iva.  
Iva ist Balletttänzer beim städtischen  
Theater.**

Weiter

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Recall Task

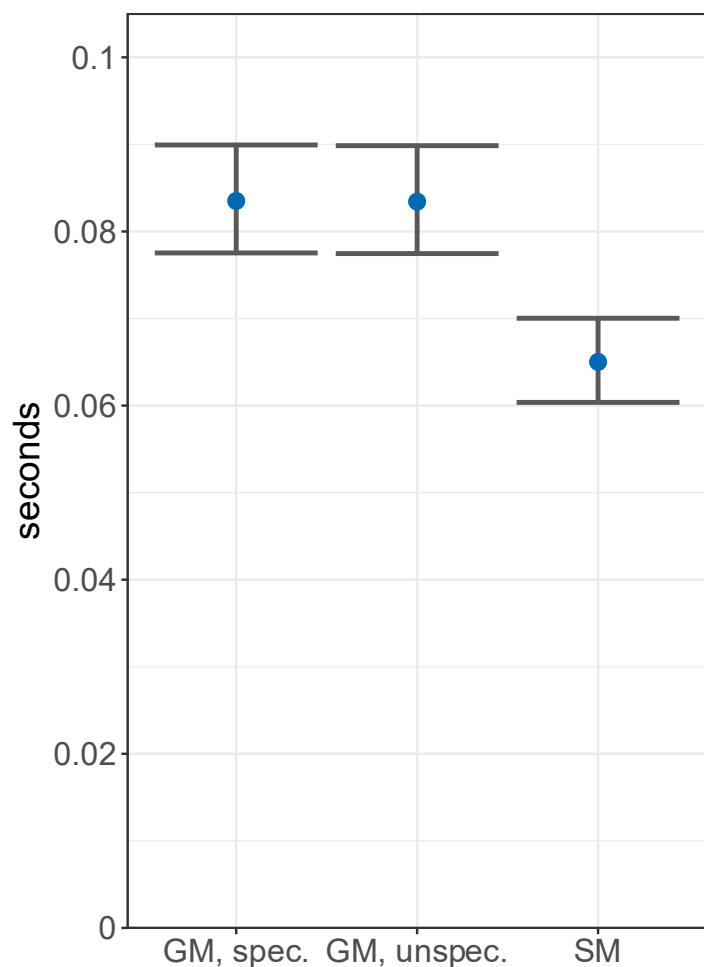


Was ist Iva?

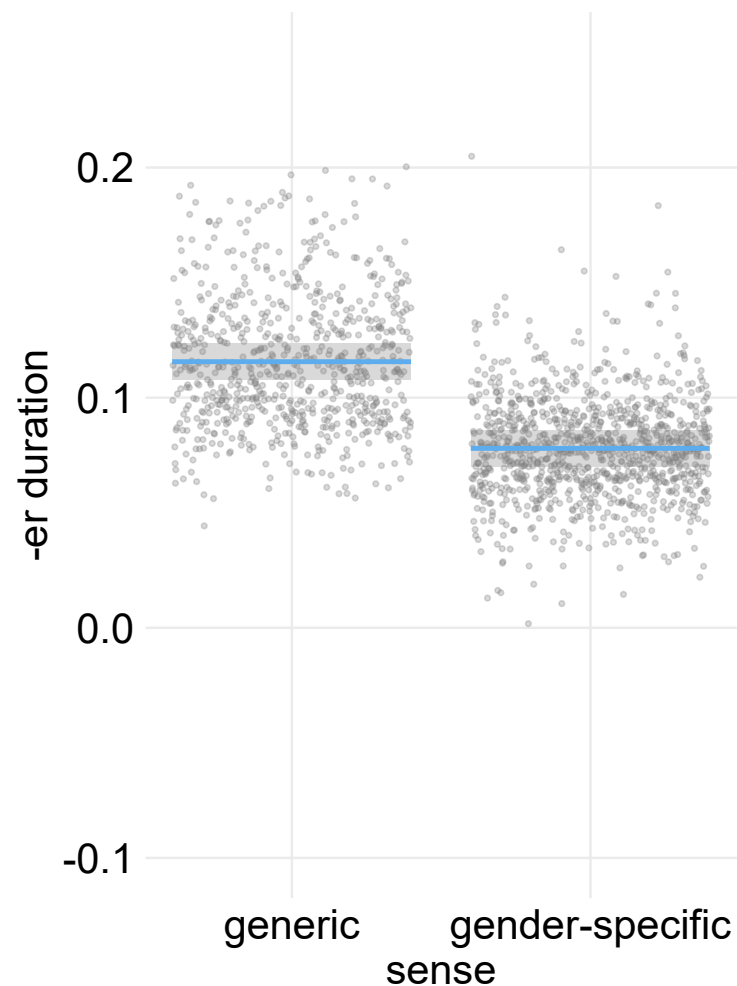
Ton aufnehmen

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## Reading Task



## Recall Task



Schmitz (in prep.)



## Study: Masculines, /ɐ/, and the mental lexicon

### the crucial question

**Why is a generic masculine /ɐ/ longer  
than a specific masculine /ɐ/?**

# Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

## C matrix

- phonological trigrams used as form cues

## S matrix

- context-informed vectors from BERT, an LLM

## mappings

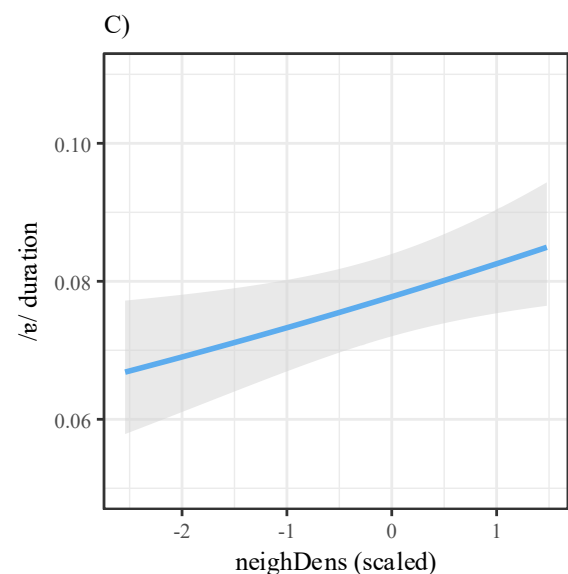
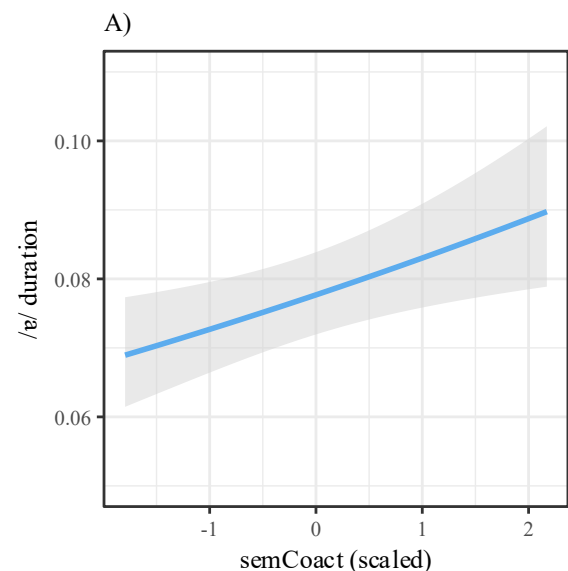
- comprehension: form  $\rightarrow$  meaning
- production: meaning  $\rightarrow$  form

## idea

- can LDL derived measures on semantics and form predict /ə/ duration?

## Study: Masculines, /e/, and the mental lexicon

- in both tasks, measures derived from the LDL model explain the duration of /e/
- for example, in the **reading** data, generic masculines come with higher levels of semantic co-activation and denser neighbourhoods
- higher values of semantic co-activation and denser neighbourhoods, in turn, come with longer /e/ durations
- this is in line with the analysis independent of LDL, in which generic masculines show longer /e/ durations



Schmitz (in prep.)

## Study: Masculines, /ə/, and the mental lexicon

- generic and gender-specific masculines differ systematically in word-final /ə/ duration across tasks
- LDL measures show why: generic senses produce broader semantic activation and denser semantic neighbourhoods → longer duration
- semantic structure does not stay abstract: it shapes the phonetic signal
- the mental lexicon is not symbolic storage: it is a predictive, discriminative system
- polysemy is not just cognitive - it's acoustically real

# Bringing things together

- **semantic level**

- distributional semantics shows  $GM \approx SM \neq SF$
- gender star forms carve out new positions in vector space

- **lexical-discriminative level**

- LDL explains similarity patterns, learning trajectories, and processing variance
- novel morphology integrates through cue-based mapping

- **acoustic level**

- competing senses (generic vs specific) produce measurable differences in word-final /ə/ duration
- lexical ambiguity → phonetic consequences

**THANK YOU!**

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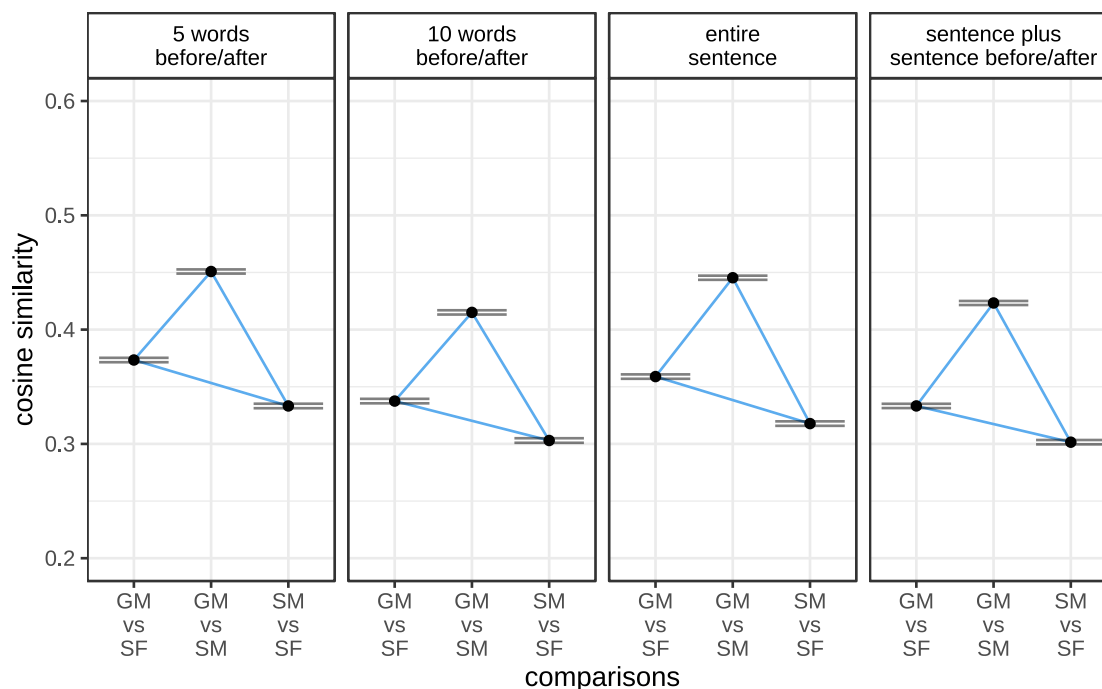


## LLMs: using BERT to model generic masculines

- Large language models (e.g. GPT2, BERT, etc.) provide contextualised token embeddings
- Each token receives a vector that already integrates
  - its local morphosyntax,
  - its sentence semantics,
  - broader discourse context
- LLMs do not require us to specify genericity for the model
  - Those distinctions (if present) must emerge from the context itself
  - This eliminates the asymmetry: all tokens receive equally rich contextual representations

# LLMs: using BERT to model generic masculines

- Even with rich discourse context, generic masculines remain semantically closest to specific masculines
- Context might enlarge semantic distinction overall, but does not selectively pull generic masculine toward a gender-neutral meaning



Schmitz et al. (submitted)