

Text-mining *forma mentis* networks reconstruct public perception of the STEM gender gap in social media

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Mindset reconstruction maps how individuals structure and perceive knowledge, a map unfolded here by investigating language and its cognitive reflection in the human mind, i.e. the mental lexicon. *Textual forma mentis networks* (TFMN) are glass boxes introduced for extracting, representing and understanding mindsets' structure, in Latin *forma mentis*, from textual data. Combining network science, psycholinguistics and Big Data, TFMNs successfully identified relevant concepts, without supervision, in benchmark texts. Once validated, TFMNs were applied to the case study of the gender gap in science, which was strongly linked to distorted mindsets by recent Big Data Analytics studies. Focusing over social media perception and online discourse, this work analysed 10,000 relevant tweets. "Gender" and "gap" elicited a mostly positive perception, with a trustful/joyous emotional profile and semantic associates that: celebrated successful female scientists, related gender gap to wage differences, and hoped for a future resolution. The perception of "woman" highlighted discussion about sexual harassment and stereotype threat (a form of implicit cognitive bias) relative to women in science "sacrificing personal skills for success". The reconstructed perception of "man" highlighted social users' awareness of the myth of male superiority in science. No anger was detected around "person", suggesting that gap-focused discourse got less tense around genderless terms. No stereotypical perception of "scientist" was identified online, differently from real-world surveys. This analysis thus identified Twitter discourse as promoting a mostly stereotype-free, positive/trustful perception of gender disparity, of relevance for closing the gap. TFMNs enable new ways for monitoring online mindsets emerging from user-generated content, offering detailed data-informed ground for policy making.

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9 ABSTRACT

10 Mindset reconstruction maps how individuals structure and perceive knowledge, a map unfolded here by
11 investigating language and its cognitive reflection in the human mind, i.e. the mental lexicon. *Textual*
12 *forma mentis networks* (TFMN) are glass boxes introduced for extracting, representing and understanding
13 mindsets' structure, in Latin *forma mentis*, from textual data. Combining network science, psycholinguistics
14 and Big Data, TFMNs successfully identified relevant concepts, without supervision, in benchmark
15 texts. Once validated, TFMNs were applied to the case study of the gender gap in science, which
16 was strongly linked to distorted mindsets by recent Big Data Analytics studies. Focusing over social
17 media perception and online discourse, this work analysed 10,000 relevant tweets. "Gender" and "gap"
18 elicited a mostly positive perception, with a trustful/joyous emotional profile and semantic associates
19 that: celebrated successful female scientists, related gender gap to wage differences, and hoped for
20 a future resolution. The perception of "woman" highlighted discussion about sexual harassment and
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22 for success". The reconstructed perception of "man" highlighted social users' awareness of the myth
23 of male superiority in science. No anger was detected around "person", suggesting that gap-focused
24 discourse got less tense around genderless terms. No stereotypical perception of "scientist" was identified
25 online, differently from real-world surveys. This analysis thus identified Twitter discourse as promoting a
26 mostly stereotype-free, positive/trustful perception of gender disparity, of relevance for closing the gap.
27 TFMNs enable new ways for monitoring online mindsets emerging from user-generated content, offering
28 detailed data-informed ground for policy making.

29 INTRODUCTION

30 Perception is in the mind of the beholder. Every experience contributes to building a memory or mental
31 reconstruction of the outer world which, in turn, deeply impacts future behaviour (Malt et al., 2010;
32 Aitchison, 2012; Beasley and Mason, 2015; Seli et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). Negative perceptions
33 can inhibit efficient learning (Chavatzia, 2017) or drastically alter information processing (Shapiro
34 and Williams, 2012), while positive perceptions can contribute to the acceptance and establishment of
35 social norms (Malt et al., 2010; Welles and González-Bailón, 2020; Waterloo et al., 2018). In this way,
36 reconstructing and understanding the cognitive perceptions of social groups is key to achieving insights
37 about human behaviour and social patterns.

38 Discovering the perception of a given audience is a challenge that can be broken mainly in two parts:
39 (i) acquiring cognitive data, reflecting how the public perceives a certain phenomenon, and (ii) processing
40 such data in an efficient way, suitable for the extraction of new knowledge (de Arruda et al., 2019). Data
41 can be gathered by mining social media (Stella et al., 2018b; Bovet et al., 2018), which represent an
42 invaluable source of information about the users' experiences and perceptions of specific topics (Welles
43 and González-Bailón, 2020). Recently, social media, Twitter in particular (Jansen et al., 2009), have
44 been increasingly analysed by the scientific community in order to detect complex phenomena such
45 as the emotional dynamics of voting events (Stella et al., 2018b; Bovet et al., 2018), the promotion of

46 self-branding and journalistic content also through social bots (Varol and Uluturk, 2020), the spread of
47 disinformation (Pierri et al., 2020) and the fostering of online hate dissemination (Waqas et al., 2019).

48 **Towards a cognitive approach to information processing**

49 Although Twitter messages provide several types of information, such as visual cues (e.g., pictures
50 and videos) or multi-language cues (e.g., emojis and hashtags), their nature is mainly textual (Welles
51 and González-Bailón, 2020; Jansen et al., 2009). In this way, the problem of quantifying how an
52 audience perceives a given topic can be related to stance detection from their tweets (Mohammad, 2016).
53 Approaching stance detection by human coding becomes quickly intractable when faced with the large
54 volumes of messages exchanged daily on the Twittersphere. This limitation leads to the above need
55 for developing and adopting efficient techniques for knowledge extraction from massive amounts of
56 text as exchanged on social media. Given the extraordinary possibility for humans to communicate
57 their mental constructs through language (Aitchison, 2012), a key way of detecting perceptions is
58 through communication. Both in computer science and linguistics, the problem of detecting positive
59 or negative perceptions from language is known as *stance detection* (Mohammad, 2016). Rather than
60 focusing on language in itself, this work shifts the attention to the cognitive reflection of language
61 in the human mind, in the so-called *mental lexicon* (Malt et al., 2010; Aitchison, 2012; Dóczy, 2019;
62 De Deyne et al., 2019). Such lexicon includes semantic memory, a well-studied repository of conceptual
63 meanings and word features (Kenett et al., 2017; Dóczy, 2019), an also other memory supports storing
64 syntactic/phonological/orthographic and even affective knowledge, together with other aspects of language
65 (Dóczy, 2019). Whereas syntax, phonology and orthography express word-level conceptual knowledge
66 (Aitchison, 2012), affective knowledge links concepts to the emotions they elicit (Malt et al., 2010) and
67 therefore it represents an important component of any stance/perception.

68 Harnessing the complex cognitive structure of the mental lexicon means accessing how conceptual
69 knowledge is structured and emotionally perceived by individuals as the outcome of their previous
70 experiences and current attitudes (Aitchison, 2012; Stella et al., 2019; Stella, 2020). In other words,
71 accessing the conceptual and affective representation of knowledge in the mental lexicon means reading
72 minds(ets), with strong repercussions for information processing. Discovering how an audience perceives
73 a given topic, i.e. performing mindset reconstruction, can provide crucial knowledge for understanding
74 and intervening upon specific trends (Welles and González-Bailón, 2020; Amancio et al., 2012; Stella
75 et al., 2019). An example is represented by the finding that mindsets vehiculating positive emotions reach
76 larger audiences on social media whereas negative emotional content can spread at faster rates (Ferrara
77 and Yang, 2015). Another example for the relevance of mindset reconstruction is uncovering and acting
78 upon traces of science anxiety in student populations in order to improve their learning experiences (Stella,
79 2020; Stella and Zaytseva, 2020) or detecting sexual harassment through large-scale web surveys (Karami
80 et al., 2020).

81 A key area where mindset reconstruction is particularly promising is understanding the sources and
82 dynamics of the *gender gap in science* (Hogue and Lord, 2007; Moss-Racusin et al., 2012).

83 As outlined by recent Big Data Analytics studies considering decades of scientific careers (Huang
84 et al., 2020; Odic and Wojcik, 2019; Chavatzia, 2017), gender disparities in science cannot be explained by
85 intrinsic differences in attitudes to science between genders but rather have to be traced in the establishment
86 of implicit gender biases promoted by news media and social media representations of science (Shapiro
87 and Williams, 2012; Moss-Racusin et al., 2012; Madsen and Andrade, 2018; Steinke, 2017). In this way,
88 the reconstruction of mindsets vehiculated by information systems becomes a key point for understanding,
89 acting upon and closing the gender gap in science. Given the recency of the above mentioned Big Data
90 Analytics studies and the methodological issues in reconstructing mindsets with black-box machine
91 learning techniques (often neglecting contextual information (Nasar et al., 2019)), reconstructing online
92 perceptions of the gender gap in social media is a challenge not fully explored yet.

93 **Research aim**

94 This work introduces textual forma mentis networks (TFMNs) as quantitative tools for reconstructing
95 the mindset of online users engaging in social discourse with the research aim of investigating in detail
96 the mindset emerging from user-generated content about the gender gap in science. In other words, this
97 work uses textual forma mentis networks with the aim of reconstructing how online users discussed and
98 perceived messages revolving around the STEM gender gap. In order to mirror the general perception of
99 this gap, a window without special events about women in science was chosen. TFMNs quantified the

100 general stance from 10,000 tweets publicly available on Twitter, produced between October 8 2019 and
101 October 22 2019, containing the words or hashtags “science” or “stem” and “women” or “gendergap”.
102 These tweets encapsulated information about how the online authors perceived women in science, with
103 relevant impact for education research and the computational social sciences.

104 Before providing additional details about the adopted methodology, it is necessary to compare TFMNs
105 against past approaches, also relating forma mentis networks within the relevant literature about the
106 gender gap in science.

107 **Literature review on relevant past approaches**

108 It has to be underlined that only recently automatic text-mining studies started investigating gender gap
109 in online discourses (Teso et al., 2018; Chavatzia, 2017). However, these approaches mainly focused
110 on detecting differences in language use *among* different genders. Differently from other information
111 processing investigations aiming at identifying emotions on social media in relation to phenomena like
112 hateful speeches (Waqas et al., 2019) or disinformation spreading (Pierri et al., 2020), gender-focused
113 investigations of social media did not explore large-scale mappings of the online perception of the gender
114 gap in science as embedded in the messages exchanged between social users of any gender. Within an
115 information management setting, the work closest to an investigation of the overall mindset about gender
116 biases was the study by Karami and colleagues (Karami et al., 2020). The authors investigated online
117 self-reports of sexual harassment experiences and through a topic analysis they highlighted evidence for
118 sexual harassment in academia mainly targeting women and involving coercion, gender discrimination
119 and retaliation. Building upon the knowledge extraction approach of Karami et al. (Karami et al., 2020),
120 this study shifts its attention from explicit sexual harassment to the larger topic of gender biases in science,
121 which includes harassment itself but also implicit biases (Shapiro and Williams, 2012), gender pay gaps
122 (Courey and Heywood, 2018) and stereotypical perceptions about leadership (Pennington et al., 2016;
123 Ely et al., 2011). Furthermore, rather than focusing on self-reports, this study aims at tackling a different
124 information system, namely Twitter, where social users can engage in social discourse and reach large
125 audiences (Welles and González-Bailón, 2020). This reconstruction of social media attitudes about the
126 gender gap in science is the main gap that the current work aims to fulfil by using a network-powered
127 approach, which has several similarities and novelties in comparison to past network frameworks.

128 Within the literature of network-powered analyses of large volumes of text (de Arruda et al., 2019),
129 previous works successfully used word co-occurrences in text (e.g. “like” and “stem” occurring one after
130 the other in text, cf. (Cancho and Solé, 2001)) in order to characterise language content through average
131 statistical markers (Amancio et al., 2012; Amancio, 2015) or time-evolving dynamics (Akimushkin et al.,
132 2017). These networks were considerably powerful at a global level and very successful in tasks like
133 author identification (Amancio, 2015; Akimushkin et al., 2017; de Arruda et al., 2019). However, the
134 validity of co-occurrence networks as representations of the mental lexicon at the microscopic level
135 of individual conceptual associations has been recently reconsidered (Ninio, 2014; Rizvi, 2018). In
136 fact, co-occurrences can lead to spurious conceptual links, whose influence vanishes in global statistical
137 approaches and that do not represent syntactic similarities in text (Ninio, 2014). In order to overcome
138 this limitation and achieve a more faithful microscopic representation of the mental lexicon, TFMNs
139 directly harness the full ensemble of syntactic associations of a sentence (e.g. “like” being a verb referring
140 to the object “stem”, cf. (i Cancho et al., 2004)) and enrich them by considering also semantic overlap
141 between words (e.g. “appreciate” and “like” being synonyms across different sentences, cfr. (Miller,
142 1998; Amancio et al., 2012)).

143 Textual forma mentis networks automatically extract these conceptual associations from text without
144 requiring human supervision and are therefore suitable for processing large volumes of text. The resulting
145 network structure is informative of the cognitive layout of conceptual associations emerging from a given
146 textual corpus and hence represents how text authors organised, structured and associated microscopically
147 their knowledge around topics and concepts. This makes TFMNs “glass boxes” (Nasar et al., 2019),
148 where the knowledge structure of a certain stance can be accessed and directly read, differently from
149 previous “black box” machine learning approaches which accurately reproduced the positive or negative
150 nature of a stance without providing information on its semantic content (Mohammad, 2016; Teso et al.,
151 2018; Rudkowsky et al., 2018; Nasar et al., 2019). In addition to conceptual associations, TFMNs
152 are endowed also with sentiment labels, indicating the sentiment (Warriner et al., 2013) and the basic
153 emotions (Ekman and Davidson, 1994; Mohammad and Turney, 2013) elicited by a given concept in a

154 population of individuals involved in behavioural studies. Sentiment scores of positive/negative affect
155 are also called word valence in psycholinguistics (Warriner et al., 2013; Recchia and Louwerse, 2015)
156 and represent how positively or negatively a given concept was perceived in a behavioural study. Word
157 valence and emotional profiles add more emotional contextual information about the stance reconstructed
158 by conceptual associations (Stella, 2020). Although large-scale datasets about sentiment and emotions
159 have only been recently made available to the scientific community by cognitive studies (Warriner et al.,
160 2013), they have quickly become predominant in predicting a wide variety of human behaviour (Li et al.,
161 2020) and information processing patterns such as consensus formation in social networks (Konstantinidis
162 et al., 2017) or information sharing on microblogs (Ferrara and Yang, 2015). The combination of network
163 patterns and sentiment data is important, as considering only the frequency of sentiment labelled content
164 in short media has been reported to lack interpretative contextual power for estimating how people really
165 feel about a given topic (Beasley and Mason, 2015).

166 **Different types of forma mentis networks**

167 As outlined above, text-based forma mentis networks represent multiplex lexical networks (Stella et al.,
168 2018a) of concepts interconnected through syntactic and semantic associations and enriched with senti-
169 ment and emotional labels. Previous works showed how lexical networks of concepts including multiple
170 layers of associations (i.e. “multiplex”) were better than single-layer complex networks at predicting
171 a variety of cognitive processes involved in information acquisition (Stella et al., 2018a; Stella, 2019)
172 and search (Castro and Stella, 2019; Siew et al., 2019). However, these approaches did not explore the
173 influence that emotions and sentiment can have over information processing (Warriner et al., 2013; Dóczy,
174 2019; Rudkowsky et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). The introduction of behavioural forma mentis networks
175 (BFMNs) (Stella et al., 2019; Stella and Zaytseva, 2020) tackled such gap by combining conceptual
176 associations with sentiment scores and providing access to knowledge structure and positive/negative
177 perceptions of concepts in a given mindset. However, BFMNs’ mindset reconstruction comes at the cost
178 of involving individuals in a cognitive experiment (cf. (Stella et al., 2019)). This limitation translates into
179 the possibility of reconstructing only the mindsets of those who participated in the experiment, preventing
180 access or monitoring of remote systems like social media. Textual forma mentis networks do not require
181 behavioural experiments but can rather be built starting from any written text. As a consequence, TFMNs
182 are suitable for the investigation of speech over online platforms, whereas BFMNs are unsuitable for such
183 task. However, as outlined above, both the representations exploit the theoretical framework of mental
184 lexicon representations (Dóczy, 2019) and language processing in cognitive network science (Siew et al.,
185 2019). Thanks to such foundations, TFMNs are applied here for reconstructing the mindset of online
186 discourse about the gender gap in science, as motivated in the next subsection.

187 **Recent literature identifies a link between the gender gap and distorted mindsets**

188 Overwhelming evidence indicates that the gender gap in science is a complex phenomenon deeply
189 affecting society, economics and science advancement (Ely et al., 2011; Madsen and Andrade, 2018;
190 Hogue and Lord, 2007; Pietri et al., 2018). The gender gap in the scientific, technological, engineering
191 and mathematical (STEM) disciplines is a disparity of how different genders enter in and progress
192 through a career in science (Shapiro and Williams, 2012). Between 2014 and 2016, UNESCO estimated
193 only around 30% of all female students in higher education enrolled in STEM-related fields of study
194 at University level (Chavatzia, 2017). This gender gap in STEM education and participation is almost
195 absent at the level of primary education but then becomes particularly apparent during upper secondary
196 education, coincidentally with subject selection, and it gets worse at higher levels of education (Ely et al.,
197 2011; Chavatzia, 2017; Hogue and Lord, 2007). Globally, only 28% of all the world’s researchers are
198 women. This disparity is deeply embedded in educational systems, in particular in terms of attitudes and
199 perceptions towards science (Shapiro and Williams, 2012; Hogue and Lord, 2007; Huang et al., 2020).
200 The PISA 2015 report *Excellence in Education* reported that across 35 OECD countries, only 22% of
201 15-years old girls intend to pursue a career in STEM, less than half the proportion (48%) of STEM driven
202 15-years old boys (cf. (Chavatzia, 2017)). In the last few years, a great attention has been devoted to
203 explaining such gap by using either external, e.g. system embedded discrimination (Chavatzia, 2017; Ely
204 et al., 2011), or internal factors, e.g. implicit stereotypes (Shapiro and Williams, 2012; Pietri et al., 2018).
205 Studies trying to explain gender gap through gender-based learning achievements reported a complex
206 landscape, with boys and girls being more or less proficient than each other according to the task being
207 measured (cf. (Chavatzia, 2017)). This complex mosaic of multiple findings makes it complicated to state

208 that any gender is more or less advanced in any given STEM subject: the gender gap has to be rooted in
209 more subtle forms of discrimination, stereotypes and perceptions (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012; Lane et al.,
210 2012). Despite this fragmentation, the data unanimously indicate that women are paid less and leave
211 STEM careers way more than their male colleagues either at University level or at subsequent stages of
212 professional growth in science (Courey and Heywood, 2018).

213 Even professional impact in STEM is influenced by a strong gender gap. The recent longitudinal
214 study by Huang and colleagues (Huang et al., 2020) considered professional impact of women in STEM
215 through bibliographic Big Data spanning over 60 years of publications. The authors reported evidence
216 for gender differences in the cumulative productivity of research output but not in the annual rate of
217 publication or career-wise impact. Through a quantitative, longitudinal analysis, Huang and colleagues
218 related such gender gap to dropout rates and differences in length of publishing careers between men
219 and women. The authors could not explain such disproportion only in terms of intrinsic gender-based
220 proficiency in STEM, thus providing additional large-scale evidence for the presence of strong contextual
221 factors affecting everyone's experience of the STEM gender gap. Analogous differences through Big Data
222 approaches were recently found also by Odic and Wojcik in psychology, a field where 3 in 4 students are
223 women whereas 3 in 4 academic professionals are male (Odic and Wojcik, 2019).

224 **The need to expose distorted mindsets about the gender gap in information systems**

225 The predominance of strong academic biases in contrast with educational patterns suggests the presence
226 of hidden roots to the STEM gender gap, as indicated by several independent studies on the topic
227 (Pennington et al., 2016; Shapiro and Williams, 2012; Pietri et al., 2018). Hence, understanding the
228 overall experience and subsequent perception of this gender gap in a large audience can provide key
229 elements for better detecting the presence of potentially subtle yet strong *gender-based stereotypes*, as
230 perceived and communicated by the main actors of STEM. Given that most of these stereotypes can act at
231 a subconscious level and take place without the explicit awareness of those perpetrating them (Pennington
232 et al., 2016; Madsen and Andrade, 2018; Lane et al., 2012), detecting the presence of such distorted
233 perceptions remains a difficult challenge.

234 Monitoring and detecting the diffusion of stereotypical endorsements in social media represents an
235 important way of better understanding and countering gender discrimination in science (Karami et al.,
236 2020), especially in the current society dominated by virtual social media (Welles and González-Bailón,
237 2020; Jansen et al., 2009).

238 **Manuscript organisation**

239 This manuscript is organised in several subsections. The Methods section contains quantitative details
240 about the implemented methodology and analysed data. The Results section is split in two subsections.
241 The first part is a quantitative benchmark, reporting on the effectiveness for TFMNs in finding semantically
242 relevant concepts and topic features in short texts annotated by authors. The second part explores the
243 reconstructed mindset of online users towards the gender gap by considering the stance towards key
244 domains and aspects of the gender gap, e.g. concepts like “woman”, “man”, “person”, “scientist”, and
245 related aspects, e.g. “gender”, “gap” and “stem”. The detected conceptual associations and emotional
246 patterns are investigated and related with previous studies within the Discussion section.

247 **METHODS**

248 This section introduces the following elements: (i) the dataset about the online perception of the gender
249 gap in STEM as retrieved from Twitter, (ii) the methodology behind the construction of text-based forma
250 mentis networks, and (iii) the cognitive data used for detecting conceptual overlap in meaning between
251 words and their valence. This section also reports on the benchmark data used for testing TFMNs, namely
252 the text “Complexity Explained” (<https://complexityexplained.github.io/> - Last Accessed: 16/03/2020)
253 and the behavioural forma mentis network of international STEM researchers analysed in (Stella et al.,
254 2019) and (Stella, 2020).

255 **Twitter dataset**

256 The main dataset used in this investigation was a collection of 10384 tweets publicly available on
257 Twitter and produced between October 8 2019 and October 22 2019. Tweets were gathered through the
258 `ServiceConnect[]` function for Twitter crawling implemented in Mathematica 11. Crawling was performed

259 in accordance with Twitter’s policies via the account of Complex Science Consulting, which received
260 authorisation by Twitter for research-focused text mining. Tweets were included in the dataset if they
261 contained either the hashtags (or the words) “#science” or “#stem” and “#women” or “#gendergap”.
262 Twitter’s policy prevents the redistribution of these tweets outside of the Twitter platform. Nonetheless,
263 for the sake of scientific reproducibility, the IDs of these tweets were attached to this manuscript as
264 Supplementary Information.

265 Each tweet contained a short text. Pictures and emoticons were discarded. Hashtag characters were
266 removed. Tweets with less than three words were not included in the analysis but constituted less than 1%
267 of the whole dataset.

268 **Network construction**

269 Text-based formal networks were built in three different stages:

- 270 1. Extraction of syntactic relationships between concepts/words from a sentence;
- 271 2. Addition of semantic relationships (synonyms) between concepts as indicated by an external dataset;
- 272 3. Addition of valence labels (“positive”, “negative”, “neutral”) to each single concept as indicated by
273 another external dataset.

274 The above three steps were repeated for all the sentences in a given tweet. At the end, all connections
275 between the extracted and labelled concepts formed a multiplex lexical network (Stella et al., 2018a)
276 where nodes represented words/concepts and were connected across multiple linguistic layers, namely: (i)
277 a semantic layer indicating meaning overlap between words (e.g., “famous” and “notable” sharing the
278 same meaning), and (ii) a syntactic layer indicating dependencies in meanings as encapsulated within a
279 sentence. In general, syntactic structure defines how entities (e.g. nouns) are specified in a given sentence
280 through verbs, determiners, prepositions, adjectives and adverbs (i Cancho et al., 2004). Although more
281 or less convoluted syntactic structures can be encoded in sentences, the simplest form of the syntactical
282 dependencies is a subject being specified as an object. For instance, in the sentence “love is weakness”,
283 “love” is specified as “weakness” through the verb “is”. The verb “is” does not encapsulate any intrinsic
284 meaning but it can be replaced by a link between “love” and “weakness”. Syntactic dependencies can be
285 more general, for instance in the sentence “the cat sat on the chair” the nominal subject “cat” is linked to
286 the prepositional object “chair” through the verb “to sit”, which retains some meaning. The determiner
287 “the” and the preposition “on” do not retain meaning by themselves but connect the other parts of speech
288 and are thus essential for extracting syntactic dependencies. The specification of such dependencies was
289 implemented through the *TextStructure[]* command in Mathematica 11, which produces all syntactic
290 relationships between the parts of speech of a given sentence. From the resulting network of directed
291 dependencies, prepositions and auxiliary verbs were removed as nodes and replaced by syntactic links. In
292 order to avoid the inflection of lemmas with the same meaning, i.e. having “weak” and “weakness” in the
293 same network, word stemming was performed at the network level.

294 After the extraction of syntactic dependencies, the resulting syntactic network identified a set of
295 connected, stemmed concepts. Syntactic structure can be informative about conceptual links in the mental
296 lexicon and be predictive of language learning and processing (i Cancho et al., 2004; Stella et al., 2018a).
297 However, syntactic dependencies neglect the possibility of using and exchanging synonyms in the same
298 syntactic structure providing the same meaning (e.g. saying “he has a quiet character” conveys the same
299 meaning of saying “he has a quiet nature”). In order to account also for meaning overlap, the syntactic
300 structure was enriched with synonym relationships from WordNet 3.0 (Miller, 1998), as implemented in
301 the curated repository *WordData[]* available in Mathematica 11. Meaning overlap between concepts is
302 also representative of semantic memory patterns in the mental lexicon, with previous works showing how
303 synonym networks can predict language learning and facilitate conceptual navigation (Stella et al., 2018a;
304 Siew et al., 2019).

305 After the construction of the network layers of syntactic relationships and of synonyms, every concept
306 was connected either by syntactic or semantic links. From the affective mega-study of Warriner and
307 colleagues (Warriner et al., 2013), each concept was endowed with a valence label, e.g. “positive”,
308 “neutral” or “negative”. These labels represented the average valence attributed to each concept by a
309 population of individuals involved in a large-scale behavioural study rating more than 13,900 English
310 words (Warriner et al., 2013). Words were classified as positive, neutral or negative, respectively, according

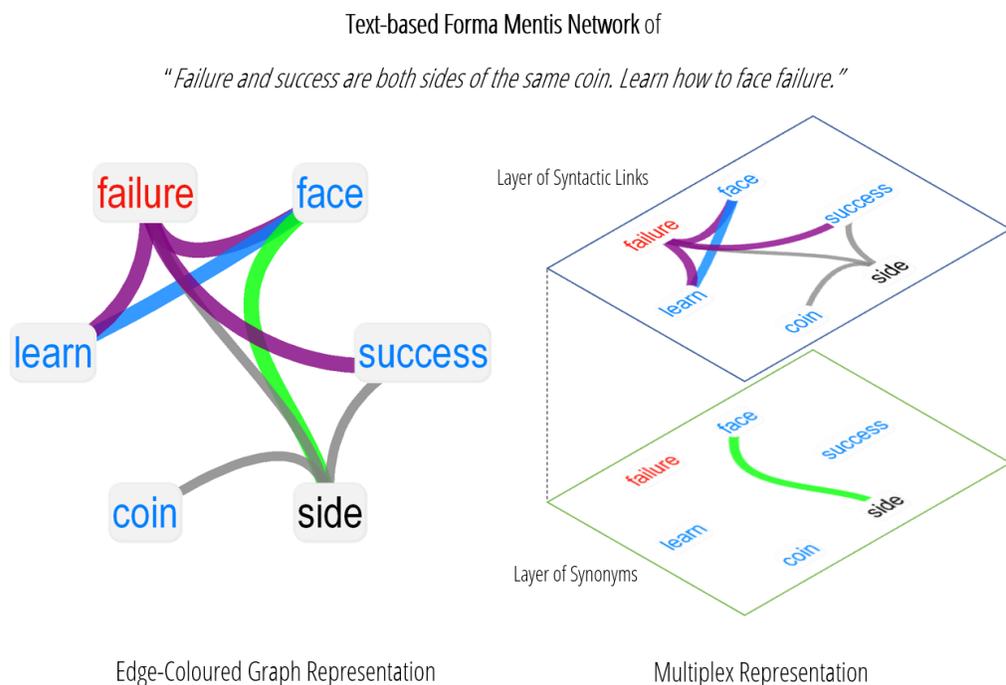


Figure 1. Example of a text-based forma mentis network. A TFMN can be represented either as an edge-coloured graph (left) or as a multiplex network (right). Positive (negative) words are highlighted in cyan (red). Syntactic links between positive (negative) words are highlighted in cyan (red) too. Syntactic links between positive and negative concepts are in purple. All semantic links of meaning overlap are highlighted in green.

311 to their location in the upper quartile (higher valence), interquartile range (neutral valence), or lower
 312 quartile (lower valence) in the distribution of valence scores for over 9000 different word stems. These
 313 valence scores were obtained from averaging over words with the same stemmed root.

314 Figure 1 provides an example of a text-based forma mentis network. A TFMN can be represented
 315 either as an edge-coloured graph or as a multiplex network (Stella et al., 2018a). These two representations
 316 are equivalent and their only purpose is to distinguish between syntactic and semantic links.

317 Additional cognitive data

318 In order to test the power of text-based forma mentis network in identifying relevant concepts in text,
 319 additional cognitive data was used as benchmark. Semantic similarity and relevance of scientific concepts,
 320 as extrapolated from short scientific texts, was investigated and compared against free association data
 321 from the Complex Forma Mentis project (Stella et al., 2019). The benchmark text adopted here was the
 322 booklet "Complexity Explained", co-authored by several researchers in complexity science and composed
 323 of 7 short paragraphs describing one specific concept each (cf. <https://complexityexplained.github.io/>, Last
 324 Accessed: 16/03/2020). The analysed paragraphs were about: "interactions", "emergence", "dynamics",
 325 "self-organisation", "adaptation", "interdisciplinarity" and "methods". The results of such benchmark are
 326 reported at the beginning of the Results section.

327 Emotional profiling

328 Compared to previous approaches using behavioural forma mentis networks (Stella, 2020; Stella and
 329 Zaytseva, 2020; Stella et al., 2019), the current analysis introduces also an emotional profiling of stances
 330 as encapsulated in the reconstructed mindsets. Emotional profiling is defined in terms of considering how
 331 many associates of a concept, in the TFMN, elicit a given emotion. Concepts linked to a negation (e.g.
 332 "not") were transformed into their antonyms, so that both original concepts and their negated meanings
 333 were considered for reconstructing an emotional profile. Considered emotions included:

- 334 • **Anger**, a negative emotion representing reactions of irritation and rage towards an external threat;

- 335 • **Disgust**, a negative emotion indicating aversion and closure;
- 336 • **Fear**, a negative emotion indicating a need to actively avoid and prevent potential threats;
- 337 • **Trust**, a positive emotion indicating openness towards the outer world;
- 338 • **Joy**, a positive emotion of excitement and satisfaction;
- 339 • **Sadness**, a neutral emotion, neither positive nor negative, indicating states of sorrow, thoughtfulness
340 and inhibition;
- 341 • **Surprise**, a neutral emotion relative to being upset or startled by an unexpected event;
- 342 • **Anticipation**, a neutral emotion indicating one's projection into future events, including desire or
343 anxiety.

344 The above constitute basic building blocks of a wide spectrum of emotional states (Ekman and
345 Davidson, 1994). For a more detailed description of emotions, please see (Ekman and Davidson, 1994)
346 and (Mohammad and Turney, 2013). The mega-study by Mohammad and colleagues is also known as the
347 Word-Emotion Association Lexicon, indicating how human participants associated individual concepts to
348 emotional states. In other words, the resulting dataset indicated which emotions were elicited or *evoked*
349 in human subjects reading individual concepts. The study used crowd-sourcing on Mechanical Turk for
350 achieving a large-scale mapping of English words (including 14,000 unique lemmas) and was used also in
351 other successful investigations about affect patterns (cf. (Mohammad and Turney, 2013)).

352 **Cognitive measures of semantic similarity on language networks**

353 This work built networks of conceptual associations between concepts. Several independent studies
354 have reported that on such networks, metrics like network distance are powerful proxies for quantifying
355 semantic relatedness (Kenett et al., 2017; Stella and Zaytseva, 2020). Network distance d_{ij} is defined
356 as the minimum number of links (here conceptual associations) connecting any two words i and j on a
357 network structure (Siew et al., 2019). On multiplex lexical networks, links of any colour/layer can be used
358 (Stella et al., 2018a; Stella, 2019). Measures based on network distance such as closeness centrality have
359 been found to identify also concepts of relevance from a cognitive perspective when detecting key words
360 for word learning (Stella et al., 2018a; Stella, 2019), language processing (Kenett et al., 2017; Siew et al.,
361 2019; Castro and Stella, 2019) and knowledge exploration (Stella and Zaytseva, 2020; Akimushkin et al.,
362 2017; Amancio, 2015). Closeness centrality (Siew et al., 2019) $c(i)$ is attributed to node i by checking
363 how distant it is to its connected neighbours, in formulas:

$$c(i) = \frac{N}{\sum_{j=1}^N d_{ij}}. \quad (1)$$

364 Notice that the above formula applies to fully connected components of a network but does not enable
365 direct comparison of components including different numbers of nodes (e.g. a component including only
366 5 nodes versus a component with 1000 nodes).

367 Forma mentis networks included also structural features of the mental lexicon of individuals combined
368 with affective patterns (Warriner et al., 2013). This unique combination allowed for Stella and colleagues
369 (Stella et al., 2019) to introduce the network metric of *valence auras*, i.e. the mode of valence labels
370 in a given neighbourhood. In (Stella et al., 2019) a word was defined as having a positive (negative)
371 valence aura if mostly linked to positive (negative) words. This measure was used also in the current
372 analysis, although it has to be underlined that in here these affect measures represented how a large-scale
373 population, independent from the one producing the texts, perceived individual concepts. Since valence
374 auras still depended on the connectivity of conceptual associations as assembled by text authors, this
375 metric quantified how groups of these authors structured and perceived their knowledge. In the current
376 analysis, valence auras rather than single-word valence labels were key to reconstructing positive/negative
377 perceptions of individual concepts by checking their conceptual associates in the analysed online discourse.

Table 1. Top-ranked concepts in the TFMNs obtained from the 7 paragraphs of the booklet *Complexity Explained*. The ranking is based on closeness centrality. Every paragraph revolves around one topic, clearly established by the authors and reported here too.

Rank/Topic	<i>Interactions</i>	<i>Emergence</i>	<i>Dynamics</i>	<i>Self-organisation</i>	<i>Adaptation</i>	<i>Interdisciplinarity</i>	<i>Methods</i>
1	component	system	system	pattern	adapt	system	compute
2	interact	property	change	emerge	system	understand	model
3	whole	part	state	may	able	science	method
4	study	component	behaviour	organ	become	complex	mathematics
5	system	whole	point	become	function	use	lead
6	make	sum	show	interact	damage	variety	require
7	difficult	phenomenon	variable	system	evolve	manage	involve
8	part	complex	dynamic	produce	go	domain	analysis
9	new	exhibit	tend	property	may	ecology	forecast
10	consist	deduce	depend	lead	robust	biology	rule

RESULTS

378

379 The main results of this manuscript are twofold. On the one hand, the current analysis provides a
 380 cross-validation of the information revealed by TFMNs through a benchmark on short texts, revolving
 381 around specific topics. Comparison with validated behavioural cognitive data indicates that the structure
 382 of TFMNs captures semantically relevant information about text like topics or conceptual relevance. On
 383 the other hand, the rest of the Results section focuses around reconstructing and analysing a data-driven
 384 picture of the online perception of women in science and the gender gap as reported by online users on
 385 Twitter.

Benchmark of text-based forma mentis networks on short texts

386

387 This subsection reports results of the benchmarking analysis of “Complexity Explained” (see Methods)
 388 through TFMNs. For each of the seven paragraphs of the booklet a TFMN was built. Closeness centrality
 389 was used for identifying the most central concepts in every TFMN and produce rankings of the most
 390 relevant words in each text. Overall, the resulting forma mentis network contained a median of 49
 391 concepts and were fully connected. Table 1 reports the 10 most central words in each network and their
 392 underlying topic.

393

394 Table 1 indicates that, beyond an overall agreement between key concepts and topics, as identified by
 395 TFMNs, the network topology of syntactic/semantic associations identified the most distinctive conceptual
 396 features of topics. For instance, while the ranking for the topic “Interactions” reported mainly concepts
 397 relative to structure (e.g., *component*, *part*, *whole*, *consist*), the ranking of “Dynamics” identified concepts
 398 related to the evolution over time of a system (e.g., *change*, *state*, *behaviour*, *dynamic*). Words expressing
 399 resilience and robustness to attacks, like “damage”, “function”, “evolve”, “adapt” and “robust”, were
 400 found to be central in the textual forma mentis network of “Adaptation”. TFMNs detected “domain” as
 401 being a relevant concept in the “Interdisciplinarity” paragraph. This was expected in a text describing
 402 complexity science as an umbrella for different research areas. The “Methods” paragraph revolved, as
 403 expected, around quantitative concepts, e.g. *forecast*, *compute*, *model*, *method*, *analysis*, *rule*. In the same
 404 paragraph, mathematics was found to be highly relevant, in agreement with the overall necessity of a
 405 mathematical language for investigating complex systems (i Cancho et al., 2004; Siew et al., 2019).

406

407 Although the above qualitative analysis indicated an overall agreement between topics and identified
 408 key concepts, a more quantitative approach was further pursued. With the aim of assessing whether the
 409 identified concepts were more or less semantically related to the topics designed by text authors, free
 410 associations and semantic network distance were adopted. In networks of free associations, nodes/words
 411 are linked if they elicit a quick recall of each other in a behavioural task (De Deyne et al., 2019). Previous
 412 studies have shown how semantic network distance on networks of free associations are a good proxy
 413 of semantic relatedness, superior also to semantic latent analysis (Kenett et al., 2017). Although several
 414 datasets for free associations are available in the literature, this benchmark considered two: the large-scale
 415 Small World of Words gathered by De Deyne and colleagues (De Deyne et al., 2019) and the small-scale
 416 Complex Forma Mentis project gathered by Stella and colleagues (Stella et al., 2019). Many of the
 scientific terms present in Complexity Explained were absent in the Small World of Words but present in
 the STEM free associations provided by Stella et al. (Stella et al., 2019). Therefore, this analysis focused

417 on the second dataset of free associations.

418 The distance between every relevant word and its reference topic on the network of free associations by
419 (Stella et al., 2019) was computed for all topics within the networked mindset of 59 complexity researchers.
420 These topics were “interaction”, “emergence”, “dynamics”, “self-organisation”, “interdisciplinary” and
421 “methods” and the relevant concepts were the ones in Table 1. The resulting set of empirical semantic
422 network distances was then compared against a reference null model with randomised TFMNs having
423 the same number of links and nodes of the original networks but with randomly reshuffled links (i.e.
424 configuration models (Stella et al., 2018a)). The reshuffling disrupted semantic relationships between
425 network structure and meaning (Stella et al., 2018a). A location test between the empirical and the
426 randomised network distances (over 50 network realisations) indicated a statistically significant difference
427 between the clustering of relevant words around each topic and the null model (Mann-Whitney test,
428 $U = 17827$, p -value: $0.0267 < 0.05$) at a significance level of 0.05. In the networked free associations
429 representing the scientific knowledge of complexity researchers, the words identified as relevant for
430 a topic by TFMNs tended to be closer to their own topic (median network distance: 3.1) than on the
431 randomised networks (median network distance: 3.7). Since semantic network distance on networks of
432 free associations indicates semantic relatedness (Kenett et al., 2017), these results confirmed that closeness
433 centrality on TFMNs was capable of identifying concepts relevant to the specific topic underlying a given
434 text.

435 Given the successful outcome of such benchmark, TFMNs can therefore be applied to extracting
436 relevant features of other short texts. The following section reports on the results of TFMNs when used
437 for analysing over 10000 tweets about gender gap in science.

438 **Analysis of the perception of gender gap in STEM with cognitive networks**

439 The textual forma mentis network obtained from processing the selected tweets included a largest
440 connected component including 3005 stemmed concepts and 28004 connections (24693 in the syntactic
441 layer and 3311 in the synonyms layer). The 10 most central concepts in terms of closeness centrality
442 were: “stem”, “science”, “we”, “do”, “you”, “learn”, “make”, “get”, “work”, “need”. As expected from
443 the benchmark, these words capture the general context of science of the investigated online discourse.
444 Concepts like “woman” and “man” ranked 103rd and 246th, respectively, mirroring the relevance of
445 women in science for the selected online discourse. “Scientist” ranked higher, at the 54th position, further
446 confirming the scientific scope of the dataset.

447 **0.0.1 Conceptual associations with and around a concept identify word clusters**

448 The TFMN was more clustered than random expectation (using a single-layer clustering coefficient where
449 all links are aggregated together, cf. (Siew et al., 2019)). Concepts linked to a common neighbour tended to
450 get connected with each other too. The empirical network displayed a mean clustering coefficient of 0.327
451 (0.166 ± 0.007 for reference configuration models (Stella et al., 2018a)). Hence, in the TFMN concepts
452 clustering around a given word (e.g. “STEM”) shared syntactic/semantic links too, a tendency that can
453 provide a richer structure about the conceptual organisation of knowledge around specific concepts/topics
454 in terms of (more) conceptual links. Consequently, investigating clustered networked neighbourhoods of
455 words can provide contextual information that would be lost by considering either words in isolation or
456 only the list of associates to a given concept. For this reason, the investigation focused on word clusters in
457 order to better understand the online perception of the STEM gender gap.

458 **0.0.2 Valence auras and global network metrics highlight an overall positive online stance towards 459 STEM and gender gap**

460 The 3005 stemmed concepts extracted from relevant tweets and connected in the forma mentis network
461 were rated as positive (1045), negative (430) and neutral (1943) according to the procedure described in
462 the Methods. Positive concepts were found to have a higher median degree than negative concepts (Mann-
463 Whitney test, numerosity $n_1 = 1045$, median degree $k_1 = 9$, $n_2 = 430$, $k_2 = 4$, $U = 3 \cdot 10^6$, $p < 10^{-6}$).
464 Positive concepts were also found to be more central in the reconstructed mindset in terms of requiring
465 fewer syntactic/synonymy associations in order to reach any other connected concept, i.e. centrality
466 as expressed by multiplex closeness (Stella et al., 2018a), (Mann-Whitney test, numerosity $n_1 = 1045$,
467 median degree $k_1 = 0.3601$, $n_2 = 430$, $k_2 = 0.3307$, $U = 3 \cdot 10^6$, $p < 10^{-6}$). These comparisons indicate
468 that in the analysed corpus of twitter language focusing on women and STEM, positive concepts were
469 more predominant, more well connected and more central than negative concepts. The richer network

470 structure of conceptual associations of positive concepts translated into a generally positive attitude of
471 twitter users towards the STEM gender gap.

472 Figure 2 (top) reports the emotional auras (Stella et al., 2019; Stella, 2020) of hub concepts in the
473 reconstructed mindset of social media users. While single-word labels were determined from the sentiment
474 of a general population, i.e. participants in an affect mega-study (Warriner et al., 2013), auras emerged
475 from the specific syntactic/synonymy relationships traced in the analysed data and therefore characterised
476 the reconstructed mindset of the population of interest. Concepts like “stem”, “gender” and “gap” are
477 neutral in commonly spoken language but were associated mostly with positive concepts in the language
478 of the online discourse, i.e. surrounded by a positive emotional aura. This indicates an overall positive
479 perception of these topics that would go *undetected* when investigating “stem”, “gender” and “gap” in
480 isolation. Differently from other investigations with forma mentis networks (Stella et al., 2019; Stella,
481 2020), the sampled online audience reported a strongly positive perception/aura of “student”. Also “bias”,
482 a negative concept, was surrounded by a positive emotional aura, indicating an overall mixed stance trying
483 to figure out positive aspects of a bias (e.g., how to overcome it). Further analysis is required in order to
484 better understand the above perceptions.

485 Figure 2 (bottom) reports the mindset structure around “bias” and other concepts like “unique”, “hurt”
486 and “journal”. The forma mentis neighbourhood of “bias” included associations to positive concepts
487 like “face”, “win”, “clear” and to negative concepts like “fight”, “cost” and “stereotype”, all revolving
488 around contrasting and overcoming biases. Therefore, the reconstructed TFMN indicates how social
489 media users discussed about “bias” in terms of a negative entity to be contrasted, overcome and won,
490 thus explaining the above mixed perception. Other words associated to bias gravitated around the gender
491 pay gap and economic implications (Courey and Heywood, 2018), e.g. “earn”, “cost”, “value”. Links
492 with “unconscious” and “fact” indicate that social media users were aware of hidden, unconscious gender
493 biases affecting the gender gap (Pietri et al., 2018).

494 Figure 2 (bottom) also reports how “unique” was associated in the online discourse around the gender
495 gap. The mixed perception of “unique” included negative associations to concepts eliciting loneliness, e.g.
496 “oppress”, “fail”, “alone” and “pretend”, which are unexpected when considering the positive perception
497 of “unique” itself. Hence, the TFMN indicates that when associated in messages focusing on women
498 in STEM, the meaning of “unique” shifted from positive to mixed and included negative connotations
499 of social exclusion and sense of failure. This is an example of *contextual valence shifting* (Polanyi and
500 Zaenen, 2006), a phenomenon in which a concept changes its valence according to its semantic context.
501 TFMNs represent a valuable quantitative tool for identifying valence shifting through semantic associates
502 and emotional profiling.

503 The multiplex structure of TFMNs can influence an emotional aura. Synonymy links (green) do not
504 come from text but rather from a pre-determined lexicon of synonyms (i.e. WordNet (Miller, 1998)) that
505 has general validity over common language. Instead, syntactic (blue/red/gray) associations come from the
506 specifically analysed language. In this way, TFMNs can identify also missing conceptual associations or
507 the predominance of synonymy over syntactic links.

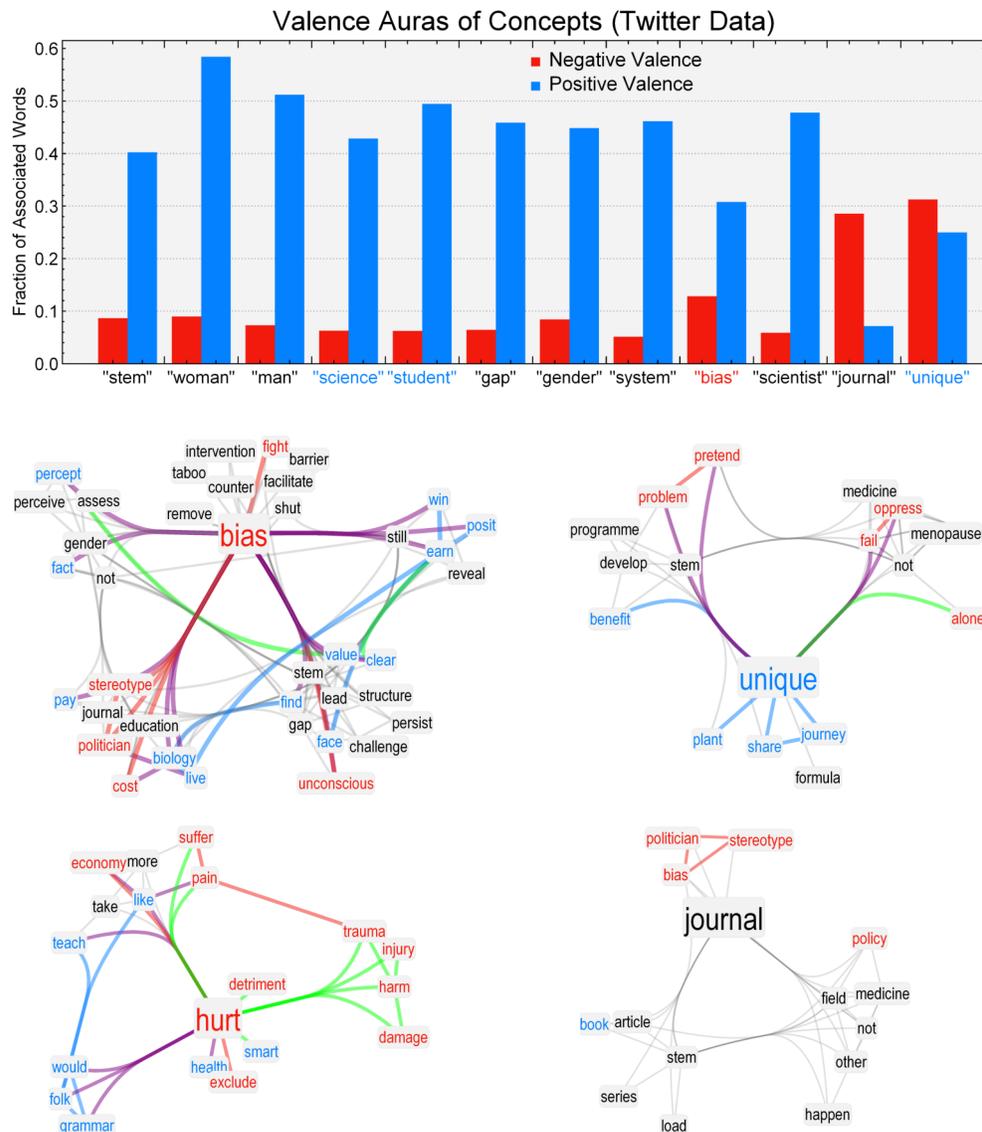


Figure 2. Bottom: Valence auras in the global forma mentis network of all 10384 analysed tweets. Positive (negative) words are highlighted in cyan (red). A fraction of 0.4 indicates that 40% of the neighbours of a word (e.g. STEM) are labelled as positive. **Top:** Textual forma mentis network for words linked to the target topics like “bias” (top left), “unique” (top right), “hurt” (bottom left) and “journal” (bottom right).

508 The negative aura of “hurt” in Figure 2 was mostly due to general synonyms whereas specific
 509 syntactic associations included positive concepts like “teach”, “like” or “health”, thus indicating a lack
 510 of hurtful/painful conceptual associations in the investigated online discourse over women in STEM.
 511 Network structure was informative also about the negative aura attributed to “journal”, which was linked
 512 to “politician”, “stereotype”, “bias” and “policy”. These syntactic links indicated a social awareness
 513 about journals and news media potentially perpetrating gender stereotypes, a role that was investigated in
 514 previous studies (Steinke, 2017).

515 **The online social perception of “woman”, “man” and “person” reconstructed by TFMN**
 516 Although it is expected for the online discourse to feature also automatic accounts and social bots, previous
 517 research identified human users as being more predominant in driving and diffusing message exchanges
 518 on social platforms (Stella et al., 2018b). Comparing how people identify themselves in a discourse where
 519 they are the main drivers can be informative about social roles and users’ self-perception (Varol and

520 Uluturk, 2020).

521 Figure 3 reports and compares the forma mentis network around “woman” (top left), “man” (top right)
522 and “person” (middle right). All these three concepts, commonly perceived as positive entities, were
523 surrounded by positive emotional auras in agreement with the overall positive features reported above of
524 the whole TFMN.

525 The reconstructed social perception of “woman” within the online discourse of gender gap in STEM
526 identified mainly semantic clusters expressing three aspects:

- 527 1. leadership and professional recognition in STEM (e.g. “entrepreneur”, “award”, “recognize”,
528 “leader”, “power”, “career”, “success”, “deserve”, “science”, “valid”);
- 529 2. learning and education (e.g. “teacher”, “inspire”, “learn”);
- 530 3. social welfare (e.g., “finance”, “advocate”).

531 All these aspects were dominated by positive, concrete concepts eliciting a sense of achievement and
532 professional establishment. The resulting picture was an overall positive sentiment/perception of the
533 online social discourse about the figures of women in science. However, within this positive landscape,
534 a closer look at the local community of concepts clustering around “woman” identified also negative
535 associations, further highlighted in Figure 3 (middle left).

536 The analysed text associated women also to “indebted”, “kill”, “lone” and “cry”, highlighting a
537 multifaceted perception of women in STEM and including negative traits that might originate from
538 *stereotype threat* (Shapiro and Williams, 2012; Pennington et al., 2016). In cognitive psychology,
539 stereotypes can advantageously form a belief about or characterise key traits of groups of people through
540 little cognitive effort. Stereotypical perceptions come at the cost of being not grounded in empirical
541 knowledge, providing inexpensive but potentially erroneous information that can: deeply affect perception
542 and cognitive processing (Pennington et al., 2016), induce anxiety, and reduce performance under pressure,
543 e.g. causing a sense of threatening. For instance, STEM stereotypes like “girls are not good at maths”
544 have been reported to affect even the self-perception of female STEM students, causing unconscious
545 biases which reduced girls’ performance and retaining of STEM subjects (Shapiro and Williams, 2012;
546 Steinke, 2017; Chavatzia, 2017). The TFMN reported in Figure 3 highlighted the stereotype of the
547 “oppressive, lonely, big-shot woman in STEM”, relative to women in STEM achieving successful careers
548 only at the cost of sacrificing empathy and other positive personality traits (Ely et al., 2011; Madsen
549 and Andrade, 2018). Recent studies have overwhelmingly exposed such stereotype, cf. (Steinke, 2017),
550 and the permanence of these negative associations in online social discourse represents evidence of how
551 such stereotype is still deep-rooted in daily communication. Notice that this might have also positive
552 repercussions, as improving the awareness of the effects of stereotype threat by simply talking about it can
553 boost self-perception and promote the implementation of effective countermeasures fighting stereotypes
554 (Madsen and Andrade, 2018).

555 The reconstructed online perception of women was overwhelmingly positive and it indicated how
556 women’s success and leadership in STEM deserve recognition (Madsen and Andrade, 2018). This
557 perception has to be compared against the one of males. Figure 3 (top left) considers the forma mentis
558 network around “man”, which included mostly positive concepts like “science”, “passion” and “smile”.
559 However, syntactic links associated “man” also to negative concepts such as “rape”, “issue” and “racist”,
560 indicating the presence in the online discourse of forms of accusations or condemnations of the role
561 played by men in social issues like sexual harassment, rape and racism (Karami et al., 2020). In the forma
562 mentis around “man”, special attention has to be devoted also to the negative particle “not”, which is
563 syntactically linked to “god”, “think”, “make” and “consider”. The negation of all these concepts, as
564 indicated by the syntactic links, provided a multi-faceted perception where men in STEM were related to
565 a superiority complex, a stereotypical self-perception of superiority in science-related achievements, for
566 instance in mathematics assessments (Leyva, 2017), promoted by preliminary and incomplete studies (cf.
567 Leyva, 2017) and (Chavatzia, 2017)). This quantitative result, embedded in language and highlighted
568 by forma mentis networks, indicates that fighting the gender gap in STEM means also changing men’s
569 stereotypical roles in science.

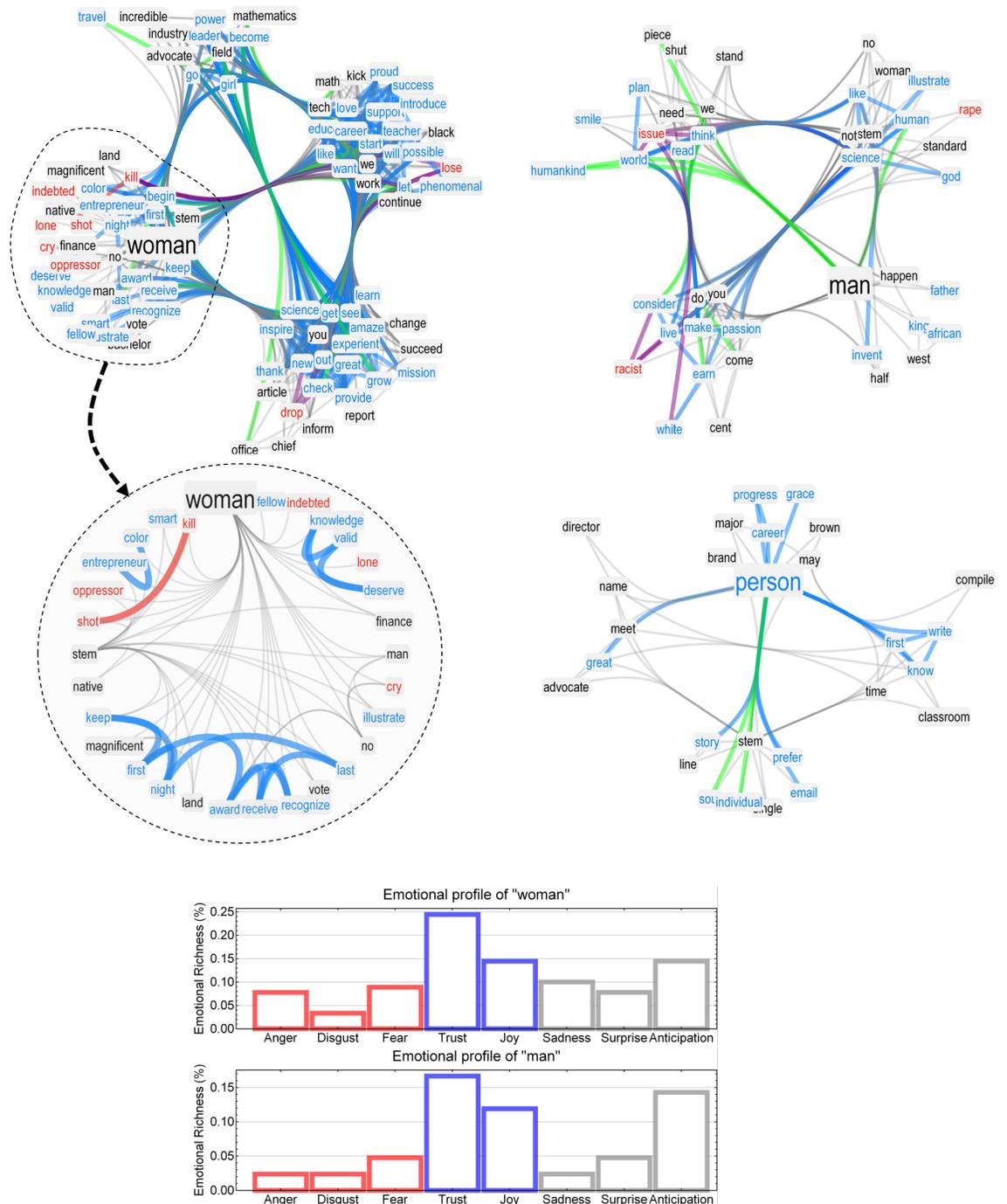


Figure 3. Top: Textual forma mentis network for words linked to the target topics like “woman” (top) and “man” (bottom). On every row, networks on the left include all neighbours adjacent to the target topic and clustered in communities as obtained from a Louvain algorithm (for more details on community detection in Twitter data see (Konstantinidis et al., 2017)). Networks on the right include all words in the same community as the target topic (top) and all words (bottom) but use hierarchical edge bundling for highlighting within-community clusters. In every visualisation, positive (negative) words and links are highlighted in cyan (red). Links between positive and negative concepts are reported in purple. Semantic links between synonyms are in green. **Bottom:** Emotional profile/richness for the neighbourhood of “woman” and “man”, indicating what emotions elicit the associates of these concepts.

570 In terms of emotional profiles, both “woman” and “man” included associates evoking mainly trust and
571 joy. The TFMN around “woman” was slightly richer in anger-eliciting words, like “kill” or “shot”, than
572 the TFMN around “man”. In Figure 3, the TFMN around “person” was devoid of any negative concept
573 or sign of stereotype threat. Word clusters related “person” to a multifaceted perception about career
574 progression, mindfulness and education. The associates of “person” evoked mostly trust (emotional profile
575 not shown for brevity), further confirming the positive perception of “person” itself. Given the gender-less
576 dimension of “person” in English, it is interesting to underline how the above negative perceptions are
577 more tightly connected to gender-rich words for human beings like “man” and “woman” and not to
578 genderless words like “person”. Since words in language do not only describe reality but rather contribute
579 to forging it (Malt et al., 2010), the above result suggests that reducing the incidence of the gender gap
580 might be possible also by speaking more and more in terms of “persons in STEM” rather than in terms of
581 contrasting “men versus women in STEM”, always while respecting individual differences.

582 **The online social perception of gender gap and scientist stereotypes as reconstructed** 583 **by TFMN**

584 This subsection investigates “gender” and “gap” and their online perceptions. Figure 4 considers the
585 TFMN around “gender” and “gap”, which were both considered as neutral concepts in language. The
586 online discourse over the social platform associated these two concepts with each other, as expected, and
587 related both of them mainly to positive words. Hence, the overall online emotional aura of “gender gap”
588 was mostly positive but it also included some negative associates. The community structure for the TFMN
589 of “gender” identified three perceptual dimensions in the way online users talked about gender:

- 590 • a positive dimension of respect and consideration (with associates like “balance”, “close”, “consider”
591 and “respect”);
- 592 • a research dimension in understanding the science of gender (with associates like “research”,
593 “support”, “future”, “highlight” and “explain”);
- 594 • a mostly negative dimension of gender imbalance and biases (with associates like “doubt”, “imbal-
595 ance” and “attack”).

596 Associations of “gender” with concepts like “stereotype”, “unfounded”, “break” and “tackle” (see Fig.
597 4, top left) indicated an attitude of opposition, among online users, against gender stereotypes in the
598 considered online communications.

599 Analogously to “gender”, also “gap” included negative associations to “bias” and “attack” and positive
600 links to concepts like “overcome”, “close” and “consider” (see Fig. 4). The conceptual cluster around
601 “gap” highlighted in Fig. 4 (middle left) contained associations mostly focusing on:

- 602 1. the expectation to overcome and reduce the gender gap in the future (e.g., “reverse”, “break”,
603 “crack”, “bridge” and “reduce”);
- 604 2. the economic impact of the gender gap (e.g., “pay”, “income”, “wage”).

605 These two dimensions indicate a positive intention for the online discourse to tackle and reduce gender
606 gaps, while displaying awareness about the gender pay gap (Courey and Heywood, 2018) and also an
607 emotion of anticipation or projection of such challenge in the future (see emotional profiling in Fig. 4,
608 bottom). This provides additional quantitative indication for the importance of achieving equal wages
609 in STEM in order to reduce the gender gap, in agreement with previous studies (Courey and Heywood,
610 2018). Figure 4 contains also negative associations between “gap”, “bias” and “unconscious”, indicating
611 a remarkable awareness of online users about the gender gap being rooted in unconscious bias and gender
612 preconceptions that are difficult to detect and act upon (Karami et al., 2020; Steinke, 2017; Moss-Racusin
613 et al., 2012; Pietri et al., 2018).

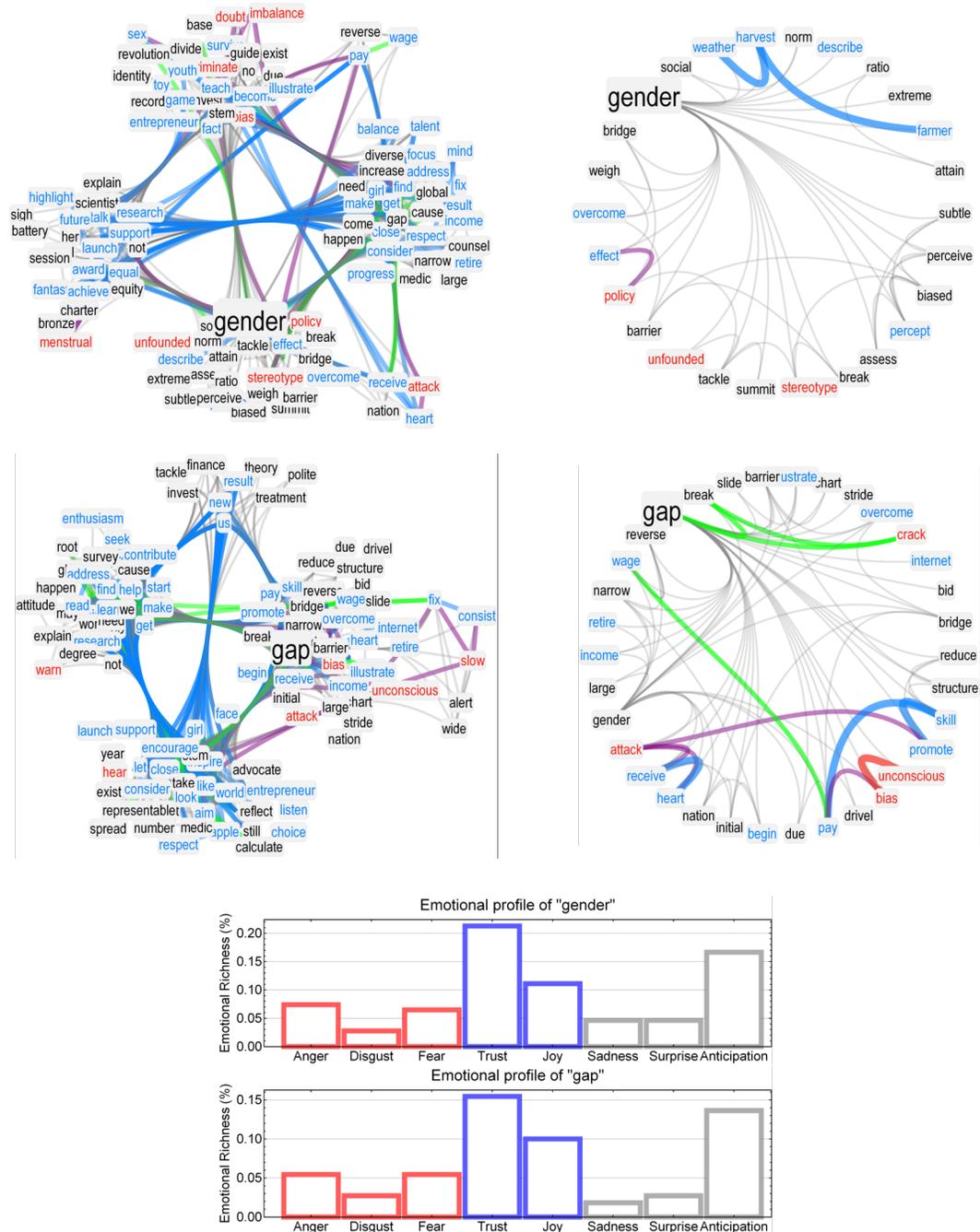


Figure 4. Top: Textual formants network for words linked to the target topics like “gender” and “gap”. On every row, networks on the left include all neighbours adjacent to the target topic and clustered in communities as obtained from a Louvain algorithm. Networks on the right include all words in the same community as the target topic but use hierarchical edge bundling for highlighting within-community clusters. In every visualisation, positive (negative) words and links are highlighted in cyan (red). Links between positive and negative concepts are reported in purple. Semantic links between synonyms are in green. **Bottom:** Emotional profile/richness for the neighbourhood of “woman” and “man”, indicating what emotions elicit the associates of these concepts.

614 As already mentioned above, a prominent mechanism of unconscious bias is stereotype threat, where
 615 unconscious perceptions cause anxiety and negative latent emotions that influence performance, e.g. girls
 616 aware of the preconception that “girls are not good in science” end up performing worse than males

617 in STEM tasks (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012; Shapiro and Williams, 2012; Madsen and Andrade, 2018;
 618 Chavatzia, 2017). Given the awareness of online users about unconscious biases, it becomes relevant
 619 to explore the networked TFMN mindset in search of signs of stereotype threat. Because of the STEM
 620 scope of the dataset, the focus here was devoted to detecting stereotypical perceptions in the figure
 621 of “scientist”, whose neighbourhood is reported in Fig. 5. The TFMN quantified positive semantic
 622 associations surrounding “scientist”. Clusters of more tightly associations identified a strong perception
 623 of scientists in relation to innovation (e.g., “tech”, “society”, “entrepreneur”, “innovate”, “discover”,
 624 “leadership”). A closer look (cf. Fig. 5, left) revealed also enthusiasm-eliciting concepts (e.g., “great”,
 625 “notable”, “famous”, “celebrant”, “dream”, “congratulate”) and career-related jargon (e.g., “showcase”,
 626 “assess”, “work”, “peer”, “academia”). Hence, scientists were perceived as successful professionals by
 627 online users, analogously to what other social groups like high-school students did in other studies (cf.
 628 (Stella, 2020)). Even within this success-centred perception, online users linked scientists to concepts like
 629 “suffer”, “pain” and “gain”, displaying awareness about the cost of success and the need for hard work.

630 Overall, the mental construct of “scientist” represented by the TFMN identified a well-rounded,
 631 balanced and positive online perception of scientists in terms of successful, hard-working professionals,
 632 devoid of any significant patterns of stereotype threat associating scientists only to a male-gender sphere,
 633 differently from stereotypical perceptions found in other datasets and groups via the Implicit Association
 634 Test (Lane et al., 2012; Steinke, 2017).

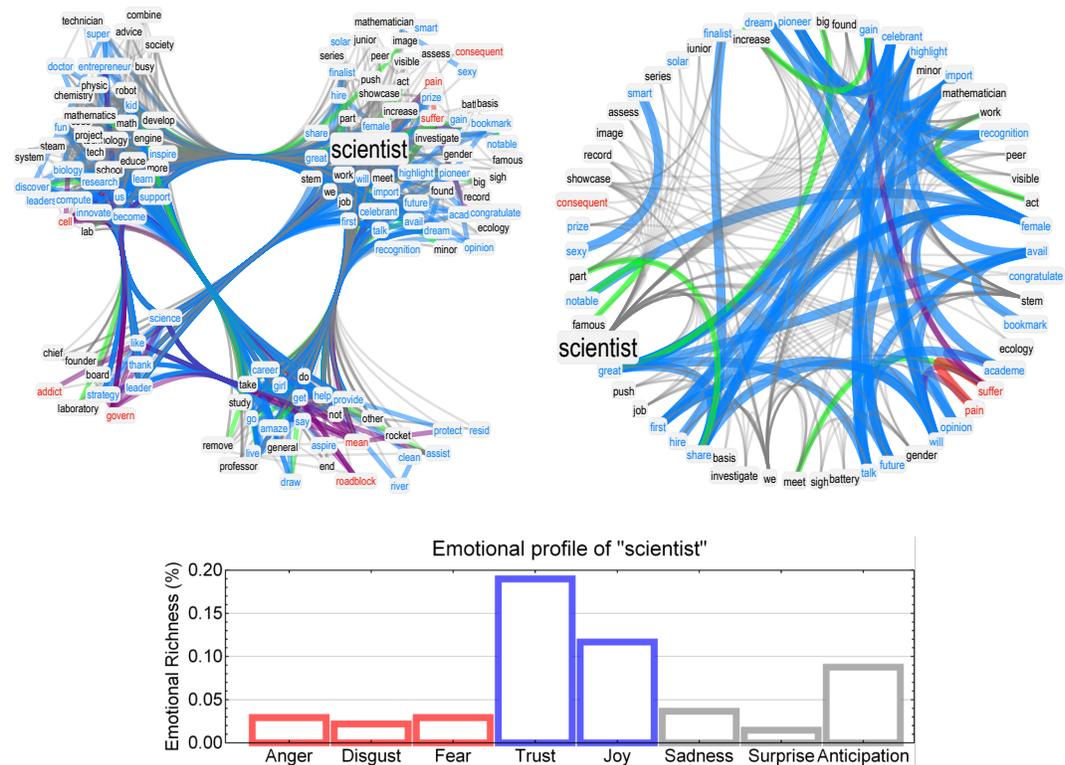


Figure 5. Top: Textual forma mentis network for “scientist”. The network on the left includes all words associated to “scientist”, whereas plot on the right zooms in the community of words more tightly connected to “scientist”. Positive (negative) words and links are highlighted in cyan (red). Links between positive and negative concepts are reported in purple. Synonymy relationships are in green. **Bottom:** Emotional profile/richness for the neighbourhood of “scientist”, indicating what emotions elicit the associates of “scientist” itself in the analysed corpus.

635 DISCUSSION

636 As outlined in recent Big Data Analytics studies (Huang et al., 2020; Odic and Wojcik, 2019; Chavatzia,
 637 2017), differences in gender discrimination are strongly influenced by distorted mindsets, with deep, often
 638 hidden, repercussions over pay gaps (Courey and Heywood, 2018) and sexual harassment (Karami et al.,

639 2020). Combining these findings with the ever-increasing influence of social media over real life (Jansen
640 et al., 2009; Waqas et al., 2019; Stella et al., 2018b; Nasar et al., 2019) highlights an urgent necessity
641 for using information processing in order to understand “if” and “how” specific massive online social
642 platforms promote information on distorted mindsets. The tackling of such research question is essential
643 for countering gender biases with data-informed approaches (Huang et al., 2020). This work tackled this
644 question by extracting, reconstructing and understanding with textual forma mentis networks (TFMNs)
645 how online users perceived and discussed the topics of “women in STEM” and the “gender gap” on
646 Twitter.

647 As a knowledge extraction technique (Nasar et al., 2019), TFMNs indicated an overall positive
648 attitude of the online discourse towards tackling and reducing gender inequality. Going beyond the
649 positive/negative polarity of standard sentiment analysis (Mohammad, 2016; Stella et al., 2018b), this
650 work attributed TFMNs with a richer emotional profile, using emotional data from (Mohammad and
651 Turney, 2013) and providing a quantitative way for detecting *contextual connotation shifting* (Polanyi
652 and Zaenen, 2006), i.e. a concept being perceived in different ways according to its semantic context
653 and associates. The reconstructed forma mentis networks outlined “man”, “woman” and “scientist” as
654 being associated with concepts eliciting predominantly trust, joy and anticipation and, with way less
655 intensity, also anger and fear. Trust is a feeling of confidence, security and positive endorsement (Ekman
656 and Davidson, 1994), its predominance in the retrieved TFMNs suggests a willingness for online users
657 to provide and exchange endorsements to each others’ messages while debating the topic of “women
658 in science”. This result is in contrast with a previous study reporting Twitter as being more prone to
659 host general-level negative rather than positive emotional content (Waterloo et al., 2018). This disparity
660 might be explained by considering that Twitter interactions focus mainly over weak social ties, including
661 mostly acquaintances and casual contacts rather than strongly personal relationships (Waterloo et al.,
662 2018). Since the expression of topic-inspired negative emotions along weak social ties is considered
663 being less acceptable (Ferrara and Yang, 2015), more positive emotional profiles would be expected from
664 topic-specific Twitter public debate, and not from general level content sharing like the one in (Waterloo
665 et al., 2018). As a future research direction, it would be interesting to detect whether the mostly trustful
666 and positive perception of gender biases would persist also on other social media platforms with stronger
667 social ties such as Facebook or WhatsApp (Waterloo et al., 2018).

668 Another emotional state prominently featured in all the reconstructed stances towards “woman”,
669 “gender”, “gap”, “man” and “scientist” was anticipation, a neutral emotional state including either
670 pleasure or anxiety towards future events (Ekman and Davidson, 1994). The predominance of anticipation
671 and joy with respect to other emotions like sadness, fear, disgust or anger, suggests the prevalence of
672 positive expectations in the analysed text, examples being the excitement-related concepts associated
673 with “scientist” or the successful dimension attributed to women in STEM. These patterns indicate the
674 occurrence of messages celebrating women in science and their success, contrasting the gender gap with
675 stories of excitement and professional achievement. Extensive research (cfr. (Pietri et al., 2018; Chavatzia,
676 2017; Madsen and Andrade, 2018)) indicates that promoting professional achievements of women in
677 science has strong beneficial effects in favouring women’s representation in STEM, as it enables girls in
678 identifying relatable and inspiring stories of success in STEM going beyond discrimination.

679 The reconstructed TFMNs reported evidence for online users being aware about unconscious gender
680 biases (Shapiro and Williams, 2012). These biases occur when an individual consciously rejects gender
681 stereotypes but is still influenced by and makes unconscious evaluations based on such stereotypes
682 themselves, see also (Madsen and Andrade, 2018; Ely et al., 2011). At the individual level, unconscious
683 and passive discrimination based on gender stereotypes can have smaller repercussions in comparison to
684 actively promoting gender inequality. However, at the group level, many unconscious small biases can
685 interact in a complex systems fashion (Hogue and Lord, 2007) and lead to the emergence of “powerful yet
686 often invisible barriers” of gender discrimination (Ely et al., 2011). These barriers undermine considerably
687 women representation and professional growth in a variety of fields including also STEM (Shapiro and
688 Williams, 2012; Lane et al., 2012; Madsen and Andrade, 2018; Huang et al., 2020; Odic and Wojcik,
689 2019). Forma mentis networks captured signals of unconscious gender bias in online discourse around
690 “women in science”. These conceptual links can be beneficial in promoting awareness about the above
691 invisible barriers, further suggesting the extreme importance of fighting implicit biases in STEM careers
692 for closing the gender gap in STEM (Pietri et al., 2018).

693 Another prominent topic emerging from the TFMNs is the gender pay gap, a mismatch between the

694 salaries of individuals of different genders performing the same job (Courey and Heywood, 2018). The
695 online perception reconstructed by forma mentis networks indicates that pay gaps are closely semantically
696 related to both “gender” and “gap”, thus indicating that closing the gender pay gap is key for fighting
697 gender biases in STEM, in agreement with previous relevant studies (Ely et al., 2011; Courey and
698 Heywood, 2018).

699 Although partial evidence for a stereotypical, angry-eliciting and fearful perception of women in
700 STEM as “lone survivors” was present in the neighbourhood of “woman”, the overall perception of
701 such concept was positive and elicited mostly trustful and joyous concepts, celebrating women’s success
702 in STEM. The reconstructed role of “scientist” did not include stereotypical conceptual associations,
703 indicating a lack of stereotype threat phenomena (Shapiro and Williams, 2012) in the considered online
704 discourse. In cognitive psychology, stereotype threats represent unconscious mechanisms that affect
705 performance of a given group in relation to the stereotypical expectations commonly shared about that
706 group (e.g. “girls are bad at maths” is a stereotype harming girls’ performances in maths, cfr. (Pennington
707 et al., 2016; Chavatzia, 2017)). Forma mentis networks mostly related the online perception of scientists
708 to success and career progression and highlighted a lack of stereotypical perceptions, differently from the
709 detection of scientist-centred stereotypes found in previous approaches with cognitive network science
710 (Stella, 2020), via the Implicit Association Test (Lane et al., 2012). Such virtuous finding might be the
711 consequence of the relatively high participation of STEM professionals over the Twittersphere, which
712 can disrupt stereotypical perceptions. As future research, it would be interesting to apply TFMNs for
713 detecting potential patterns of stereotype threat in other social platforms like Facebook or WhatsApp, that
714 are more exposed to negative content (Waterloo et al., 2018) and also less prone to hosting posts from
715 STEM experts.

716 From a methodological perspective, TFMNs rely on the recent theory of cognitive networks (Siew
717 et al., 2019) and include syntactic and semantic conceptual associations which are informative of the
718 structure of knowledge perceived by text authors (Stella et al., 2018a; Stella, 2019). Differently from
719 other successful models of knowledge representation such as concept maps (Dóczy, 2019) and knowledge
720 graphs (Amancio, 2015; Akimushkin et al., 2017; de Arruda et al., 2019), forma mentis networks contain
721 also emotional information, outlining sentiment and emotional patterns in the way individuals assembled
722 their stance in a text. This contextual information is essential for the interpretability of a detected stance
723 (Nasar et al., 2019).

724 The framework of textual forma mentis networks reported here has some important limitations.
725 Differently from the behavioural forma mentis networks introduced in previous studies (Stella and
726 Zaytseva, 2020; Stella et al., 2019; Stella, 2020), in TFMNs the valence of concepts represents population-
727 level averages extracted from mega-studies in psycholinguistics (Warriner et al., 2013). This representation
728 assumes an overall shared perception of the emotional content of concepts that might be preserved at the
729 global level, i.e. on an online platform where large numbers of users of multiple backgrounds interact
730 with each other. However, this assumption might be violated within specific populations. For instance,
731 Stella and colleagues (Stella et al., 2019) showed that a population made entirely of high-school students
732 perceived “maths” as a negative concept whereas a population of international researchers perceived the
733 same concept as positive. The overall perception of “maths” reported in the language norms by Warriner
734 et al. (2013) was neutral, as reported also in the TFMNs presented here (Warriner et al., 2013). It is
735 important to keep this assumption in mind when applying TFMNs to mindset reconstruction in specific
736 and non-heterogenous populations. Nonetheless, even in these populations TFMNs can be informative
737 about conceptual associations as expressed by the semantic/syntactic multiplex network structure, since
738 the emotional attitude towards a concept can be reconstructed from the attitude and meaning of its
739 associates (Polanyi and Zaenen, 2006). As a future research direction, a potential approach for achieving
740 population-specific valence labels would be valence extraction from text, a technique that exploits word
741 embedding and machine learning (Mohammad, 2016; Rudkowsky et al., 2018) and as such works well for
742 longer texts like books or essays but is still relatively less accurate for shorter texts like tweets or posts,
743 which are less rich in semantic information (Polanyi and Zaenen, 2006).

744 Another assumption underlying TFMNs is treating modifiers of meaning (e.g. negations) as nodes
745 equivalent to concepts. Modifiers can alter the meaning expressed by individual concepts, providing a
746 contextual richness that is not captured by the so-called “bag of words” models (Polanyi and Zaenen,
747 2006; Rudkowsky et al., 2018), where a text is represented by an unstructured list of its concepts. Textual
748 forma mentis networks provide syntactic and semantic contextual background to concepts so that the

749 investigation of modifiers cannot be independent on the analysis of conceptual associates. For instance, in
750 the current approach, negations were considered in the emotional profiling of conceptual neighbourhoods
751 in the following way: antonyms of words linked to negations were added to emotional counts, providing
752 information about opposite meanings in addition to the concepts originally available in the TFMN (e.g., if
753 “appreciation” was connected to “not” then its antonym “disgust” was considered in the emotional profiling
754 too). Other ways of grading the intensity of statements or negations could be tested and implemented
755 within future work.

756 Another future research direction would be the implementation of TFMNs in synergy with social
757 network analysis, much alike what recent approaches suggested (Rodrigues and Pietrocola, 2020; Stella
758 et al., 2018b), in order to better capture online social behaviour (Varol and Uluturk, 2020) or better
759 understand misinformation spread (Pierri et al., 2020).

760 CONCLUSIONS

761 Textual forma mentis networks (TFMNs) provide contextual conceptual and emotional information from
762 text, providing a rich picture of how text authors perceived and associated multiple topics. When applied
763 to the social media discussion of women in science, TFMNs identified a mostly positive, trustful and
764 anticipation-rich discourse but also highlighted online awareness about relevant issues like unconscious
765 gender biases and the gender pay gap. The application of TFMNs to the analysis of online discourses
766 opens new ways for quantitatively assessing the role played by social media in promoting/hampering
767 gender biases and distorted mindsets. Textual forma mentis networks can open new ways of accessing
768 social media, understanding the content of online communication and providing new bridges for linking
769 social dynamics with cognitive and emotional information spread.

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