

Instances of genericity: A distributional semantic approach to generic and specific masculines' semantics in German

Dominic Schmitz

Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf

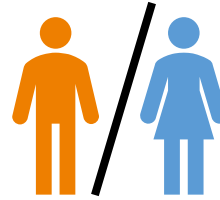
Konstanz Linguistics Conference (KLC) 2024, 21-22 March 2024, Konstanz, Germany

Role nouns in German

Professor
'professor'



Professor
'professor'



Professorin
'professor'



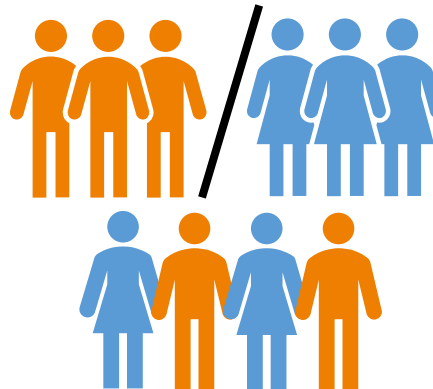
SINGULAR

PLURAL

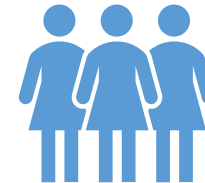
Professoren
'professors'



Professoren
'professors'



Professorinnen
'professors'



Generic masculines

- generic masculines are
 - orthographically and phonologically **identical** to explicit masculines
 - used to describe individuals of **all genders** in singular and plural contexts
 - traditionally assumed to “abstract away” notions of gender, i.e. to be **gender-neutral** (cf. Doleschal 2002)
- however, previous research has cast doubt on the gender-neutral use of generic masculines
- most (if not all) behavioural studies on the subject find one overall result
 - generic masculines are not gender-neutral but show a clear bias towards the **explicit masculine reading** (e.g. Demarmels 2017; Garnham et al. 2012; Gygax et al. 2008; Irmen & Kurovskaja 2010; Irmen & Linner 2005; Koch 2021; Misersky et al. 2019; Stahlberg & Sczesny, 2001)
- gender-neutral intention, but gender-specific comprehension

Generic masculines

- recently, computational methods entered this field of research (Schmitz 2023; Schmitz et al. 2023; Schmitz 2024)
- Schmitz (2023) and Schmitz et al. (2023) used **semantic vectors** to investigate the semantics of generic masculines, specific masculines, and specific feminines
- **semantic vectors** are mathematical representations of a word's semantics
- however, Schmitz (2023) and Schmitz et al. (2023)'s implementations come with two issues
- today's aim: solve these issues by implementing alternative methods

Previous implementation

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

Previous implementation

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

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

Issues

Issue 1: vector correlations

- $\overrightarrow{specific}$ and $\overrightarrow{generic}$ are computed across all their attestations, i.e. we end up with one general vector for specific and one for generic semantics
- $\overrightarrow{generic}$ only ever occurs with masculine forms
- $\overrightarrow{specific}$ occurs with masculine and feminine forms
 - ➔ $\overrightarrow{generic}$ is strongly correlated with $\overrightarrow{masculine}$
 - ➔ $\overrightarrow{generic}$ is biased towards the masculine and masculine referents

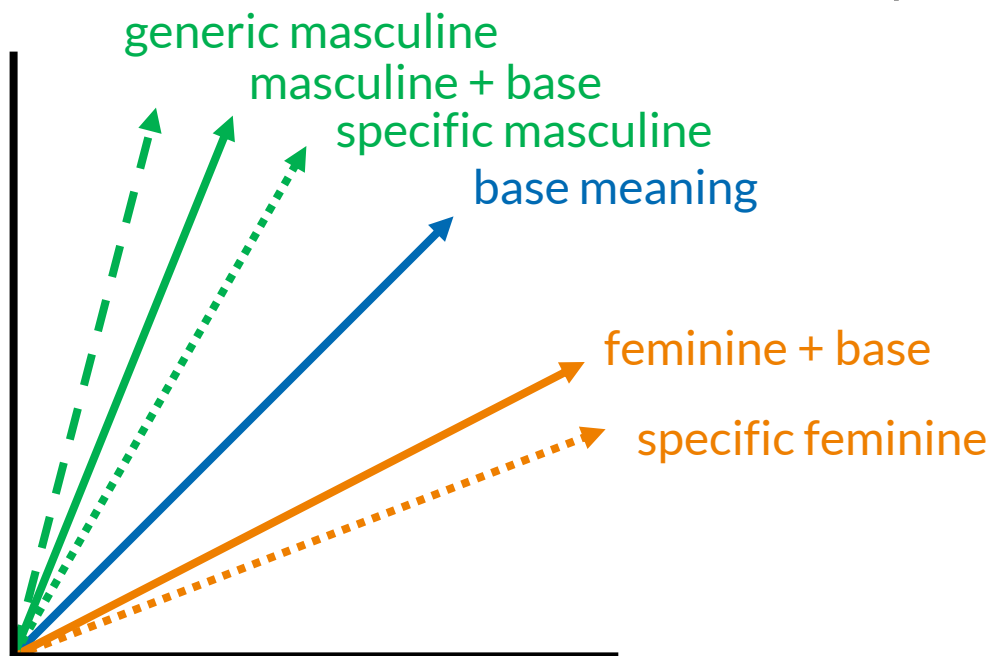
Issues

Issue 2: genericity ≠ inflection

- role noun semantics were constructed as sum of their parts, e.g.

$$\overrightarrow{Lehrer_{generic}} = \overrightarrow{Lehrer_{base\ meaning}} + \overrightarrow{singular} + \overrightarrow{masculine} + \overrightarrow{generic}$$

- addition of a vector = shift of direction in a multidimensional space



Alternative computational approach

- solution: use instance vectors instead
- **instance vectors** (Lapesa et al., 2018)
 - instance vectors are vectors computed for each instance, i.e. attestation, of a given target word within a given corpus
 - each instance vector is the average of n context words preceding and following the target word in a pertinent attestation
- the computation of instance vectors requires three prerequisites
 1. target word attestations
 2. semantic vectors of context words
 3. a decision on the size of n

Instance vectors

1. target word attestations

- 75 of the 113 target word paradigms from the NDL/LDL study were adapted
 - 9 were dropped because of fewer than 10 attestations overall
 - 28 were dropped because of fewer than 10 attestations for one type
- for the remaining 75 paradigms, an even number across types was retained, e.g.
 - *Arbeiter* ‘worker’: 375 generic masculine, 113 specific masculine, 12 specific feminine attestations
 - sampling of further specific feminine attestations lead to the inclusion of 40 random attestations per type

Instance vectors

1. target word attestations

- in the NDL/LDL study's corpus,
 - words were automatically annotated for inflectional functions
 - words were represented by their base forms (= masculine nominative)
 - target words were manually annotated for genericity (specific vs. generic)
- for the present implementation, the non-annotated sentences were used, i.e. sentences were used in their original form
- overall, 3,020 target word attestations were used

Instance vectors

2. semantic vectors of context words

- semantic vectors of context words were generated with fastText (Bojanowski et al., 2016; Mikolov et al., 2013)
- other algorithms to create semantic vectors with can be used as well, but fastText vectors were easily available

Instance vectors

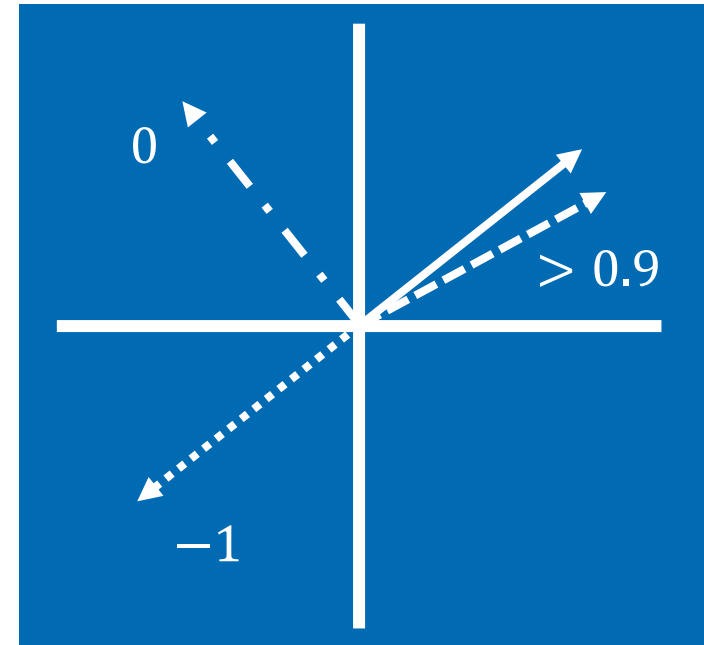
3. a decision on the size of n

- following Lapesa et al. (2018), the following sizes were used
 - $n = 2$ assumed to reflect true semantic similarity
 - $n = 8$ assumed to reflect topical similarity
- additionally
 - $n = 5$



Analysis

- semantic similarity was analysed via **cosine similarity**
- cosine similarity measures the similarity between two vectors in a multidimensional space by computing the cosine of the angle between them
- cosine similarity values are always in the interval of $[-1,1]$
 - 1 proportional = semantically identical
 - 0 orthogonal = no semantic similarity
 - -1 opposite = antonymy
- within each target word paradigm, each vector of a given type A was compared to each vector of a given type B



Analysis

- **beta regression** was the statistical model of choice to adequately model the interval restrictions of the cosine similarity values
- however, as there were cosine similarity values below 0, a transformation was required
- cosine similarity values were shifted and scaled mapping the interval $(-1,1)$ to the interval $(0,1)$

$$\text{cosim_trans} = \frac{(\text{cosim} + 1)}{2}$$

- finally, as beta regression cannot handle true ones, they had to be excluded
 - true ones were contained in the data especially for the $n = 2$ instance vectors because of identical context words across multiple attestations

Data sets

- the final cosine similarity data consists of more than 350,000 cosine similarity values of 75 target word paradigms per context window size n

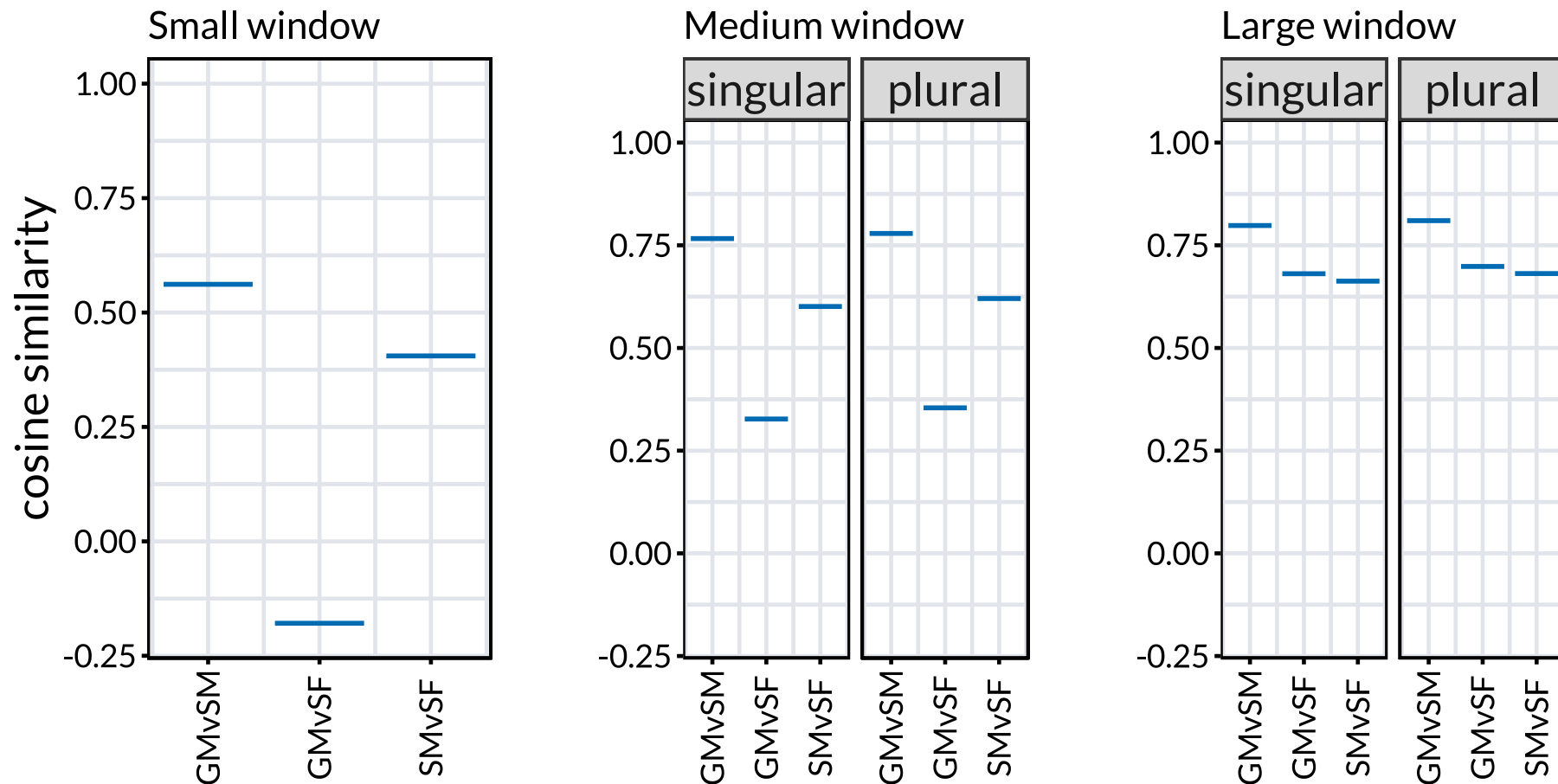
$n = 2$	$n = 5$	$n = 8$
355,625	365,151	372,493

Variables

- **COMPARISON.** Types of the two paradigm member types a given cosine similarity value belongs to.
- **NUMBER.** Number of the two paradigm member types a given cosine similarity value belongs to.
- **STEREOTYPICALITY.** Stereotypicality judgements of the target word paradigm a given cosine similarity value belongs to.
- **FREQUENCIES.** Genericity informed frequencies of the types within a target word paradigm.
- **ATTESTATIONS.** Number of attestations of a given target word paradigm.
- **WORD.** The target word itself (one value per target word paradigm).

Results

- COMPARISON reaches significance in all models; NUMBER in two models



Discussion & conclusion

- the similarity orders of the small and medium context window differ from that of the large context window – why?
 - they are not due to word classes within the context windows; χ^2 -tests show that the distribution of word classes is not different
 - they are potentially due to syntactic and/or contextual structures
 - for bigger window sizes, it is likely that included material is not directly related to the target word
- generic masculines are semantically most similar to specific masculines
- this is in line with Schmitz (2023), Schmitz et al. (2023) and other previous studies (e.g. Demarmels 2017; Garnham et al. 2012; Gygax et al. 2008; Irmen & Kurovskaja 2010; Irmen & Linner 2005; Koch 2021; Misersky et al. 2019; Stahlberg & Sczesny, 2001)

References

- Bojanowski, Piotr, Edouard Grave, Armand Joulin & Tomas Mikolov. 2016. Enriching word vectors with subword information. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*. MIT Press - Journals 5. 135–146. <https://doi.org/10.48550/arxiv.1607.04606>.
- Demarmels, Sascha. 2017. „Gesucht: Assistentin oder Sekretär der Geschäftsleitung“ – Gendersensitive Formulierungen in Stellenanzeigen aus der Perspektive der Textsorte. In Martin Nielsen, Karin Luttermann & Madgalène Lévy-Tödter (eds.), *Stellenanzeigen als Instrument des Employer Branding in Europa: Interdisziplinäre und kontrastive Perspektiven*, 249–270. Wiesbaden: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-12719-0_11.
- Doleschal, Ursula. 2002. Das generische Maskulinum im Deutschen. Ein historischer Spaziergang durch die deutsche Grammatikschreibung von der Renaissance bis zur Postmoderne. *Linguistik Online*. University of Bern 11(2). <https://doi.org/10.13092/lo.11.915>.
- Gygax, Pascal, Ute Gabriel, Oriane Sarrasin, Jane Oakhill & Alan Garnham. 2008. Generically intended, but specifically interpreted: When beauticians, musicians, and mechanics are all men. *Language and Cognitive Processes* 23(3). 464–485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01690960701702035>.
- Irmen, Lisa & Julia Kurovskaja. 2010. On the semantic content of grammatical gender and its impact on the representation of human referents. *Experimental Psychology* 57(5). 367–375. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1618-3169/a000044>.
- Irmen, Lisa & Ute Linner. 2005. Die Repräsentation generisch maskuliner Personenbezeichnungen. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie / Journal of Psychology* 213(3). 167–175. <https://doi.org/10.1026/0044-3409.213.3.167>.
- Koch, Melissa. 2021. *Kognitive Effekte des generischen Maskulinums und genderneutraler Alternativen im Deutschen – eine empirische Untersuchung*. Technische Universität Braunschweig Master's Thesis.
- Lapesa, Gabriella, Lea Kawaletz, Ingo Plag, Marios Andreou, Max Kisselew & Sebastian Padó. 2018. Disambiguation of newly derived nominalizations in context: A Distributional Semantics approach. *Word Structure*. Edinburgh University Press The Tun - Holyrood Road, 12(2f) Jackson's Entry, Edinburgh EH8 8PJUK 11(3). 277–312. <https://doi.org/10.3366/word.2018.0131>.
- Mikolov, Tomas, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado & Jeffrey Dean. 2013. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. *1st International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2013 - Workshop Track Proceedings*. International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR. <https://doi.org/10.48550/arxiv.1301.3781>.
- Misersky, Julia, Asifa Majid & Tineke M. Snijders. 2019. Grammatical gender in German influences how role-nouns are interpreted: Evidence from ERPs. *Discourse Processes*. Routledge 56(8). 643–654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2018.1541382>.
- Schmitz, D. (2023). In German, all professors are male. In Pfeifer, J., Arndt-Lappe, S., Dorgeloh, H., Kunter, G., and Uffmann, Ch. (Eds). *INGO 6.0. The Proceedings. New empirical Insights about laNguage, presented on a Great day Out in September*. Preprint available on PsyArXiv. doi: 10.31234/osf.io/yjuh
- Schmitz, D. (2024). Instances of bias: The gendered semantics of generic masculines in German revealed by instance vectors. Preprint available on PsyArXiv. doi: 10.31234/osf.io/73k4m
- Schmitz, Dominic, Viktoria Schneider & Janina Esser. 2023. No genericity in sight: An exploration of the semantics of masculine generics in German. *Glossa Psycholinguistics* 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.5070/G6011192>.
- Schunack, Silke & Anja Binanzer. 2022. Revisiting gender-fair language and stereotypes - A comparison of word pairs, capital i forms and the asterisk. *Zeitschrift für Sprachwissenschaft*. De Gruyter Mouton 41(2). 309–337. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ZFS-2022-2008/MACHINEREADABLECITATION/RIS>.
- Stahlberg, Dagmar & Sabine Sczesny. 2001. Effekte des generischen Maskulinums und alternativer Sprachformen auf den gedanklichen Einbezug von Frauen. *Psychologische Rundschau* 52(3). 131–140. <https://doi.org/10.1026//0033-3042.52.3.131>.