

Purposefully Lost in Translation: Expanding The Stereotype Content Model for Cross-Cultural Stereotype Erasure

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Stereotype detection offers valuable insights for detecting implicit bias in language models. To mitigate such bias, stereotyping theories have been adopted in various NLP tasks. However, these implementations have primarily focused on English language models. As language models are increasingly applied across diverse languages and cultures, it is crucial to develop a model that addresses the range of stereotypes present in these languages and cultures. In this paper, we propose a framework for expanding the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) beyond the English language, demonstrated through the development and validation of our Korean SCM (KoSCM). We also present a translation framework designed to address the challenges related to data annotation, explore the cross-cultural validity of the SCM by evaluating the model against theory-grounded hypotheses, and introduce a novel method for stereotype erasure. To make the study of stereotyping more accessible to a broader range of researchers, we also present SCM prompting, a set of prompt engineering guidelines for LLMs aimed at stereotype detection. Our proposed CoT prompting improves the performance of LLMs by an average of 18.6%. This study marks the first attempt to implement the SCM in a non-English language and with LLMs, paving the way for research on stereotypes across different languages and models.

1 Introduction

Language models have the capacity to learn and perpetuate biases present in their training data (Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Caliskan et al., 2017; Chang et al., 2019). To tackle this challenge, researchers have focused on identifying and removing explicit biases like hate speech and derogatory language. Recently, however, there has been an increasing focus on mitigating implicit biases, including societal stereotypes that, while not explicitly harmful, can still contribute to reinforcing negative

perceptions. A relevant example is the stereotype that portrays Asians as smart. Although this stereotype might seem positive on the surface, it reflects the *model minority stereotype*, which can impose unrealistic expectations and obscure the rich diversity within the community.

One well-established theory of stereotyping is the Stereotype Content Model (SCM). The SCM (Fiske et al., 2002) suggests that when individuals encounter members of an out-group, they evaluate them based on two dimensions: *warmth* and *competence*. The SCM has been utilized in NLP to develop a computational model for identifying stereotypes (Fraser et al., 2021; Herold et al., 2022; Nicolas and Caliskan, 2024; Schuster et al., 2024; Fraser et al., 2024; Mina et al., 2024), to reduce stereotypical bias in language models (Omrani et al., 2023; Ungless et al., 2022; Gaci et al., 2023), and to enhance hate speech detection (Jin et al., 2024). While the SCM is widely adopted in NLP bias studies, little research explores its application beyond English to non-Western cultures.

As language models become more prevalent across cultures, the importance of detecting stereotypes in different languages is increasing. However, expanding the SCM presents challenges, particularly the cost of data annotation. Translating stereotypes requires both a social psychology expert and a language specialist. Another challenge is the high cost of developing an NLP model. Not everyone possesses the skills or tools required to build and train large language models (LLMs).

Building on social psychology research that proposes the potential of the SCM as a pancultural measure of stereotypes (Cuddy et al., 2009), we propose our comprehensive framework for implementing a cross-cultural SCM that addresses the challenges of translating the SCM by developing a Korean Stereotype Content Model (KoSCM). We start by compiling a Korean dictionary of warmth-competence seed words. To address the challenge

of data annotation, we translate existing English warmth-competence lexicons into Korean using a machine translation model, which we then validate with the assistance of an expert translator. Then, we generate sentences incorporating the translated lexicons to create a training dataset for the KoSCM. To tackle the issue of data scarcity, we employ a data augmentation technique called back-translation.

We further illustrate the implementation of the SCM model using the curated dataset and evaluate KoSCM through a stereotype analysis on social groups of age, gender, and religion in Korean texts. Grounded in the theoretical framework (Cuddy et al., 2009), we outline three hypotheses the model must satisfy to confirm that it accurately represents the SCM: (1) the two dimensions hypothesis, (2) the ambivalent stereotypes hypothesis, and (3) the social structural correlates hypothesis. Additionally, we present a novel stereotype erasure method to remove a stereotype dimension from the KoSCM space.

To tackle the challenge of expensive NLP model development and improve the accessibility of SCM applications for a broader range of researchers, we present guidelines for SCM prompting. Our experiments with LLM prompting investigate zero-shot learning, in-context learning (ICL), and Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting in both English and Korean models. We find that the best performance is achieved through CoT prompting, particularly when definitions of warmth and competence are provided and when at least one demonstration includes examples of seed words used to derive the warmth/competence dimensions. We offer a website for CoT prompt generation¹.

We summarize our contributions listed above as follows:

- We present the first attempt at developing a framework to expand the stereotype content model into another language and culture.
- We develop KoSCM by following the proposed data curation steps that overcome the data annotation challenge and assess its validity as SCM using a theory-grounded method. We further present a stereotype erasure technique that can be utilized for bias mitigation.
- We identify that warmth-competence prediction is a challenging task for LLMs and provide SCM prompting guidelines to encourage

broader application of stereotype analysis.

2 Background and Related Work

In this section, we examine research on stereotyping in social psychology (§2.1) and computational methods for detecting stereotypes (§2.2).

2.1 Stereotyping in Social Psychology

Stereotyping is a cognitive process in which specific attributes are overly generalized to entire social groups. It is a ubiquitous phenomenon that contributes to the perpetuation of social inequalities. When specific qualities are attributed to entire groups, it reinforces existing power dynamics and legitimizes discriminatory practices.

Social stereotypes are complex and multifaceted constructs that influence social perception and interaction. Traditional approaches to understanding stereotypes have relied on simplistic categorizations, such as positive or negative. However, the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) (Fiske et al., 2002; Fiske, 2018) offers a more nuanced framework for understanding social stereotypes. The SCM posits that social perception is guided by two fundamental dimensions: *warmth* and *competence*. Warmth refers to the perceived intentions and friendliness of a group, while competence refers to the perceived abilities and effectiveness of a group. These dimensions are orthogonal, allowing for the possibility of positive stereotypes along one dimension and negative stereotypes along the other.

A natural follow-up question for researchers is whether these stereotype studies can be generalized across cultures. Given that stereotypes arise from fundamental human phenomena—namely, the need to distinguish between “friends” and “foes” and the ubiquity of hierarchical status differences and resource competition—it is reasonable to assume that these principles are universally applicable.

To investigate this hypothesis, Cuddy et al. (2009) conducted a cross-cultural study spanning seven European (individualist) and three East Asian (collectivist) nations. Their findings suggest that the SCM framework is effective across various cultures, reliably indicating group stereotypes based on structural connections with other groups. Building on this social study, we leverage a computational approach to validate their findings by expanding the application of SCM from English to Korean. To the best of our knowledge, this is the

¹anonymized link (See Figs. 5 and 6 for screenshots of the website.)

Dim.	Dir.	Num.	Example
W.	high	75	상냥한 ^{kind} , 친절한 ^{friendly}
	low	82	냉담한 ^{cold} , 불친절한 ^{unfriendly}
C.	high	68	유능한 ^{competent} , 영리한 ^{clever}
	low	60	무능한 ^{incompetent} , 멍청한 ^{stupid}

Table 1: **Statistics of Translated Korean Seed Words.** The first column denotes dimensions: warmth and competence, while the second column indicates their direction. The third column lists the number of data points. The final column provides example Korean seed words.

first work to study the SCM in a non-English language, non-western cultural setting.

2.2 Stereotype Content Model in NLP

The SCM has been extensively employed in various NLP applications to identify and mitigate stereotypical biases. For instance, researchers have utilized the SCM to detect stereotype subspaces in word embeddings (Fraser et al., 2021) and debias models by removing stereotype dimensions from the embedding space (Ungless et al., 2022; Omrani et al., 2023). Moreover, the SCM has been applied to assess benchmark datasets for bias (Fraser et al., 2021), examine how NLP models relate SCM dimensions to marginalized groups (Herold et al., 2022; Mina et al., 2024), and develop metrics to investigate biases across demographic and intersectional groups (Cao et al., 2022). Recent studies have further refined the SCM by exploring the construct differentiability of direction and representativeness for warmth and competence dimensions (Nicolas and Caliskan, 2024) and fine-graining stereotype dimensions into six psychologically-motivated categories to study occupation-related stereotypes (Fraser et al., 2024).

In recent years, researchers in NLP have expanded the study of bias and fairness to include non-English languages (Zhou et al., 2019; Chávez Mulsa and Spanakis, 2020; Kurpicz-Briki, 2020; Lauscher et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2020; Moon et al., 2020; Pujari et al., 2020; Takeshita et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020; Malik et al., 2021; Jeong et al., 2022), mirroring developments in social psychology. The SeeGULL dataset (Bhutani et al., 2024) has broadened its linguistic scope by introducing a multilingual stereotype dataset featuring 20 languages from 23 different regions. It includes Korean, but differs from our work in that it consists of pairs of associations between an iden-

tity term and an attribute generated by a language model. In contrast, our dataset and method are based on stereotyping theory from social psychology, utilizing seed words to identify stereotypes. This approach allows for broader applicability to various identity terms and social groups. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to expand the SCM lexicons to a different language.

3 Translating Stereotype

This section presents a framework for expanding the SCM to a different language. Four steps are followed to translate English SCM to Korean and create the dataset for KoSCM².

Step 1. Extract seed words The first step is to extract seed words for the stereotype content dictionary (Nicolas et al., 2019). The stereotype content dictionary is a collection of theory-driven seed words used to measure sociability, morality/trustworthiness, ability, status, assertiveness/dominance, and political and religious beliefs in relation to social groups. The list contains 341 words with their respective theoretical direction, either *high* or *low*, on their relevant dimension.

From the list, we select seed words that reflect warmth and competence dimensions. Specifically, words in sociability and morality categories are classified as warmth seed words, and those in ability and agency are classified as competence seed words. There are a total of 157 seed words associated with the warmth dimension and 128 for the competence dimension. Each seed word is labeled with a direction within its respective dimension. For example, the word “warm” is a high-direction seed word in the warmth dimension, whereas “cold” represents a low-direction seed word within the same dimension. Similarly, the word “competent” is an example of a high-direction seed word in the competence dimension, while “incompetent” is classified as having low direction in that dimension.

Step 2. Translate seed words Next, the extracted seed words are translated into Korean. The first step of translation is to adopt a machine translation model. We chose Naver Papago (Naver, 2025), one of the most popular Korean-English AI translators in Korea, to translate English seed words to Korean. Afterward, we validate the translation with an expert translator. The translator is asked to validate

²The dataset is available in anonymized link.

the translation by answering the following questions: (1) Is the translation grammatically correct (e.g., a noun is translated as a noun)? (2) Is a word translated into a distinct word (i.e., no recurrence in the translated list)? Through validation, we verify 285 Korean seed words labeled with stereotype dimension and direction in their corresponding dimension. Table 1 presents statistics and examples of seed words.

Step 3. Generate sentences with seed words

With the translated stereotype seed words, we generate sentences based on a template. Similar to May et al. (2019), sentences are generated by inserting individual seed words from the list of Korean stereotype words into simple templates such as “그 사람은 <seed word> 사람이다” (That person is a[n] <seed word> person). The templates are selected according to the part-of-speech (POS) tagging of the seed words. Further, the template words are chosen carefully to prevent the generated sentences from referencing specific social groups. For example, the pronouns “he” and “she” indicate a person’s gender. We intentionally refrain from using these pronouns as subjects because we aim to create a dataset centered on understanding the dimensions of warmth and competence. For more details, see Appendix A.

Step 4. Augment data with back-translation

To tackle the limitation of available Korean seed words and address challenges associated with low-resource scenarios, we utilize data augmentation. Sentences generated in Step 3 are augmented using back-translation (Sennrich et al., 2016; Domhan and Hieber, 2017; Belinkov and Bisk, 2018). Back-translation generates paraphrases by leveraging translation models. Initially, a text is translated into another language (forward translation) and then translated back into the original language. This process creates paraphrased sentences, introducing greater variety by allowing for diverse choices in terminology and sentence structure. While the content remains intact, stylistic features that reflect the author’s specific traits may be adjusted or omitted during translation.

For our dataset, we first translate the Korean sentences from Step 3 into English and then translate them back into Korean. We use the No Language Left Behind model (Team et al., 2022), a multilingual model that supports translation for 202 languages. This model is selected for two key reasons. First, it was designed to assist with low-resource

language translations. Second, it supports both Korean and English languages. As a result of the back-translation, we obtain a dataset containing 10,260 sentences.

4 Korean Stereotype Content Model

In this section, we detail how the KoSCM dataset, collected through the four steps of the stereotype translation framework, is utilized to build the SCM model. By fine-tuning a model with the dataset, we build KoSCM, which predicts the warmth and competence scores of given Korean sentences.

4.1 Method

We suggest a systematic method to develop a SCM model specific to the language model employed. We utilize an embedding model as its base, adding two classifiers on top. Each classifier predicts the directions of a given text in the warmth and competence dimensions, respectively. Namely, the two classifiers perform multi-class classification, identifying one of three potential directions: high, low, or none. Formally, we use two classifiers, f_w and f_c , to predict warmth and competence directions, respectively. These prediction tasks are formulated as multi-class classification problems with cross-entropy losses, \mathcal{L}_w and \mathcal{L}_c ; $\mathcal{L}_w = -\sum_{t \in D} W(t) \cdot \log(f_w(t))$ and $\mathcal{L}_c = -\sum_{t \in D} C(t) \cdot \log(f_c(t))$, where t is a text in the dataset D , and $W(t)$ and $C(t)$ are warmth and competence directions of the text t . The final loss of the model is the sum of the prediction losses: $\mathcal{L} = \alpha\mathcal{L}_w + \beta\mathcal{L}_c$, where α and β are hyperparameters.

4.2 Experimental Setup

We evaluate the proposed methods on the following models: (1) **Multilingual BERT (mBERT)**, BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) pre-trained on 104 languages with 110M parameters, (2) **Multilingual Sentence Transformer (mST)**, a modification of the Sentence Transformer (Reimers and Gurevych, 2019) aimed at adapting it for a new language using multilingual knowledge distillation, and (3) **Multilingual RoBERTa (mRoBERTa)** (Conneau et al., 2020), a multilingual version of RoBERTa pre-trained on 100 languages. See Appendix B for further details of the experimental settings.

4.3 Evaluation

Using our proposed method, we evaluate how effectively models trained on the KoSCM dataset

Model	Warmth	Competence
mBERT	0.923 (0.006)	0.938 (0.005)
mST	0.917 (0.010)	0.924 (0.006)
mRoBERTa	0.859 (0.023)	0.863 (0.010)

Table 2: **Evaluation of KoSCM.** The average accuracy (and standard deviation) of warmth and competence predictions are presented.

predict stereotypes. To assess the effectiveness of these models, we measure the accuracy of warmth and competence prediction on the test data. The results are presented in Table 2, which illustrates both the average and standard deviation of the prediction accuracies. In all three models, we observe competitive performance with high prediction accuracies for both warmth and competence. Notably, mBERT is the best-performing model, achieving accuracies of 0.923 for warmth and 0.938 for competence prediction.

To evaluate the generalization capacity of the KoSCM, we conduct additional tests to determine whether the computational analysis aligns with and supports the results obtained from the SCM survey conducted in South Korea (Cuddy et al., 2009). We leverage the best-performing model, mBERT, from our evaluation to measure the stereotype directions of various social groups. For this analysis, we utilize the Korean Offensive Language Dataset (KOLD) (Jeong et al., 2022). The dataset consists of comments collected from news articles and videos, with labels indicating group information among the 21 target group labels tailored to Korean culture. From the existing group labels, we select 19 groups that intersect with the 23 social groups in the survey and use these for analysis.

We assess the warmth and competence directions of texts that comment on a target group and calculate the average warmth and competence directions. Then, the groups are clustered using hierarchical cluster analysis, following the method of Cuddy et al. (2009). The results are illustrated in the SCM dimension in Figure 1. In general, we observe a significant overlap between our results and the survey findings. For instance, social groups such as “women,” “blue-collar,” and “Protestants” fall into the low-competence/high-warmth cluster, while groups like the “poor” and “unemployed” are categorized as low-competence/low-warmth. However, there are also outliers. For example, the group “public functionaries” is positioned in the

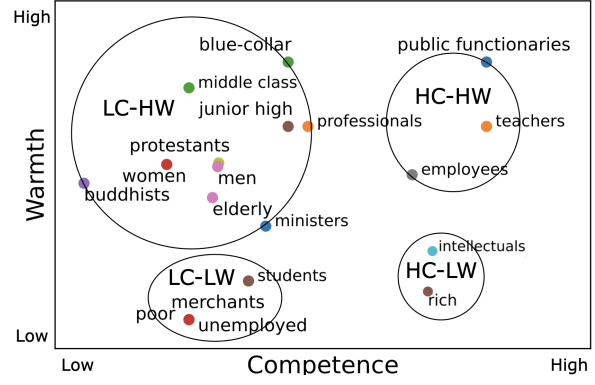


Figure 1: **Stereotypes of Groups Projected to the SCM Dimension.** Social groups are mapped according to their predicted warmth and competence by KoSCM.

high-competence/high-warmth cluster in our figure, but it falls within the low-competence/low-warmth cluster in the survey plot. This discrepancy may come from the lack of data since outliers like “public functionaries” have only nine text samples contributing to their classification.

4.4 SCM as a Pancultural Tool

We explore the applicability of the proposed computational method of the SCM for analyzing stereotypes across various languages and cultures. Based on the survey in Cuddy et al. (2009), we examine three key hypotheses of SCM: (1) the two dimensions hypothesis, (2) the ambivalent stereotypes hypothesis, and (3) the social structural correlates hypothesis.

Two Dimensions Hypothesis The first hypothesis posits that (1) within each sample, groups will be positioned along the dimensions of warmth and competence and that (2) based on their warmth and competence scores, groups will form multiple clusters, including some at both the high and low ends of each dimension. As shown in Figure 1, our results support this hypothesis, as groups are mapped along the warmth and competence dimensions. The figure reveals a structure that aligns with the SCM survey. We identify four distinct clusters that reflect both high and low scores on each dimension. Consistent with the survey findings, the largest cluster is the low-competence/high-warmth group, which encloses the majority of the sampled groups. Yet we observe that the high-competence/high-warmth cluster in the survey has a lower average warmth score compared to our findings. As discussed in Section 4.3, this dissimilarity may be attributed to outliers, such as the group “public functionaries”,

which suffered from insufficient data.

Ambivalent Stereotypes Hypothesis This hypothesis proposes that (1) within any given sample, there will be significant variations in perceptions of warmth and competence across different social groups and that (2) it predicts that cluster analyses will reveal at least one high-competence/low-warmth cluster and one low-competence/high-warmth cluster. This indicates that numerous groups are characterized as being adept in one area—either warmth or competence—while being perceived as lacking in the other.

Figure 1 shows four distinct clusters at each end, which supports the hypothesis that the four clusters of stereotype content, defined within the warmth-competence space, have universal characteristics. We observe that the groups “women” and “elderly” fall within the low-competence/high-warmth group. This supports the theory that groups seen as “gentle but useless”—often associated with a “pitying” prejudice—frequently include traditional women and older people (Jackman, 1994; Glick and Fiske, 2001b,a). In contrast, another significant stereotyped group includes those seen as skilled yet dishonest. Our analysis emphasizes individuals labeled as “intellectuals” and “rich” in this group. It shows that “envious” prejudice frequently targets those considered alarmingly skilled yet untrustworthy (Glick and Fiske, 2001b,a; Fiske et al., 2002; Glick, 2002). This dynamic highlights the complex relationship between admiration and disdain influencing societal perceptions.

Social Structural Correlates Hypothesis From the social structural correlates hypothesis, we validate whether perceived competition is anticipated to negatively correlate with warmth. In the survey, participants are asked to evaluate the perceived status and competition of various social groups. As we cannot access the information of commentators in the KOLD dataset, we utilize average wage statistics as a measure of perceived status. Socioeconomic status is a complex construct influenced by multiple factors, with income being a key component (Havranek et al., 2015). Lower-income individuals often experience social disadvantages such as limited access to quality education, poor working conditions, housing insecurity, and unsafe neighborhoods, leading to a reduced perceived status within society (Hernández, 2016; on Civil Rights, 2018). Therefore, we use income as a symbolic indicator of perceived status, high-

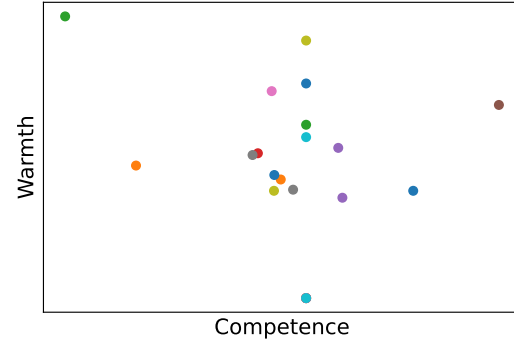


Figure 2: **SCM Dimension after Competence Erasure.** Social groups of Figure 1 after stereotype erasure of competence are mapped above.

lighting its significant impact on social standing.

The Korean Ministry of Employment and Labor publishes the Current Status of Wage Distribution by Business Characteristics every year³. We reference the 2024 report to extract the average income across different social groups. This report offers average wage data categorized by labor industry, gender, and years of experience. Due to the ambiguity in categorizing jobs within non-occupational social groups, e.g., “intellectuals” and “rich,” we exclude these groups from this analysis. The report includes gender data for all jobs, so the average income for each gender is computed to represent the perceived status of groups “women” and “men.”

Next, we calculate the correlation coefficient between the average wage and competence for the social groups. The correlation coefficient is computed as: $\text{cov}(\text{wage}, \text{competence}) / (\sigma_{\text{wage}} \cdot \sigma_{\text{competence}})$. The calculated correlation value is 0.71, a positive correlation that supports the hypothesis. In the survey, South Korea has a correlation of 0.64, and the average of all 13 surveys shows a correlation of 0.79.

4.5 Stereotype Erasure

We propose a stereotype erasure that adopts the least-squares concept erasure (LEACE) (Belrose et al., 2023) to remove a stereotype dimension of the SCM model. LEACE performs concept erasure for linear classifiers by applying a transformation that minimizes the distance between the original and transformed features. Given an input X and a concept Z , LEACE first subtracts the mean and normalizes X ; then projects this adjusted value onto the subspace that captures the correlations between X and Z . After that, it reverses the normalization

³Ministry of Employment and Labor website

process. Lastly, it subtracts this adjusted value from X , eliminating the linear information that is available about Z .

Formally, $\text{LEACE}(x) = x - W^+ P_{W\Sigma_{XZ}} W(x - \mathbb{E}[X])$, where W is the whitening transformation $(\Sigma_{XX}^{1/2})^+$ and $P_{W\Sigma_{XZ}} = (W\Sigma_{XZ})(W\Sigma_{XZ})^+$ is the orthogonal projection onto the column space of $(W\Sigma_{XZ})$.

For the stereotype erasure, we introduce two modifications. Firstly, we present a method for applying stereotype erasure on unseen, unsupervised datasets. Our approach involves extracting stereotype information from the KoSCM dataset. Then, we utilize this learned stereotype information to erase a stereotype dimension in datasets without warmth and competence labels, such as KOLD. This allows us to learn a stereotype direction in the warmth/competence dimension and expand it to unseen data without stereotype information. Secondly, as Z is assumed to be binary, we reassign the KoSCM labels to reflect the presence or absence of directional information within the stereotype dimension because the goal is to eliminate any directional cues. If a text t has either a high or low direction, we assign its label to 1. If there is no direction, we assign it to zero.

Let l_w and l_c be direction labels of warmth and competence of a given text t in the dataset D . For $(t, l_w, l_c) \in D$, $l' = |l|$, where l' is the label for the stereotype erasure and l is a label of the chosen stereotype S for erasure. Then, for a text t' in a target dataset D' , the stereotype erasure equation is:

$$g(t') = t' - W^+ P_{W\Sigma_{D'L'}} W(t' - \mathbb{E}[D]) \quad (1)$$

Figure 2 illustrates the result of the stereotype erasure. The proposed method removes competence information from the KOLD data, resulting in a notable shift in the representation of social groups. We see that these groups are now positioned closer to the center of the plot, indicating that their competence scores are nearer to zero, especially when compared to the original depiction in Figure 1. We acknowledge that the method has its limitations, likely due to insufficient training data samples, as indicated by the outliers at the edges of the plot.

5 SCM Prompting for LLMs

In this section, we propose guidelines for effectively prompting LLMs to enhance stereotype detection. Our evaluations include testing the perfor-

Lang	Model	Method	Warm.	Comp.
Eng	Llama	Zero	0.617	0.544
		ICL	0.584	0.523
		CoT	0.694	0.657
	Qwen	Zero	0.789	0.658
		ICL	0.769	0.643
		CoT	0.793	0.750
	DeepSeek	Zero	0.512	0.417
		ICL	0.548	0.462
		CoT	0.557	0.487
Kor	kLlama	Zero	0.489	0.468
		ICL	0.658	0.607
		CoT	0.607	0.656
	Qwen	Zero	0.0	0.0
		ICL	0.596	0.522
		CoT	0.493	0.563

Table 3: **Evaluation of SCM Prompting.** The table displays the average accuracies of predictions on warmth and competence. Each model’s best performance is highlighted in bold.

mance of LLMs in both English and Korean. To assess their capabilities, we compare various approaches: zero-shot learning, in-context learning (ICL), and Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting. Refer to Appendix D for the prompt formulation.

5.1 Experimental Setup

We evaluate the proposed methods on the following models: (1) **Llama** (Grattafiori et al., 2024), a Transformer model with 405B parameters, (2) **Qwen** (Qwen et al., 2025), an LLM pre-trained on 18 trillion tokens that supports both Korean and English, (3) **DeepSeek** (DeepSeek-AI et al., 2025), an LLM only trained with reinforcement learning, and (4) **Korean Llama (kLlama)** (Choi et al., 2024), Llama 3.2 fine-tuned with Korean texts using instruction tuning.

5.2 Results

We initially begin our investigation by testing various prompting methods in LLMs that support the Korean language, utilizing the KoSCM dataset. Our findings reveal that the prediction accuracies for these models are significantly lower compared to those achieved by embedding models. As indicated in Table 3, the prediction accuracies of warmth and competence for kLlama range from 0.4 to 0.7. This is significantly lower than the lowest accuracy of the embedding models, approximately 0.85. To de-

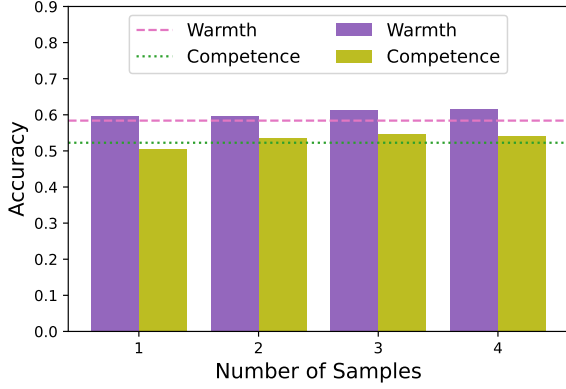


Figure 3: **Comparison Between ICL and Fine-tuning.** The bar plots indicates the average accuracies of warmth and competence predictions for ICL, and the dotted line are those of the fine-tuned model.

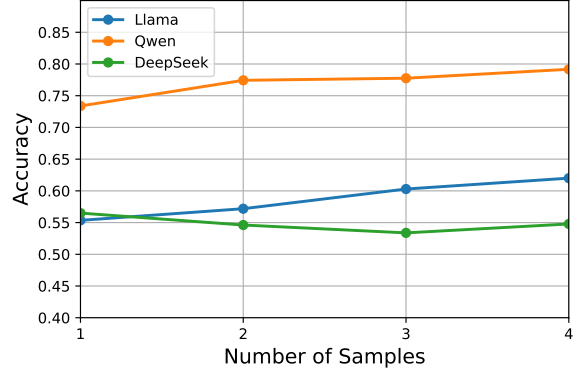


Figure 4: **ICL Performance on Warmth Prediction.** The plot displays the average accuracies of warmth prediction for ICL.

termine whether this subpar performance is related to the fact that Korean is considered a low-resource language in the context of LLM training, we conduct additional tests using the prompting methods in English. The performance improves when tested in English. Still, the accuracy is lower than that of the fine-tuned models. Given studies indicating that the distribution of pretraining data greatly affects ICL performance (Shin et al., 2022; Yadlowsky et al., 2023; Raventós et al., 2023), we deduce that the low results are due to insufficient exposure to similar data during the pretraining phase.

To see if we can further improve the performance of LLMs, we fine-tune Llama with an English SCM dataset of 10k sentences generated with our proposed method (§ 3). The fine-tuned Llama achieves average accuracies of 0.584 for warmth predictions and 0.523 for competence predictions. As shown in Figure 3, the performance is not much better than that of ICL. Overall, LLMs perform best with CoT prompting. In English, CoT consistently outperforms other approaches across all models tested. In contrast, for Korean, ICL achieves the highest accuracy for warmth predictions and CoT for competence predictions.

For all three approaches, we identify several effective strategies to enhance performance when curating instruction prompts. First, instruct the model specifically to conduct a warmth and competence prediction. Writing an instruction that only states “a stereotype detection” may frequently result in refusal due to ethical concerns. Second, include sample seed words of warmth and competence in the instruction. This approach has shown a significant boost in performance, particularly in Ko-

rean contexts. The implied nuances can easily get lost in translation, so clearly outlining examples of warmth and competence dimensions can substantially enhance the model’s effectiveness.

For ICL, we observe that the performance of Llama and Qwen improves as the number of samples increases, illustrated in Figure 4. In contrast, DeepSeek exhibits consistent performance. Similarly, the CoT approach showed stability in its performance, irrespective of sample size (See Appendix E). Based on these results, the consistent ICL performance of DeepSeek may be attributed to the fact that it generates CoT responses, even with ICL prompts.

6 Conclusion

Our approach demonstrates the potential of the SCM as a cross-cultural tool by adapting it to the Korean language. Our proposed method addresses the challenge of data annotation by leveraging existing seed words. We validate our model using criteria grounded in social psychology theory and also introduce a method for erasing stereotypes. We provide guidelines for prompt engineering to enhance stereotype predictions. This opens up possibilities for expanding the computational application of the SCM to a broader range of researchers across languages and cultures. We observe that predicting warmth and competence is a challenging task for LLMs, suggesting an opportunity for further investigation. This study marks the first attempt to adapt the SCM to the Korean language, aiming to enhance the understanding of stereotypes across cultures. In the future, we plan to broaden our research by adding more languages to promote the development of more inclusive language models.

Limitations

We recognize several limitations that may impact the validity of our findings. Despite our efforts to minimize authorial bias, there remains a possibility for such bias to influence both the experimental design and analysis. For example, the process of clustering social groups is inherently affected by the selection of hyperparameters, which can significantly alter the resulting clusters. Additionally, our decisions in curating prompts for sampling from the dataset and crafting the prompt texts introduce further elements of bias. Hence, these decisions may result in selection bias, which could ultimately impact the conclusions drawn from our study.

Furthermore, our data and experiments are limited by scale constraints. Unlike the abundance of resources available for English models and datasets, there is a significant lack of open-source Korean datasets and models, which has limited our efforts. This insufficient data may suggest that the models utilized in this research are not performing at the same level as their English counterparts. For instance, while conducting back-translation in the data curation process, we observed significant noise in the generated data, which might indicate the difficulties posed by limited resources.

Ethical Considerations

We curate and publish the KoSCM dataset, which is used for training and evaluating KoSCM. This dataset is based on a specific social psychology theory known as the SCM, meaning our research investigates stereotypes within this particular framework. As a result, our dataset and analysis do not encompass the complete range of perspectives on stereotypes. Therefore, we advise researchers utilizing the KoSCM dataset and the proposed translation framework to be mindful of these limitations and encourage them to explore additional methodologies to gain a more comprehensive understanding of stereotypes.

We strongly recommend against using this research for harmful purposes, including the promotion and dissemination of stereotypical biases.

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1309	sociation for Computational Linguistics.	
1310	A Templates for Sentence Generation	
1311	In this section, we describe the details of the tem-	
1312	plates used for generating sentences in Section 3.	
1313	The templates are curated based on the part-of-	
1314	speech (POS) tagging of the seed words. The cu-	
1315	rated seed words contain noun and adjective tags.	
	Based on those tags, we utilize the two templates	1316
	in Table 4. The subject words for the templates are	1317
	chosen carefully to ensure that the generated sen-	1318
	tences do not contain information about specific	1319
	social groups. For instance, the pronouns “he” and	1320
	“she” indicate a person’s gender. We chose to avoid	1321
	using these pronouns as subjects because our ob-	1322
	jective is to develop a dataset focused on learning	1323
	the dimensions of warmth and competence. The	1324
	subject words used for the templates are: [“나” (I),	1325
	“너” (You), “우리” (We), “그 사람” (That person),	1326
	“저 사람” (That person), “이 사람” (This person)].	1327
	With the curated templates, a total of 3,420 sen-	1328
	tences are generated. Here are sample sentences	1329
	generated using the templates: “나는 능력이 있다.”	1330
	(I am competent.), “그 사람은 친절한 사람이다.”	1331
	(That person is a kind person.).	1332
	B Experimental Settings	1333
	All models are implemented with PyTorch (Paszke	1334
	et al., 2019) and Huggingface’s Transformers	1335
	(Wolf et al., 2020). For training, we use the Adam	1336
	optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015) and set the learn-	1337
	ing rate from $\{1e - 05, 2e - 05\}$, an epoch as 10,	1338
	a dropout rate of 0.3, and hyperparameters α and	1339
	β as 1 . All experiments are conducted on a Nvidia	1340
	Quatro RTX 5000, 16 GB memory GPU in a ma-	1341
	chine with Intel(R) Xeon(R) Silver 4214 CPU @	1342
	2.20GHz.	1343
	C The SCM CoT prompt Generator	1344
	When seed words and their corresponding direc-	1345
	tions are given, the website generates a CoT prompt	1346
	suitable for use in a selected LLM. The site is avail-	1347
	able in both English and Korean, as shown in the	1348
	screenshots (Figures 5 and 6).	1349
	D LLM Prompts for Warmth and	1350
	Competence Predictions	1351
	English and Korean prompts for warmth and com-	1352
	petence predictions are shown in Table 5. The first	1353
	two rows display a system prompt that is provided	1354
	for all learning prompts. In zero-shot learning, only	1355
	the system prompt and a single sentence are pre-	1356
	sented, and the model must predict the direction of	1357
	warmth and competence for the given sentence. In	1358
	in-context learning (ICL), a sentence is provided	1359
	along with its corresponding labels as an example	1360
	for the model. Users can choose the number of	1361
	examples to present to the model.	1362

POS	Template	English Translation
NOUN	[SUBJECT]은/는 <seed word>이/가 있다.	[SUBJECT] has <seed word>.
ADJECTIVE	[SUBJECT]은/는 <seed word> 사람이다.	[SUBJECT] is a[n] <seed word> person.

Table 4: **Templates for Sentence Generation.** The table shows two different sentence templates based on the POS tagging of a seed word. English versions of Korean templates are provided for reference.

	Prompt
Zero	<p>{ "role": "system", "content": "당신은 친밀함(친근함, 친절함, 성실함, 따뜻함 등의 특징)과 능력(능력, 숙련도, 자신감, 효과성 등의 특징)에서 고정관념을 감지하는 서비스를 제공합니다. 주어진 글의 친밀함과 능력 점수를 -1, 0, 1 중에 하나로 매깁니다. }</p> <p>{ "role": "system", "content": "You are an assistant for detecting stereotypes in warmth(characteristics such as friendliness, good-naturedness, sincerity, and warmth) and competence(traits including capability, skillfulness, confidence, and effectiveness). Score the warmth and competence of a given sentence in one of the three scores: -1, 0, or 1. }</p>
ICL	<p>{ "role": "user", "content": <sentence> }, { "role": "assistant", "content": "온기 <w dir>, 능력 <c dir>" } } × # samples</p> <p>{ "role": "user", "content": <sentence> }, { "role": "assistant", "content": "Warmth <w dir>, Competence <c dir>" } } × # samples</p>
CoT	<p>{ "role": "user", "content": <sentence> }, { "role": "assistant", "content": "차근차근 생각해봅시다. 주어진 문장에서 <w dir> 친밀함을 나타내는 단어는 <w seed word>이다. 주어진 문장에서 <c dir> 능력을 나타내는 단어는 <c seed words>이다. 그러므로 온기 <w dir>, 능력 <c dir>" }</p> <p>{ "role": "user", "content": <sentence> }, { "role": "assistant", "content": "Let's think step by step. The word <w seed word> has <w dir> warmth. The word <c seed word> has <c dir> competence. So Warmth <w dir>, Competence <c dir>" }</p>

Table 5: **Prompts for Warmth and Competence Predictions.** The table above shows the prompt used for zero-shot learning, in-context learning, and Chain-of-thought prompting with LLMs.

For Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting, a selected number of examples are given to the model, similar to in-context learning. However, the difference is in the example answers, which provide more detailed explanations. The model is instructed to think step by step, and then it is presented with the seed words that help determine the direction of warmth and competence.

E SCM Prompting

We evaluate how to effectively prompt LLMs to enhance stereotype detection in the English SCM dataset. To assess their capabilities, we test in-context learning (ICL) and Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting on Llama, Qwen, and DeepSeek. Figures 4 and 7 show the performance of ICL in warmth and competence predictions, respectively.

For Llama and Qwen, we notice that performance improves as the number of samples increases. On the other hand, for DeepSeek, we observe a plateau. This difference may be from the observation that even with ICL prompts, DeepSeek generates responses that are similar to a CoT approach. As shown in Figures 8 and 9, which illustrate the performance of CoT as the number of samples increases, the performance of CoT remains stable regardless of the number of samples provided. The resemblance between these figures and the ICL performance of DeepSeek supports our conjecture. In all cases, we observe that LLMs perform better in predicting warmth than competence.

The Stereotype Content Model Chain-of-Thoughts Prompt Generator

Warmth

Seed word:

Direction: ('high' or 'low')

Competence

Seed word:

Direction: ('high' or 'low')

You are an assistant for detecting stereotypes in warmth (characteristics such as friendliness, good-naturedness, sincerity, and warmth) and competence (traits including capability, skillfulness, confidence, and effectiveness). Score the warmth and competence of a given sentence in one of the three scores: -1, 0, or 1. Let's think step by step. Sentence: A person is kind and lazy Assistant: The word kind has high warmth. The word lazy has low competence. So warmth score is 1, and competence score is -1. Sentence: <INSERT SENTENCE>

Figure 5: The SCM CoT Prompt Generator in English. A screenshot of the prompt generator website in English is shown above.

편견 모델 (The Stereotype Content Model) 프롬프트 생성기

친밀함

단어:

방향: ('높은' 또는 '낮은')

능력

단어:

방향: ('높은' or '낮은')

당신은 친밀함(친근함, 친절함, 성실함, 따뜻함 등의 특징)과 능력(능력, 숙련도, 자신감, 효과성 등의 특징)에서 고정관념을 감지하는 서비스를 제공합니다. 주어진 글의 친밀함과 능력 점수를 -1, 0, 1 중에 하나로 매깁니다. 문장: 그 사람은 친절하고 게으른 사람이다 답변: 주어진 문장에서 높은 친밀함을 나타내는 단어는 친절함 이다. 주어진 문장에서 낮은 능력을 나타내는 단어는 게으른 이다. 그러므로 친밀함은 1, 능력은 -1. 문장: <INSERT SENTENCE>

Figure 6: The SCM CoT Prompt Generator in Korean. A screenshot of the prompt generator website in Korean is shown above.

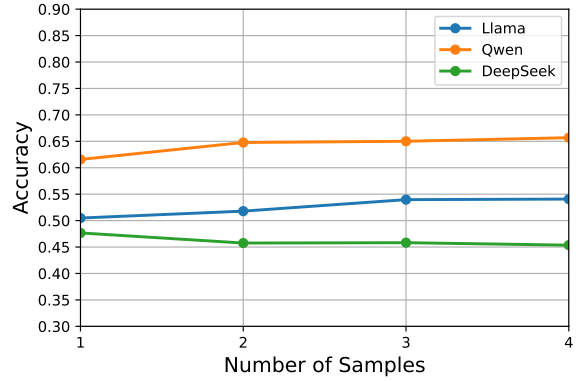


Figure 7: ICL performance on competence prediction. The plot displays the average accuracies of competence prediction for ICL. The x-axis represents the number of samples presented to a model.

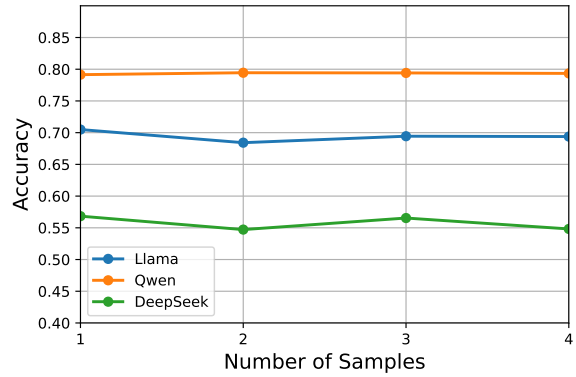


Figure 8: CoT performance on warmth prediction. The plot displays the average accuracies of warmth prediction for CoT. The x-axis represents the number of samples presented to a model.

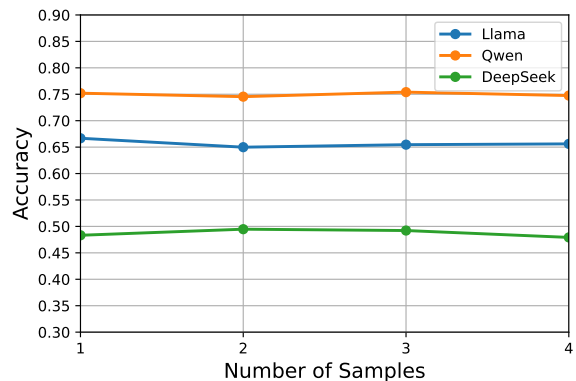


Figure 9: CoT performance on competence prediction. The plot displays the average accuracies of competence prediction for CoT. The x-axis represents the number of samples presented to a model.