

FineDeb: A Debaised Finetuning Approach for Language Models

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Abstract

As language models are increasingly included in human-facing machine learning tools, bias against demographic subgroups has gained attention. We consider the problem of debiasing in language models. Rather than modifying a model’s already learned representations, we focus on modifying them during model training itself. We propose a two-phase methodology (FineDeb) that starts with contextual debiasing of embeddings learned by the language models during training, then finetunes the model on the original language modelling objective. We apply our method to debias for demographics with multiple classes, demonstrating its effectiveness through extensive experiments and comparing with state of the art techniques, and on three metrics.

1 Introduction & Related Work

Machine learning tools that rely on natural language processing (NLP) are increasingly being developed for scenarios with immediate impact on individuals, such as healthcare (Velupillai et al., 2018), conversational agents (Zhang et al., 2020), and legal systems (Dale, 2019). While the language models here vary in the type of embeddings used, they rely on representations that may reflect or exhibit bias (Manzini et al., 2019; Bolukbasi et al., 2016). When used in downstream tasks such as prediction, health care diagnoses, or other decision-making, such representations can amplify bias and result in discriminatory actions against individuals in disadvantaged demographic subgroups. Our focus in the present paper is on such representational harms (Blodgett et al., 2020).

There is prior work that relies on word embeddings to analyze bias and proposes debiasing techniques for NLP methods. Debiasing on word embeddings was first introduced by Bolukbasi et al. (2016) and further refined to enable debiasing on multiple classes by Manzini et al. (2019). However, recent advances in NLP have been focused on

large pretrained transformer-based language models (LM) such as BERT and GPT. Such models differ in that rather than considering individual word embeddings, they create representations that take into account large and connected components such as sentences and context. For comprehensive bias mitigation we must consider bias in the context of sentences, beyond mere word embeddings. We therefore focus on bias in transformer-based contextual LMs.

There has been some recent work on bias in such models (Liang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022), which, like much of prior work focus on debiasing of representations. Previous work (Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2020, 2021) apply debiasing techniques on embeddings after bias subspaces in these representations have been detected. While such techniques attempt to create debaised representations, downstream tasks may not necessarily reflect debaised language. Furthermore, good performance on those downstream tasks, such as language generation that makes sense, must still be an objective. Bordia and Bowman (2019) thus act on the training objective by adding a regularizer for debiasing. Similar to this but instead of a regularizer, our method uses an entirely new training objective to minimize distance between relevant embeddings.

A further limitation of state of the art debiasing techniques is that they largely consider demographics with binary classes or when they consider multiple classes, they focus on the three largest subgroups (Manzini et al., 2019). In real scenarios, social disadvantage is represented through more than the binary or majority/minority dichotomy, with demographic groups containing many classes. We apply our debiasing methodology on demographics with multiple classes.

In this work we propose a debiasing method - FineDeb, for large pretrained LMs, with two phases of fine tuning: one for debiasing and one for im-

proving LM performance. In the debiasing phase we modify representations by using a training objective that minimizes the distance between embeddings of target words while considering their sentence contexts. In a second phase, we further finetune the model in an attempt to restore the LM performance. We thus extend prior work in several ways: by debiasing on LM models rather than word embeddings, including the debiasing objective in the training itself, including multiple classes in the debiasing phase, and further fine tuning for LM performance.

2 Data

We use two types of data - one for the debiasing phase and one for the LM finetuning phase.

Debiasing Data Our methodology starts by first finetuning the LM with a new objective function on a debiasing dataset, which consists of examples of debiased sentences. The debiased sentence examples are created using word lists crafted with multiple classes per demographic (in english language). Our final debiased model is thus trained by debiasing for multiple classes. Note that this is a novel contribution beyond word lists with pairs created previously.

Our word lists are compiled from various sources, both online¹ and existing work (Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2018), to create a list of target word tuples for each demographic (race, religion and gender). The word list contains 2 classes for gender², 5 classes for race, and 7 classes for religion. For each demographic, the word list consists of several tuples of target words, where within each tuple the words are comparable. For example, ("Muslim", "Christian", "Jewish", "Hindu", "Buddhist", "Confucianist", "Taoist") is one tuple within the religion word list. We compile 10 word tuples for Race, 32 for Religion and 158 for Gender. We make the word lists freely available in our codebase, providing samples in Appendix D.

In order to generate our final debiasing dataset, we first craft sentence templates from the RedditBias (Barikeri et al., 2021) dataset. RedditBias is a dataset of human conversation data from Reddit across four demographics: *gender*, *race*, *religion*, and *queerness*. We convert all sentences containing the former three demographics into sentence templates by removing the target words. An example

¹Wiki: Religious Groups, Lumen: Religions, Wiki: Race

²NLP datasets have limited data for other gender classes

for race would be "*all _____ are criminals*". During the training process we choose a relevant word tuple and sample target words from different classes such as *Black* and *White* to generate sentence pairs that differ in only the target word. We generate such sentence sets pairwise among all classes.

LM Finetuning Data Taking inspiration from prior work (Qian et al., 2019; Bordia and Bowman, 2019), we use CNN-DailyMail (Hermann et al., 2015) for our language model finetuning objective. It consists of 300,000+ English news articles.

3 FineDeb

Our method, FineDeb, adopts a two phase approach for training. In the first phase, we debias the model by modifying the embeddings learned by the language model, and in the second phase, we finetune the debiased model on the original language modeling objective. Our method is demonstrated on a BERT model (Devlin et al., 2019), specifically *bert-base-uncased*. All hyperparameters are listed in Appendix B.

3.1 Debiasing Phase

In the debiasing phase, we train our model using the sentence pairs generated in Section 2. Our training objective is inspired by the traditional method of determining relationships between pairs of words by computing the distance between their embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013; Bolukbasi et al., 2016). However, when we consider that most modern language models are contextual in nature (Devlin et al., 2019), the same word may have different meanings based on the context in which the word is used. For instance, the word "*temple*" could refer to a building or a part of the human body. Thus it becomes important to perform our debiasing only in those contexts where the bias may exist. Given two near-identical sentences that differ only by a target word (or phrase), we first compute the difference between the embeddings of the two sentences (using their [CLS] token embedding as in Devlin et al. (2019)) and the difference between the embeddings of the target words in each sentence. Our training objective then minimizes the difference between these two quantities to debias the model. In other words, the difference between the embeddings of the two sentences should be equal to the difference between the embeddings of the two target words as the sentences are otherwise identical. Formally, our loss function is as follows:

$L(S_1, S_2, W_1, W_2) = \mathcal{D}(S_1 - S_2, W_1 - W_2)$,
 where S_i is the embedding for sentence i , W_i is
 the embedding for the target word in sentence i ,
 and $\mathcal{D}(\cdot)$ is the distance between the two quantities
 (we use Mean Squared Error). Taking an example
 from Nangia et al. (2020), if we had two sentences
 "The crafty Jews made a plan to steal the money."
 and "The crafty Christians made a plan to steal the
 money.", W_1 and W_2 would be the embeddings of
 "Jews" and "Christians" respectively, while S_1 and
 S_2 would respectively be the sentence embeddings.

3.2 LM Finetuning Phase

Pre-trained language models generally consist of a
 model which generates embeddings for words and
 a language modeling head (LM head) which gives
 probabilities for each of the words based on these
 embeddings. In the case of our debiasing strategy,
 we only update the embedding-generating model
 and not the LM head. Thus the weights of the LM
 head become incompatible with the new embed-
 dings, leading to a poor language modeling ability.
 To remedy this, we finetune the entire model (de-
 biased model + LM head) on the standard BERT
 language modeling objective (masked word predic-
 tion) using the CNN-DailyMail dataset. During this
 finetuning process, we freeze the debiased model
 so that the embeddings do not change, and only the
 weights in the LM head are updated. This results in
 an LM head compatible with the debiased model.
 While this method of improving the language mod-
 eling ability of our model may re-introduce some
 biases that exist in the CNN-DailyMail dataset, it
 does not eliminate the effects of our debiasing as
 we show in our results.

4 Metrics

We evaluate FineDeb on the three demographics
 of gender, race, and religion using three metrics:
 StereoSet, SEAT, and Crow-S Pairs. These metrics
 differ in how bias is evaluated, the data used in
 evaluating bias, and whether the language model-
 ing performance is considered.

StereoSet Following recent work (Meade et al.,
 2021; Zhang et al., 2022), we use StereoSet
 (Nadeem et al., 2021) to evaluate our work. Stere-
 oSet measures the Stereotype Score (SS) which
 gives a measure of bias and the Language Mod-
 eling Score (LMS) which determines performance
 at language modeling tasks. There is a trade-off
 here, as a model could be perfectly unbiased but

be a poor language model (or vice versa). Thus the
 authors provide a combined measure named ICAT.
 Following prior work (Meade et al., 2021), we use
 the intrasentence variant of StereoSet.

Crow-S Pairs The Crowdsourced Stereotype
 Pairs (Crow-S Pairs) (Nangia et al., 2020) uses
 crowdsourced pairs of sentences that differ only by
 a small number of tokens such that one sentence
 reflects a stereotype while the other violates that
 stereotype. Under this metric, a perfect model is
 equally likely to pick the stereotypical sentence as
 it is to pick the anti-stereotypical sentence. This
 metric does not test the language modeling ability
 of the model but covers a wide variety of biases.

SEAT Sentence Encoder Association Test
 (SEAT) (May et al., 2019) is a sentence level
 extension of the WEAT metric (Caliskan et al.,
 2017) which measures bias between two sets
 of attribute words and two sets of target words.
 Specifically, SEAT uses sentence templates to
 obtain representations of words. The metric is
 measured in terms of the average effect size across
 several tests, where a value closer to 0 indicates
 a lower degree of bias but it does not test the
 language modeling ability of the model.

5 Results and Discussion

We compare FineDeb on 3 demographics against
 2 baselines and 5 prior works. Our baselines are
 pre-trained BERT and a pretrained BERT model
 where only the LM finetuning phase is applied. We
 include results on this latter model to show that
 the LM finetuning phase does not significantly al-
 ter bias in the model compared to the base BERT
 model, and any change in bias in our model is
 strictly due to our debiasing phase. This is evident
 in the results which show that BERT with LM fine-
 tuning is on par with or slightly better than the base
 BERT model for all listed metrics. We also com-
 pare with state of the art methods - CDA, Dropout,
 INLP, Self-Debias and, Sentence Debias, the re-
 sults of which we cite from Meade et al. (2021).

We first present results³ on the StereoSet metric
 in Table 1. Under the SS measure, FineDeb out-
 performs all techniques for all three demographics.
 Under the LMS measure, Self-Debias, Sentence
 Debias, and the baselines have the best or second
 best results, across different demographics. It is

³Evaluation code taken from Nadeem et al. (2021) (StereoSet) and Meade et al. (2021) (SEAT and Crow-S)

Table 1: StereoSet evaluation. LMS indicates Language Modeling Score, SS is the Stereotype Score, ICAT is the overall score. Higher is better for LMS & ICAT, closer to 50 is better for SS (**Best**; Next Best).

StereoSet	Gender			Race			Religion		
	LMS	SS	ICAT	LMS	SS	ICAT	LMS	SS	ICAT
BERT	84.17	60.28	66.86	84.17	57.03	72.34	84.17	59.70	67.84
BERT (LM finetuning)	85.01	59.01	<u>69.69</u>	83.78	56.38	73.08	83.07	61.47	64.01
FineDeb	77.70	53.27	72.62	75.37	50.82	<u>74.13</u>	74.10	50.39	73.52
CDA	83.08	59.61	67.11	83.41	56.73	72.18	83.24	58.37	69.31
Dropout	83.04	60.66	65.34	83.04	57.07	71.30	83.04	59.13	67.88
INLP	80.63	<u>57.25</u>	68.94	83.12	57.29	71.00	83.36	60.31	66.17
Self-Debias	84.09	59.34	68.38	84.24	<u>54.30</u>	77.00	<u>84.23</u>	<u>57.26</u>	<u>72.00</u>
Sentence Debias	<u>84.20</u>	59.37	68.42	83.95	57.78	70.89	84.26	58.73	69.55

Table 2: SEAT: Average effect size for each demographic. BERT (LM finetuning) & Self-Debias do not modify internal representations and so have the same SEAT score as BERT. Lower is better (**Best**; Next Best).

	Gender	Race	Religion
BERT	0.62	0.62	0.49
FineDeb	<u>0.36</u>	0.62	0.67
CDA	0.72	<u>0.57</u>	0.34
Dropout	0.77	0.55	<u>0.38</u>
INLP	0.20	0.64	0.46
Sentence Debias	0.43	0.61	0.44

Table 3: Crow-S Pairs: Metric scores for each demographic. Closer to 50 is better (**Best**; Next Best).

	Gender	Race	Religion
BERT	57.25	62.33	62.86
BERT (LM finetuning)	57.63	62.91	58.10
FineDeb	54.58	65.24	44.76
CDA	56.11	56.70	60.00
Dropout	55.34	<u>59.03</u>	55.24
INLP	51.15	67.96	60.95
Self-Debias	<u>52.29</u>	56.70	<u>56.19</u>
Sentence Debias	<u>52.29</u>	62.72	63.81

expected that our method not perform best on the LMS measure since we focus first and foremost on debiasing. However the reduction in LMS performance is not too severe since under the combined measure of ICAT our model performs best for gender and religion, and second best for race.

For SEAT (Table 2), our method performs second best for gender, while for race and religion we do better than one method and no other methods respectively. We note that SEAT measures distances between embeddings, whereas the StereoSet metric is based on final word outputs. Further, SEAT does not measure LM performance. We reason that since discriminatory harm is manifested due to contextual outputs from language models and not just their representations, a metric such as StereoSet, which considers both a measure of final LM performance, as well as a measure of the bias in contextual outputs, more accurately represents real-world impact of bias.

The results for Crow-S (Table 3) show that for religion, FineDeb outperforms all others, with similar performance as Dropout. For gender, our method beats the baseline and two other methods, but performs poorly for race. Crow-S measures bias similarly to StereoSet by considering whether a stereotypical sentence is preferred among sentence pairs. The sentences in a pair, however, differ on attributes rather than target words. We cannot be certain if this difference accounts for the differing results, but we note that Crow-S does not measure LM ability, an important component of any model.

Considering results over the three demographics, all benchmarks, and across all three metrics, FineDeb contributes significantly to both debiasing and attempting to maintain LM performance. Our debiasing technique can be considered stronger than other methods - the training objective itself is to minimize embedding distance, which may to some extent even lead to a distortion in the embeddings. This is seen in the StereoSet SS measures that are nearly perfect and in the somewhat poorer scores for LMS and SEAT. For the ICAT measure which combines debiasing and LM performance our method performs the best or second best, suggesting a better overall performance for our method.

There are a few avenues for future work in this area. Namely, expanding our work to include more classes (such as in gender) or to other demographics; a more comprehensive analysis of our model on downstream tasks; replacing our current two-phase training approach with a single phase of interleaved debiasing and finetuning. Further, current metrics for bias rely on comparisons of either target words or attribute words, resulting in varying performance across the different techniques. This suggests the need for a more comprehensive metric on bias that is agnostic to the debiasing technique.

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A Limitations 477

We believe that our work has the following limita- 478
tions: 479

- Our results (Section 5) indicate that, our de- 480
biasing approach results in a strongly debi- 481
ased model at the cost of LM ability. This 482
remains true even after finetuning to improve 483
our LM performance. Thus our approach 484
is more suited towards cases, such as story 485
telling and recommendation systems, where it 486
is important to have as little bias as possible, 487
while slightly compromising on the language 488
modeling ability of the model. 489
- There may be cases where we want a bias to 490
exist. For example, in the sentence "The ____ 491
man went to the mosque.", the probability of 492
"Muslim" should be higher than the probabili- 493
ty of "Christian" or "Jew". While people of 494
any religion could go to a mosque, a person 495
who follows Islam is far more likely. This 496
falls under explainable bias (Mehrabi et al., 497
2021). 498
- While our method is effective, it relies heavily 499
on the word lists that we have compiled to the 500
best of our knowledge. These are by no means 501
fully representative of all bias targets for a 502
given demographic and there is still scope for 503
expansion. 504

B Hyperparameters 505

Considering the trade-off between bias reduction 506
and LM performance discussed in this paper, we 507
experiment with different dataset sizes for both the 508
debiasing phase and LM finetuning phase. Intu- 509
itively, a larger debiasing dataset size would lead 510
to a higher bias reduction but poorer LM perfor- 511
mance. On the other hand, a large LM finetuning 512
dataset would lead to higher bias but also better 513
LM performance. The debiasing dataset sampling 514
size is varied as - 500, 1000, 2000, 4000, and con- 515
tinues upto the debiasing dataset’s size (different 516
for different demographics). The LM finetuning 517
dataset size is varied as a percentage of the total 518
CNN dataset - 1%, 2%, 4%, 8%, 16% and 32%. 519

For training our language model (3.1, 3.2) we 520
use a batch size of 64 to maximise GPU usage, 521
maximum source length of 64. For language model 522
finetuning, we use 100 epochs to allow for conver- 523
gence, whereas for debiasing we find 30 epochs to 524

525 be sufficient, with both training processes utilizing
526 an early stopping mechanism. We use a learning
527 rate of $1e-4$ based on what we find in the original
528 BERT paper (Devlin et al., 2019).

529 C Training Details

530 For each two phase training, we run a job with a
531 time limit of 41 hours, 4 CPUs per job, 4GB of
532 memory per CPU and 1 NVIDIA V100 GPU.

533 D Word Lists

534 D.1 Gender

535 In Table 4, we provide a sample of word sets in the
536 Gender word list.

Table 4: Example word sets for Gender

Male	Female
countryman	countrywoman
fraternal	sororal
manservant	maidservant
divo	diva
actor	actress
bachelor	spinster
papa	mama
busboy	busgirl

537 D.2 Race

538 In Table 5, we provide a sample of word sets in the
539 Race word list.

540 D.3 Religion

541 In Table 6, we provide a sample of word sets in the
542 Religion word list.

543 E Additional Results

544 In this section, we provide the complete evaluation
545 results for SEAT in Tables 7, 8 and 9.

Table 5: Example word sets for Race

African-American	Anglo-American	Hispanic	Asian	Native-American
Black	White	Latino	Brown	light-brown
Negroid	Caucasian	Latino	Brown	Native-American
African-American	Anglo-American	Hispanic	Asian	Native-American
Afro-American	Anglo-American	Hispanic	Asian	Native-American
African	American	Hispanic	Asian	Native-American
Afroamerican	Angloamerican	Hispanic	Asian	Native-American
Negro	Caucasian	Hispanic	Brown	Native-American
dark-skin	light-skin	white-latino	gray-skin	reddish-brown
dark-skin	light-skin	black-latino	gray-skin	reddish-brown

Table 6: Example word sets for Religion

Islam	Christianity	Judaism	Hinduism	Buddhism	Confucianism	Taoism
Islam	Christianity	Judaism	Hinduism	Buddhism	Ruism	Daoism
Quran	Bible	Torah	Gita	Tripitaka	Analects	Tao-Te-Ching
Koran	Bible	Tanakh	Veda	Tripitaka	Analects	Tao-Te-Ching
Muslim	Christian	Jewish	Hindu	Buddhist	Confucianist	Taoist
islamic	Christian	Jewish	Hinduism	Buddhist	Confucius	Dao
Mohammed	Jesus	Malachi	Ramakrishna	Gautama	Confucius	Laozi
Mohammed	Jesus	Moses	Krishna	Gautama	Kung-Fu-Tzu	Laozi

Table 7: SEAT effect sizes for Gender debiased models. Effect size closer to 0 is better. Statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) effect sizes are denoted by underline.

Model	SEAT-6	SEAT-6b	SEAT-7	SEAT-7b	SEAT-8	SEAT-8b	Avg. Effect Size
bert-base-uncased	0.931	0.090	-0.124	0.937	0.783	0.858	0.620
FineDeb	0.248	0.113	0.179	0.298	0.280	1.056	0.362
CDA	0.846	0.186	-0.278	1.342	0.831	0.849	0.722
Dropout	1.136	0.317	0.138	1.179	0.879	0.939	0.765
INLP	0.317	-0.354	-0.258	0.105	0.187	-0.004	0.204
Sentence Debias	0.350	-0.298	-0.626	0.458	0.413	0.462	0.434

Table 8: SEAT effect sizes for Race debiased models. Effect size closer to 0 is better. Statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) effect sizes are denoted by underline.

Model	ABW-1	ABW-2	SEAT-7	SEAT-3	SEAT-4	SEAT-5	SEAT-5b	Avg. Effect Size
bert-base-uncased	-0.079	0.690	0.778	0.469	0.901	0.887	0.539	0.620
FineDeb	1.111	-0.235	0.806	0.085	0.858	0.787	0.456	0.620
CDA	0.231	0.619	0.824	0.510	0.896	0.418	0.486	0.569
Dropout	0.415	0.690	0.698	0.476	0.683	0.417	0.495	0.554
INLP	0.295	0.565	0.799	0.370	0.976	1.039	0.432	0.639
Sentence Debias	-0.067	0.684	0.776	0.451	0.902	0.891	0.513	0.612

Table 9: SEAT effect sizes for Religion debiased models. Effect size closer to 0 is better. Statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) effect sizes are denoted by underline.

Model	Religion-1	Religion-1b	Religion-2	Religion-2b	Avg. Effect Size
bert-base-uncased	0.744	-0.067	1.009	-0.147	0.492
FineDeb	0.697	0.701	0.666	0.613	0.670
CDA	0.355	-0.104	0.424	-0.474	0.339
Dropout	0.535	0.109	0.436	-0.428	0.377
INLP	0.473	-0.301	0.787	-0.280	0.460
Sentence Debias	0.728	0.003	0.985	0.038	0.439