# Images Speak Louder than Words: Understanding and Mitigating Bias in Vision-Language Model from a Causal Mediation Perspective

Anonymous ACL submission

#### Abstract

 Vision-language models (VLMs) pre-trained on extensive datasets can inadvertently learn biases by correlating gender information with specific objects or scenarios. Current methods, which focus on modifying inputs and monitor- ing changes in the model's output probability scores, often struggle to comprehensively un- derstand bias from the perspective of model components. We propose a framework that in-**corporates causal mediation analysis to mea-** sure and map the pathways of bias genera- tion and propagation within VLMs. This ap- proach allows us to identify the direct effects of interventions on model bias and the indi- rect effects of interventions on bias mediated through different model components. Our re- sults show that image features are the primary contributors to bias, with significantly higher **impacts than text features, specifically account-** ing for 32.57% and 12.63% of the bias in the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets, respectively. Notably, the image encoder's con- tribution surpasses that of the text encoder and the deep fusion encoder. Further experimen- tation confirms that contributions from both language and vision modalities are aligned and non-conflicting. Consequently, focusing on blurring gender representations within the image encoder which contributes most to the 030 model bias, reduces bias efficiently by 22.03% and 9.04% in the MSCOCO and PASCAL- SENTENCE datasets, respectively, with min- imal performance loss or increased computa-tional demands.

#### **035** 1 Introduction

 Vision-language models have shown promising results in tasks such as classification [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-0) [2023;](#page-8-0) [Jia et al.,](#page-8-1) [2021;](#page-8-1) [Radford et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021\)](#page-8-2), im- age search [\(Sun et al.,](#page-9-0) [2023;](#page-9-0) [Radford et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021;](#page-8-2) [Li et al.,](#page-8-0) [2023\)](#page-8-0), and object detection [\(Kuo et al.,](#page-8-3) [2023;](#page-8-3) [Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4) by training on large-scale image-text pairs to understand the correspondences

between cross-modal image features and language **043** features. Models trained on extensive datasets ex- **044** hibit excellent zero-shot capabilities [\(Radford et al.,](#page-8-2) 045 [2021;](#page-8-2) [Yu et al.,](#page-9-1) [2022;](#page-9-1) [Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022;](#page-8-4) [Zhang et al.,](#page-9-2) **046** [2022a\)](#page-9-2) but also risk discovering and exploiting **047** societal biases present in the underlying image- **048** text pair corpora, potentially introducing bias that **049** leads to social unfairness [\(Zhao et al.,](#page-9-3) [2017\)](#page-9-3). The **050** revelation, measurement, and understanding of bi- **051** [a](#page-9-5)ses within models [\(Zhou et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022;](#page-9-4) [Zhang](#page-9-5) **052** [et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022b;](#page-9-5) [Lee et al.,](#page-8-5) [2023;](#page-8-5) [Vig et al.,](#page-9-6) [2020\)](#page-9-6) **053** has sparked widespread research interest and are **054** crucial for bias mitigation [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022b;](#page-9-5) **055** [Seth et al.,](#page-9-7) [2023;](#page-9-7) [Dehdashtian et al.,](#page-8-6) [2023\)](#page-8-6). How- **056** ever, most contemporary methods, derived from **057** language models, lack standardized metrics for **058** evaluating bias and primarily assess the correla- **059** tion between the outputs of classifiers and external **060** attributes [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-9-5) [2022b\)](#page-9-5). [Barrett et al.](#page-8-7) **061** [\(2019\)](#page-8-7) noted that interpretations based on classifier **062** outputs can be factually inaccurate and not gener- **063** alizable. While these methods can highlight the **064** impacts of certain contributions on model outputs, **065** they (1) fail to comprehend the generation and flow **066** of bias within the model and (2) do not understand **067** the causal roles of model components in the gener- **068** ation and propagation of bias. Consequently, they **069** are not able to provide clear guidance on how to **070** effectively mitigate bias at the model level. **071**

In this work, we propose a standardized frame- **072** work to measure bias in VLMs, providing a com- **073** prehensive understanding of how bias flows within **074** the entire model structure. Specifically, we use the **075** GLIP model [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4) as a case study, focus- **076** ing on gender bias in the task of object detection, **077** which is a predominant and challenging problem in  $078$ computer vision. We conduct the analysis on both **079** the MS-COCO [\(Lin et al.,](#page-8-8) [2014\)](#page-8-8) and PASCAL- **080** SENTENCE [\(Rashtchian et al.,](#page-9-8) [2010\)](#page-9-8) datasets. We **081** observe that GLIP model exhibits unbalanced infer- **082** ence capabilities on different genders, with certain **083**

 indoor object categories like pets more likely to be associated with females and outdoor objects like ve- hicles with males. To holistically understand how the bias flows in the model, we adapt causal media- tion analysis [\(Vig et al.,](#page-9-6) [2020\)](#page-9-6) to VLMs, providing a finer-grained study of contributions from different model components. We find that, among the differ- ent model components (text module, image module, and fusion module that combines them), the image module contributes the most to the model's bias – over twice as much as the text module. In the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets, im- age features accounted for 32.57% and 12.63% of the bias generated, respectively, compared to ap-**proximately 15.48% and 5.64% by text features.**  Also, the interaction and updating process between image and text features during the deep fusion pro- cess significantly impacts bias production, account- ing for about 57% of the contributions in the image and text encoders. Furthermore, by integrating interventions across different modules, we discov- ered that their contributions to bias are aligned and do not conflict, allowing us to prioritize bias mit- igation efforts within the image encoder, which is the most substantial contributor to bias. Based on the results, we propose to effectively mitigate the bias in VLMs: reducing biases from the image module can successfully reduce bias by 22.03% on the MSCOCO dataset and 9.04% on the PASCAL- SENTENCE dataset, compared to a reduction of 7.08% and 1.18% in the text module. In summary, the contributions of our work are:

- **116** We provide a comprehensive evaluation of the **117** bias in VLMs, with an understanding of the **118** contribution from each model module, which **119** is missing in the literature.
- **120** We analyze the correlation between the biases **121** from different modules and discover that the **122** bias in different modules are aligned and do **123** not conflict with each other.
- **124** We propose an effective bias mitigation strat-**125** egy to reduce the bias from the module that **126** contributes most to the model bias when fac-**127** ing a limited budget.

## **<sup>128</sup>** 2 Related Work

 In recent years, vision-language models (VLMs) have experienced rapid advancements. The latest developments in VLMs often employ a dual-stream architecture that separately encodes text and im-ages [\(Kim et al.,](#page-8-9) [2021\)](#page-8-9), and these are then merged and aligned to facilitate cross-modal understanding **134** of visual and linguistic features [\(Radford et al.,](#page-8-2) **135** [2021\)](#page-8-2). Furthermore, some studies treat the joint **136** training of images and text as a phrase localization **137** process, aiming to better align and integrate visual **138** and linguistic features [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4). Typically, **139** these models are trained on image-text pairs from **140** datasets such as MSCOCO [\(Lin et al.,](#page-8-8) [2014\)](#page-8-8), VQA **141** [\(Antol et al.,](#page-8-10) [2015\)](#page-8-10), OpenImages [\(Kuznetsova](#page-8-11) **142** [et al.,](#page-8-11) [2020\)](#page-8-11), and Flickr30k Entities [\(Plummer](#page-8-12) **143** [et al.,](#page-8-12) [2015\)](#page-8-12), achieving impressive results in various **144** downstream tasks including image classification **145** [\(Radford et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021\)](#page-8-2), image generation [\(Radford](#page-8-2) **146** [et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021\)](#page-8-2), visual question answering [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-13) **147** [2018;](#page-8-13) [Antol et al.,](#page-8-10) [2015\)](#page-8-10), and image captioning **148** [\(Lu et al.,](#page-8-14) [2019;](#page-8-14) [Alayrac et al.,](#page-8-15) [2022\)](#page-8-15). **149**

Alongside their development, the societal bi- **150** ases exhibited by VLMs have also attracted sig- **151** nificant attention. These models often reflect soci- **152** etal stereotypes and may even amplify such biases **153** [\(Zhou et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022\)](#page-9-4). Most contemporary research **154** addressing bias in VLMs has borrowed methodolo- **155** gies from language model studies. For instance, **156** [Srinivasan and Bisk](#page-9-9) [\(2021\)](#page-9-9) utilized a language 157 masking model to explore gender biases by using **158** templates containing a specific entity and analyzing **159** the probabilities of masked entities [\(Kurita et al.,](#page-8-16) **160** [2019\)](#page-8-16). Some researchers have examined biases **161** through the comparison of factual and counterfac- **162** tual inputs, with [Zhang et al.](#page-9-5) [\(2022b\)](#page-9-5) investigating **163** biases by examining predicted probabilities from **164** [b](#page-8-17)oth factual and counterfactual inputs, and [Howard](#page-8-17) **165** [et al.](#page-8-17) [\(2024\)](#page-8-17) using the Perspective API to score pre- **166** dictions derived from such inputs to study model **167 biases.** 168

However, existing evaluation methods primarily **169** observe changes in the probability scores of model **170** outputs following interventions on input samples. **171** This approach limits our understanding of the un- **172** derlying causes of bias generation and propagation **173** within model components [\(Barrett et al.,](#page-8-7) [2019\)](#page-8-7). Therefore, we propose a standardized framework **175** for evaluating bias in vision-language tasks and **176** [i](#page-9-10)ntroduce causal mediation analysis [\(Robins and](#page-9-10) **177** [Greenland,](#page-9-10) [1992;](#page-9-10) [Pearl,](#page-8-18) [2022;](#page-8-18) [Vig et al.,](#page-9-6) [2020\)](#page-9-6) **178** within the context of vision-language models. This 179 methodology helps us understand the pathways of **180** bias generation and propagation from the input **181** level to model components. **182**

## **<sup>183</sup>** 3 Bias Measurement and Understanding **<sup>184</sup>** in VLM

 In this section, we propose a bias evaluation metric to assess the bias of VLM in the object detection task. By applying causal mediation analysis, we quantify the contribution on bias from various com- ponents within the model pipeline which helps us trace the origins and propagation of bias throughout the model pipeline. Additionally, we investigate the interactions between different modalities to un- derstand how they collectively influence model bias which will be used as guidance for bias mitigation **195** later.

#### **196** 3.1 Bias Evaluation Metrics

 In the literature, there have been various method- ologies proposed to measure bias, including no- [t](#page-9-11)able contributions from [Zhao et al.](#page-9-3) [\(2017\)](#page-9-3), [Wang](#page-9-11) [and Russakovsky](#page-9-11) [\(2021\)](#page-9-11) and [Zhao et al.](#page-9-12) [\(2023\)](#page-9-12). These studies often assess bias amplification by comparing statistics between the training dataset and model outputs, where the models are trained and tested on similarly distributed datasets. In contemporary settings, most VLMs undergo train- ing on extensive collections of image and text cor- pora. In real-world applications, users may fine- tune a model on a dataset specific to a downstream task. The combination of fine-tuning data and pre- training data can introduce noise, complicating the statistics of previously mentioned bias evaluations. Additionally, many pre-training datasets used for large-scale models are either difficult to access or require significant computational resources for analysis, making existing evaluations challenging to deploy in modern settings.

 Notably, recent advancements in VLM have demonstrated impressive zero-shot performance, enabling models to make accurate predictions on [b](#page-8-2)enchmark datasets without any fine-tuning [\(Rad-](#page-8-2) [ford et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021;](#page-8-2) [Yu et al.,](#page-9-1) [2022;](#page-9-1) [Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022;](#page-8-4) [Zhang et al.,](#page-9-2) [2022a\)](#page-9-2). In our study, we explore a zero-shot scenario where VLMs are directly tasked with making predictions on a benchmark dataset without any fine-tuning.

 Drawing inspiration from observations in [Zhao](#page-9-3) [et al.](#page-9-3) [\(2017\)](#page-9-3), where females typically correlate more closely with indoor objects than males, we **introduce the definition of BIAS<sub>VL</sub>** which captures model's underlying correlations between sensitive attributes (e.g., genders) and objects:

<span id="page-2-1"></span>

Figure 1: Causal Mediation Analysis example

BIASVL := X object |C(object, male) **232** −C(object, female)| (1) **233**

<span id="page-2-2"></span>**238**

where  $C(x, y)$  measures the correlation between 234 x and y. In our case, we use a false positive rate **235** (FPR) to describe the correlation, which measures **236** how often one specific gender y can trigger a model **237** to incorrectly predict one object x in the image.  $\frac{1}{1}$  $\frac{1}{1}$  $\frac{1}{1}$ 

#### 3.2 Causal Mediation Analysis Method **239**

Causal mediation analysis measures how a treat- **240** ment effect influences an outcome either directly or **241** [i](#page-9-10)ndirectly through a mediator variable [\(Robins and](#page-9-10) **242** [Greenland,](#page-9-10) [1992;](#page-9-10) [Vig et al.,](#page-9-6) [2020;](#page-9-6) [Robins,](#page-9-13) [2003;](#page-9-13) **243** [Pearl,](#page-8-18) [2022\)](#page-8-18). An illustrative example is shown in **244** Figure [1,](#page-2-1) where athletes engage in strength training **245** to improve athletic performance. After training, **246** they need muscle relaxation to alleviate soreness, **247** which also impacts performance. Thus, strength 248 training can have a direct effect on athletic perfor- **249** mance through its intended mechanisms and an **250** indirect effect through muscle relaxation. **251**

In our study, the treatment consists of interven- **252** tions on the input module, while the mediator could **253** be any model component or finer-grained layer or **254** neuron we are interested in and the outcome is the **255** change in gender bias in the model's prediction **256** results. Therefore, we define three types of inter- **257** vention: a) replace-gender, which replaces the **258** gender word *man* or *woman* to a gender-neutral **259** word *person* in the text of the input module; b) **260** mask-gender, where pixels corresponding to a per- **261** son in the image module are masked, thus remov- **262** ing gender information from the input images; and **263** c) null, which leaves the original text and image **264** modules unchanged. **265**

<span id="page-2-0"></span><sup>1</sup> Following existing work, we also consider binary gender

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

Figure 2: Bias understanding with causal mediation analysis. In the diagram,  $\zeta$  represents the mediator, and  $y_O$ ,  $y_E, y_D, y_I$  represent the bias values of the model's output under various interventions. The *intervention effect* quantifies the change in the bias score under the specified intervention; the *direct effect* quantifies the change in bias score resulting from an intervention in the input module while maintaining the mediator in the state of a null intervention; the *indirect effect* measures the change in the bias score when the input module remains unchanged, but the mediator is set to the state of a specific intervention.

 We perform causal mediation analysis on the GLIP model by introducing interventions in the in- put module and observing changes in BIASVL val- ues defined in Eq.[\(1\)](#page-2-2). Following [Vig et al.](#page-9-6) [\(2020\)](#page-9-6), we define the *Direct Effect (DE)* as changes in the **BIAS<sub>VL</sub>** score when the intervention is applied to the input module while the mediator (model com- ponents) remains in the 'null' state of intervention. The *Indirect Effect (IE)* represents changes in the bias score when the input module is fixed, but the mediator is set in the state of a certain interven- tion. We can select any model structure of inter- est as the mediator and choose 'mask-gender', 'replace-gender', or combinations of them as interventions in the input module (Figure [2\)](#page-3-0).

# **<sup>281</sup>** 4 Experimental Setup of Bias **<sup>282</sup>** Measurement and Understanding

 Model For the object detection task, we em- ployed the GLIP model pre-trained on the O365, GoldG, CC3M, and SBU datasets [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4). The model consists of an image module, a text module, and a deep-fusion module that updates and aligns image features and text features. For ob- ject detection, the GLIP model makes predictions based on the given image and a text input, which is a list of possible categories separated by commas.

Dataset Our experiments were conducted on **292** the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets. **293** For MSCOCO, we follow the setting in [Zhao et al.](#page-9-3) **294** [\(2017\)](#page-9-3), where we only consider 66 objects that ap- **295** pear with man or woman more than 100 times in **296** the training data. For the PASCAL-SENTENCE **297** dataset, which includes 20 categories but lacks gen- **298** der labels, we annotated gender based on the five **299** captions associated with each image. An image **300** is labeled as male if any caption mentions "male, **301** males, man, men, boy, boys" and as female if **302** any caption mentions "female, females, woman, **303** women, girl, girls". Images that do not include any **304** person or mention both genders were excluded. **305**

Interventions on image encoder and text en- **306** coder Initially, we implement replace-gender **307** and mask-gender interventions on the inputs re- **308** spectively without any alterations to the model 309 components. By monitoring the changes in the **310** values of  $BIAS_{\rm VL}$ , the individual impacts of image  $311$ and text inputs on gender bias within the input mod- **312** ule were assessed. Subsequently, we conducted a **313** detailed causal mediation analysis on the text en- **314** coder and image encoder, respectively, by choosing **315** the attention head within a specific layer and those **316** in all preceding layers as mediators, conducting **317** experiments from shallow to deep layers. This **318** analysis aimed to identify whether the text encoder **319** or image encoder contributes more significantly to **320**

 gender bias and to determine which layers in the model are principally responsible for bias genera- tion. It also sought to understand how bias flows and accumulates across different layers within the encoders. Then, we selected a combination of at- tention layers from both the image encoder and text encoder as mediators to observe changes in bias and compare these results with previous findings, exploring whether different modalities reinforce bias or conflict in the direction of bias.

 Interventions on deep-fusion encoder In the deep fusion encoder, where image and text fea- tures dynamically interact and are updated, we im- plement replace-gender and mask-gender inter- ventions in the input module to control the state of image and text features within the deep fusion module. We also select the attention heads within a specific layer and all preceding layers' attention heads as the mediator for conducting causal media- tion analysis. By observing changes in the values of BIASVL, we explore how image and text fea- tures individually affect the deep fusion process and subsequently influence bias generation.

#### **<sup>344</sup>** 5 Results

#### **345** 5.1 Bias Measurement

 We present the results of BIASVL in Table [1,](#page-4-0) for the MSCOCO dataset, without any intervention on the inputs, the BIASVL measured was 1.434. To highlight the significance of this bias, we ran- domly divided subsets composed of male images 351 into two equal parts, achieving an BIAS<sub>VL</sub> of 0.278. Similarly, dividing female image subsets randomly resulted in an BIAS<sub>VL</sub> of 0.359. Both results are significantly lower than 1.434, and com- parable results were observed with the PASCAL- SENTENCE dataset, as detailed in Table [1.](#page-4-0) The results in the random division demonstrate that a model with balanced inference capabilities across a dataset would yield minimal BIAS<sub>VL</sub> values when divided into equal subsets (i.e., the gender stays the same). However, when model predictions are influenced by attributes such as gender, splitting the dataset based on such attributes leads to higher BIASVL values.

 We also provide detailed statistics of False Pos- itive Rate (FPR) scores for various objects in the PASCAL-SENTENCE dataset, presented in Fig- ure [3.](#page-4-1) Our statistics reveal that a significant portion of indoor objects, such as furniture and pets, exhibit higher FPRs in images of females than in those of

males. Conversely, outdoor objects, such as vehi- **371** cles, tend to have higher misclassification rates in **372** images of males. These findings suggest that the **373** model more closely associates females with indoor **374** objects. The FPR scores for different objects on **375** the MSCOCO dataset are included in the appendix. **376**

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Table 1: BIAS<sub>VL</sub> for MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE (PASCAL-S) Datasets without any intervention. M and F stand for "male" and "female" respectively. BIAS<sub>VL</sub> values obtained in two sets of images with the same gender are significantly lower than the BIAS<sub>VL</sub> obtained from datasets divided by gender.

<span id="page-4-1"></span>

Figure 3: False Positive Rate (FPR) for various objects in the PASCAL-SENTENCE dataset. For most pets and indoor objects, the FPR is higher in images of females than in those of males; conversely, for most outdoor objects such as vehicles, the FPR is higher in images of males than in those of females. These results indicate that females correlate more closely with indoor objects than males.

## 5.2 Bias Understanding with Causal **377 Mediation Analysis** 378

We conduct the causal mediation analysis on dif- **379** ferent modules to study their effect on the model **380** bias. We find that the image module influences **381** the model bias more than the text module and the **382** fusion module. In addition, we show that the bias **383** in the image and text modules are aligned – they **384** are showing similar gender bias tendencies rather **385** than conflicting ones. 386

Image encoder Applying the mask-gender in- **387** tervention to the input image module reduced the **388**

5

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Figure 4: Causal mediation analysis of bias on the COCO and PASCAL-S (PASCAL-SENTENCE) datasets. Panels (a) and (e) show the DE (Direct Effect) and IE (Indirect Effect) for the image module; Panels (b) and (f) represent the DE and IE for the text module; Panels (c) and (g) illustrate the DE and IE for the text part of the deep-fusion encoder, and panels (d) and (h) for the image part of the deep-fusion encoder. The findings highlight that image features contribute more significantly to bias than text features, with the image module being the primary contributor to model bias.

 BIASVL to 0.967 for the MSCOCO dataset and to 0.664 for the PASCAL-SENTENCE dataset, rep- resenting reductions of approximately 32.57% and 12.63%, respectively. We employed the attention heads in the image encoder as the mediator to ex- amine both the indirect effects of this model com- ponent and the direct effects of the mask-gender on predictions. Figure [4a](#page-5-0) and Figure [4e](#page-5-0) illustrate that employing more attention heads as mediators leads to greater reductions in indirect effect, with diminishing reductions in direct effect. This sup- ports an intuition that removing gender information from more layers in the image encoder weakens the model's dependency on latent correlations between gender in images and specific objects, thus mitigat- ing gender bias in predictions. Furthermore, while interventions at the input level significantly impact final predictions, targeting the image encoder alone achieves about 53% of the mask-gender effect.

 Text encoder Implementing a replace-gender intervention on the input text module reduced the BIASVL to 1.212 for the MSCOCO dataset and to 0.720 for the PASCAL-SENTENCE dataset, reduc- tions of approximately 15.48% and 5.64%, respec- tively. We chose the attention heads within the text encoder as the mediator in this case. As shown in Figure [4b](#page-5-0) and Figure [4f,](#page-5-0) similar to the image en-coder insights, removing gender information from

multiple layers in the text encoder substantially de- **417** creases the model's reliance on latent correlations **418** between gender in text and specific objects, thereby **419** reducing prediction biases. The replace-gender **420** intervention led to a smaller reduction in bias com- **421** pared to mask-gender, emphasizing the more sub- **422** stantial role of images in generating gender bias **423** relative to text. This outcome is likely influenced **424** by the simplistic structure of the input text used in **425** our study, which adheres to the format described in **426** original GLIP experiments [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4), sepa- **427** rating each category with a period, resulting in less **428** complex text features than image features. Lan- **429** guage models typically capture basic features such **430** as syntactic structures at shallow layers and more **431** complex semantic information at deeper layers, cor- **432** relating with the significant changes in BIAS<sub>VL</sub> 433 observed at the sixth layer. **434**

**Deep fusion encoder** To further validate whether 435 image features contribute more to bias creation than **436** text features, we utilized the attention heads in the **437** deep fusion encoder as the mediator, adjusting the **438** attention heads' parameters in the states of either **439** mask-gender intervention or replace-gender in- **440** tervention. The results displayed in Figure [4d](#page-5-0) **441** and Figure [4c](#page-5-0) show that for the MSCOCO **442** dataset, the indirect effects from mask-gender and **443** replace-gender through the deep fusion encoder **444**

 are up to 0.260 and 0.189, respectively, reducing the BIASVL by approximately 18.13% and 13.18% (Figure [4h](#page-5-0) and Figure [4g\)](#page-5-0). For the PASCAL- Sentence dataset, the reductions are 10.80% and 0.53%, respectively. These findings reaffirm our conclusion that image features play a more substan- tial role in bias generation than text features. They also suggest that even though the deep fusion mod- ule does not extract features directly from images and text, the interactive updating process between text and image features significantly influences bias generation, accounting for approximately 55.70% of the effect observed with the encoder alone.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Figure 5: Comparison of Bias Reduction Across Modalities with Interventions in Vision (V) and Language Modules (L) on the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets. V represents the results of interventions in the vision modality, L represents the results of interventions in the language modality, and L+V represents the results of simultaneous interventions in both the vision and language modalities. The contributions to bias from the two modalities are aligned and non-conflicting. Intervening simultaneously in both the visual and language modalities results in a greater reduction of bias compared to interventions in any single modality alone.

 Interventions comparison Multi-modal models consist of various interacting modules, each of which can learn distinct biases. However, the current literature does not thoroughly investigate whether these biases are aligned or disparate across different modules. In this section, we conduct an empirical analysis in VLMs to address this question. We simultaneously intervene in both the vision and language modalities. We apply replace-gender and mask-gender interventions to the input module and select a consistent propor- tion of attention heads in both the image encoder and text encoder as mediators. This setup allows us to observe changes in BIASVL and compare these with the changes induced by interventions in single modalities. Figure [5a](#page-6-0) and Figure [5b](#page-6-0) demonstrate that combined interventions on both images and text achieve greater bias reduction than interven-tions on either alone. However, the total reduction

is not merely additive; the overall bias reduction is **477** less than the sum of the individual contributions. **478**

## 6 Bias Mitigation Method **<sup>479</sup>**

Based on our experimental results, image features **480** contribute most significantly to gender bias and the **481** image encoder has a more pronounced impact on **482** bias compared to the text encoder and deep-fusion **483** encoder. Therefore, our intuition is that focusing **484** on reducing gender representation in the image en- **485** coder will effectively reduce bias, especially when **486** facing a computation budget. We use the bias miti- **487** gation achieved from the text encoder as a baseline, **488** then focus on reducing bias from the image encoder **489** and compare the results with the baseline. **490**

Text Encoder For the text encoder, we aim to **491** blur the gender representation in text features. We **492** modify the structure of the text encoder to first **493** identify gender-related terms *(man, woman, men,* 494 *women, male, female, males, females)* in the in- **495** put text. A new sentence is generated by replac- **496** ing these gendered terms with their corresponding **497** anti-gender terms ( i.e., *man* to *woman*, *male* to **498** *female*). The text encoder's output features are **499** the average of the original sentence's text features **500** and the anti-gender sentence's text features. Since 501 the only difference between the two sentences is **502** the gendered terms, this approach effectively blurs **503** gender representation within the text encoder. We **504** then let model to make predictions and observe the **505** reduction in BIAS<sub>VL</sub>. 506

**Image Encoder** Similarly, for the image encoder, we aim to blur gender representation in **508** image features. To achieve this, we incorporate **509** MTCNN [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-9-14) [2016\)](#page-9-14) as a face detector **510** and MobileNet [\(Sandler et al.,](#page-9-15) [2018\)](#page-9-15) as a gender **511** classifier into the existing image encoder frame- **512** work. Both networks are lightweight, allowing **513** their integration without significantly increasing **514** the computational load during inference. When **515** an image is input into the image encoder, the **516** MTCNN [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-9-14) [2016\)](#page-9-14) network first identi- **517** fies potential faces and outlines them with bound- **518** ing boxes. MobileNet [\(Sandler et al.,](#page-9-15) [2018\)](#page-9-15) then **519** classifies the gender of the faces within these boxes. **520**

We have prepared a male face image and a fe- **521** male face image in advance. Depending on the gen- **522** der predicted by MobileNet [\(Sandler et al.,](#page-9-15) [2018\)](#page-9-15), **523** we replace the face in the bounding box with the **524** corresponding pre-prepared anti-gender face im- **525**

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

	AP.		<b>Bias</b>		<b>Bias Mitigated</b>	
	<b>MSCOCO</b>			PASCAL-S   MSCOCO PASCAL-S   MSCOCO PASCAL-S		
GLIP-T	46.6	68.4	1.434	0.763		
GLIP_ImageFair	46.2	68.3	1.118	0.694	22.03%	9.04%
<b>GLIP</b> TextFair	46.6	68.4	1.322	0.754	7.8%	1.18%

Table 2: Performance comparison of different methods on MSCOCO and PASCAL-S (PASCAL-SENTENCE) datasets. AP (Average Precision) is the metric used for zero-shot object detection. "GLIP" represents the original GLIP model, "GLIP\_ImageFair" denotes the model with bias mitigation implemented in the image encoder, and "GLIP\_TextFair" refers to the model with bias mitigation applied in the text encoder. Intervention in the image encoder is more effective than the text encoder in reducing the bias score without significant performance loss.

 age. The final image features output by the im- age encoder are an average of the original image features and the features of the newly introduced anti-gender face. This method effectively blurs the original gender representation in the image. Then we let the model to make predictions and observe the reduction in BIASVL.

## **<sup>533</sup>** 7 Experimental Setup of Bias Mitigation

 Model We utilized the GLIP model, pre-trained on the O365, GoldG, CC3M, and SBU datasets [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4). In our setup, we incorporated an MTCNN [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-9-14) [2016\)](#page-9-14) pre-trained on the Wider Face and CelebA datasets as a face detec- tor within the image encoder. Additionally, we integrated a MobileNet [\(Sandler et al.,](#page-9-15) [2018\)](#page-9-15) pre-trained on ImageNet to serve as a gender classifier.

 Dataset We evaluated the effectiveness of bias mitigation on the MSCOCO and PASCAL- SENTENCE datasets. To assess the model's object detection performance, we compared it with the original GLIP [\(Li et al.,](#page-8-4) [2022\)](#page-8-4) on the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets using the AP (Average Precision) metric for zero-shot object de-**549** tection.

## **<sup>550</sup>** 8 Results

 As indicated in Table [2,](#page-7-0) blurring gender represen- tations in the image encoder demonstrated signif- icant bias mitigation on both the MSCOCO and PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets. The experimental findings suggest that obscuring gender information in the image encoder is more effective at reducing model bias compared to similar interventions in the text encoder. Our results show that by blurring gender representations in the image features within the image encoder, we effectively reduced model bias by 22.03% and 9.04% on the MSCOCO and

PASCAL-SENTENCE datasets, respectively, with **562** minimal impact on model performance. **563**

## 9 Conclusion **<sup>564</sup>**

Vision-language models (VLMs) trained on large- **565** scale image-text pair corpora are at risk of learning **566** social biases from their training data. In this paper, **567** we introduced a standardized framework incorpo- **568** rating causal mediation analysis to measure and **569** understand the pathways through which model bias **570** is generated and propagated within VLMs. We **571** discovered that image features contribute signifi- **572** cantly more to model bias than text features, and **573** the contributions from the image encoder substan- **574** tially exceed those from the text encoder and deep **575** fusion encoder. Furthermore, the contributions to **576** bias from different language modalities reinforce **577** each other. Subsequently, by focusing on the com- **578** ponents that contribute most to bias, we efficiently **579** reduced model bias. **580**

Our work provides a framework for measuring, **581** understanding, and mitigating model bias, which, **582** although utilized here within the realm of object **583** detection, can be extended to a wide range of VLM **584** tasks. However, our framework is primarily appli- **585** cable to white-box models, as it requires interven- **586** tions at the internal components of the model. A 587 promising direction for future work would involve **588** expanding our framework to encompass additional **589** modalities such as audio or video. This expansion **590** could further enhance our understanding of multi- **591** modal interactions and their impact on bias, as well **592** as deepen insights into how different sensory inputs **593** contribute to, or mitigate, biases in AI systems. **594**

### 10 Limitations **<sup>595</sup>**

Our work provides a framework for measuring, **596** understanding, and mitigating model bias in vision- **597**  language models (VLMs), with broad applicabil- ity across various VLM tasks. However, our ap- proach primarily applies to white-box models, as it requires interventions within the model's internal components. Consequently, this limitation implies that our methods might not be directly applicable to scenarios where model internals are inaccessible or when dealing with black-box systems.

## **<sup>606</sup>** References

- <span id="page-8-15"></span>**607** Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jeff Donahue, Pauline Luc, **608** Antoine Miech, Iain Barr, Yana Hasson, Karel **609** Lenc, Arthur Mensch, Katherine Millican, Malcolm **610** Reynolds, et al. 2022. Flamingo: a visual language **611** model for few-shot learning. *Advances in neural* **612** *information processing systems*, 35:23716–23736.
- <span id="page-8-10"></span>**613** Stanislaw Antol, Aishwarya Agrawal, Jiasen Lu, Mar-**614** garet Mitchell, Dhruv Batra, C Lawrence Zitnick, and **615** Devi Parikh. 2015. Vqa: Visual question answering. **616** In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference* **617** *on computer vision*, pages 2425–2433.
- <span id="page-8-7"></span>**618** Maria Barrett, Yova Kementchedjhieva, Yanai Elazar, **619** Desmond Elliott, and Anders Søgaard. 2019. Adver-**620** sarial removal of demographic attributes revisited. In **621** *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical* **622** *Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th* **623** *International Joint Conference on Natural Language* **624** *Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)*, pages 6330–6335.
- <span id="page-8-6"></span>**625** Sepehr Dehdashtian, Lan Wang, and Vishnu Boddeti. **626** 2023. Fairvlm: Mitigating bias in pre-trained vision-**627** language models. In *The Twelfth International Con-***628** *ference on Learning Representations*.
- <span id="page-8-17"></span>**629** Phillip Howard, Anahita Bhiwandiwalla, Kathleen C **630** Fraser, and Svetlana Kiritchenko. 2024. Uncovering **631** bias in large vision-language models with counterfac-**632** tuals. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.00166*.
- <span id="page-8-1"></span>**633** Chao Jia, Yinfei Yang, Ye Xia, Yi-Ting Chen, Zarana **634** Parekh, Hieu Pham, Quoc Le, Yun-Hsuan Sung, Zhen **635** Li, and Tom Duerig. 2021. Scaling up visual and **636** vision-language representation learning with noisy **637** text supervision. In *International conference on ma-***638** *chine learning*, pages 4904–4916. PMLR.
- <span id="page-8-9"></span>**639** Wonjae Kim, Bokyung Son, and Ildoo Kim. 2021. Vilt: **640** Vision-and-language transformer without convolu-**641** tion or region supervision. In *International confer-***642** *ence on machine learning*, pages 5583–5594. PMLR.
- <span id="page-8-3"></span>**643** Weicheng Kuo, Yin Cui, Xiuye Gu, AJ Piergio-**644** vanni, and Anelia Angelova. 2023. F-vlm: Open-**645** vocabulary object detection upon frozen vision and **646** language models. In *International Conference on* **647** *Learning Representations (ICLR)*.
- <span id="page-8-16"></span>**648** Keita Kurita, Nidhi Vyas, Ayush Pareek, Alan W Black, **649** and Yulia Tsvetkov. 2019. Measuring bias in con-**650** textualized word representations. *arXiv preprint* **651** *arXiv:1906.07337*.
- <span id="page-8-11"></span>Alina Kuznetsova, Hassan Rom, Neil Alldrin, Jasper Ui- **652** jlings, Ivan Krasin, Jordi Pont-Tuset, Shahab Kamali, **653** Stefan Popov, Matteo Malloci, Alexander Kolesnikov, **654** et al. 2020. The open images dataset v4: Unified **655** image classification, object detection, and visual re- **656** lationship detection at scale. *International journal of* **657** *computer vision*, 128(7):1956–1981. **658**
- <span id="page-8-5"></span>Nayeon Lee, Yejin Bang, Holy Lovenia, Samuel **659** Cahyawijaya, Wenliang Dai, and Pascale Fung. 2023. **660** Survey of social bias in vision-language models. 661 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2309.14381*. **662**
- <span id="page-8-0"></span>Junnan Li, Dongxu Li, Silvio Savarese, and Steven Hoi. **663** 2023. Blip-2: Bootstrapping language-image pre- **664** training with frozen image encoders and large lan- **665** guage models. In *International conference on ma-* **666** *chine learning*, pages 19730–19742. PMLR. **667**
- <span id="page-8-4"></span>Liunian Harold Li, Pengchuan Zhang, Haotian Zhang, **668** Jianwei Yang, Chunyuan Li, Yiwu Zhong, Lijuan **669** Wang, Lu Yuan, Lei Zhang, Jenq-Neng Hwang, et al. **670** 2022. Grounded language-image pre-training. In **671** *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Com-* **672** *puter Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 10965– **673** 10975. **674**
- <span id="page-8-13"></span>Qing Li, Qingyi Tao, Shafiq Joty, Jianfei Cai, and Jiebo **675** Luo. 2018. Vqa-e: Explaining, elaborating, and en- **676** hancing your answers for visual questions. In *Pro-* **677** *ceedings of the European Conference on Computer* **678** *Vision (ECCV)*, pages 552–567. **679**
- <span id="page-8-8"></span>Tsung-Yi Lin, Michael Maire, Serge Belongie, James **680** Hays, Pietro Perona, Deva Ramanan, Piotr Dollár, **681** and C Lawrence Zitnick. 2014. Microsoft coco: **682** Common objects in context. In *Computer Vision–* **683** *ECCV 2014: 13th European Conference, Zurich,* **684** *Switzerland, September 6-12, 2014, Proceedings,* **685** *Part V 13*, pages 740–755. Springer. **686**
- <span id="page-8-14"></span>Jiasen Lu, Dhruv Batra, Devi Parikh, and Stefan Lee. **687** 2019. Vilbert: Pretraining task-agnostic visiolinguis- **688** tic representations for vision-and-language tasks. *Ad-* **689** *vances in neural information processing systems*, 32. **690**
- <span id="page-8-18"></span>Judea Pearl. 2022. Direct and indirect effects. In *Prob-* **691** *abilistic and causal inference: the works of Judea* **692** *Pearl*, pages 373–392. **693**
- <span id="page-8-12"></span>Bryan A Plummer, Liwei Wang, Chris M Cervantes, **694** Juan C Caicedo, Julia Hockenmaier, and Svetlana **695** Lazebnik. 2015. Flickr30k entities: Collecting **696** region-to-phrase correspondences for richer image- **697** to-sentence models. In *Proceedings of the IEEE* **698** *international conference on computer vision*, pages **699** 2641–2649. **700**
- <span id="page-8-2"></span>Alec Radford, Jong Wook Kim, Chris Hallacy, Aditya **701** Ramesh, Gabriel Goh, Sandhini Agarwal, Girish Sas- **702** try, Amanda Askell, Pamela Mishkin, Jack Clark, **703** et al. 2021. Learning transferable visual models from **704** natural language supervision. In *International confer-* **705** *ence on machine learning*, pages 8748–8763. PMLR. **706**
- 
- 
- 
- 
- <span id="page-9-8"></span> Cyrus Rashtchian, Peter Young, Micah Hodosh, and Ju- lia Hockenmaier. 2010. Collecting image annotations using amazon's mechanical turk. In *Proceedings of the NAACL HLT 2010 workshop on creating speech and language data with Amazon's Mechanical Turk*, pages 139–147.
- <span id="page-9-13"></span> James M Robins. 2003. Semantics of causal dag models and the identification of direct and indirect effects. *Highly structured stochastic systems*, pages 70–82.
- <span id="page-9-10"></span> James M Robins and Sander Greenland. 1992. Identi- fiability and exchangeability for direct and indirect effects. *Epidemiology*, 3(2):143–155.
- <span id="page-9-15"></span> Mark Sandler, Andrew Howard, Menglong Zhu, An- drey Zhmoginov, and Liang-Chieh Chen. 2018. Mo- bilenetv2: Inverted residuals and linear bottlenecks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 4510–4520.
- <span id="page-9-7"></span> Ashish Seth, Mayur Hemani, and Chirag Agarwal. 2023. Dear: Debiasing vision-language models with addi- tive residuals. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Con- ference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 6820–6829.
- <span id="page-9-9"></span> Tejas Srinivasan and Yonatan Bisk. 2021. Worst of both worlds: Biases compound in pre-trained vision-and-language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2104.08666*.
- <span id="page-9-0"></span> Zeyi Sun, Ye Fang, Tong Wu, Pan Zhang, Yuhang Zang, Shu Kong, Yuanjun Xiong, Dahua Lin, and Jiaqi Wang. 2023. Alpha-clip: A clip model fo- cusing on wherever you want. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.03818*.
- <span id="page-9-6"></span> Jesse Vig, Sebastian Gehrmann, Yonatan Belinkov, Sharon Qian, Daniel Nevo, Yaron Singer, and Stuart Shieber. 2020. Investigating gender bias in language models using causal mediation analysis. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 33:12388– 12401.
- <span id="page-9-11"></span> Angelina Wang and Olga Russakovsky. 2021. Direc- tional bias amplification. In *International Confer- ence on Machine Learning*, pages 10882–10893. PMLR.
- <span id="page-9-1"></span> Jiahui Yu, Zirui Wang, Vijay Vasudevan, Legg Ye- ung, Mojtaba Seyedhosseini, and Yonghui Wu. 2022. [Coca: Contrastive captioners are image-text foun-](https://openreview.net/forum?id=Ee277P3AYC) [dation models.](https://openreview.net/forum?id=Ee277P3AYC) *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*.
- <span id="page-9-2"></span> Haotian Zhang, Pengchuan Zhang, Xiaowei Hu, Yen- Chun Chen, Liunian Li, Xiyang Dai, Lijuan Wang, Lu Yuan, Jenq-Neng Hwang, and Jianfeng Gao. 2022a. Glipv2: Unifying localization and vision- language understanding. *Advances in Neural Infor-mation Processing Systems*, 35:36067–36080.
- <span id="page-9-14"></span> Kaipeng Zhang, Zhanpeng Zhang, Zhifeng Li, and Yu Qiao. 2016. [Joint face detection and alignment](https://doi.org/10.1109/lsp.2016.2603342) [using multitask cascaded convolutional networks.](https://doi.org/10.1109/lsp.2016.2603342) *IEEE Signal Processing Letters*, 23(10):1499–1503.
- <span id="page-9-5"></span>Yi Zhang, Junyang Wang, and Jitao Sang. 2022b. Coun- **762** terfactually measuring and eliminating social bias **763** in vision-language pre-training models. In *Proceed-* **764** *ings of the 30th ACM International Conference on* 765 *Multimedia*, pages 4996–5004. **766**
- <span id="page-9-12"></span>Dora Zhao, Jerone Andrews, and Alice Xiang. 2023. **767** Men also do laundry: Multi-attribute bias amplifica- **768** tion. In *International Conference on Machine Learn-* **769** *ing*, pages 42000–42017. PMLR. **770**
- <span id="page-9-3"></span>Jieyu Zhao, Tianlu Wang, Mark Yatskar, Vicente **771** Ordonez, and Kai-Wei Chang. 2017. Men also **772** like shopping: Reducing gender bias amplifica- **773** tion using corpus-level constraints. *arXiv preprint* **774** *arXiv:1707.09457*. **775**
- <span id="page-9-4"></span>Kankan Zhou, Yibin LAI, and Jing Jiang. 2022. Vl- **776** stereoset: A study of stereotypical bias in pre-trained vision-language models. Association for Computa- **778** tional Linguistics. **779**
- A Appendix **<sup>780</sup>**



Figure 6: False Positive Rate (FPR) for various objects in the MSCOCO dataset. For most indoor objects, the FPR is higher in images of females than in those of males; conversely, for most outdoor objects such as vehicles, the FPR is higher in images of males than in those of females. These results indicate that females correlate more closely with indoor objects than males.