

On The Effectiveness of Gender Debiasing Methods in Removing Gender Information From Model Representations

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Abstract

Large pre-trained models such as BERT have been shown to demonstrate biased behavior towards different demographic groups, such as gender, race, or religion. Despite the development and proposal of various debiasing methods, there is a paucity of prior research focusing on the efficacy of debiasing methods in removing the latent demographic information encoded in internal representations. We examine the effectiveness of some recent bias mitigation methods in removing stereotypical gender information from internal model representations using Minimum Description Length (MDL) probing. We discover that the effectiveness of current debiasing techniques might not necessarily be indicative of reduced latent gender bias in representations. Furthermore, we investigate the effect of debiasing methods on internal representations using layerwise probing, showing that they tend to concentrate gender information in a few layers. We additionally apply a number of state-of-the-art debiasing methods to the layers with the highest gender information concentration, finding that by focusing on these layers, there is only a minimal change in model behavior with respect to fairness and performance.

1 Introduction

Recent research indicates that pre-trained language models, such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), exhibit different societal stereotypes, including racism and sexism. Given the extensive implementation of these models and the numerous concerns it can cause, various methods have been proposed to mitigate bias in these models, either by manipulating datasets (Zhao et al., 2018a), refining the learning algorithm (Kaneko and Bollegala, 2021a), or by modifying the architecture of the network (Lauscher et al., 2021). Despite all these efforts, to our knowledge, no research has so far focused on the effectiveness of these methods in removing gender information from model representations.

As a result, there is limited evidence demonstrating whether these debiasing strategies eliminate encoded gender-biased information.

In this paper, we carry out a set of experiments to determine if the existing debiasing techniques used to mitigate gender bias are also effective in reducing the captured bias information in model representations. We study three different debiasing techniques, from those that change the training dataset or the learning objective to those that directly alter model’s architecture. We evaluate the amount of captured gendered information by BERT’s representations using two probing datasets, BiosBias (De-Arteaga et al., 2019), and Funpedia (Dinan et al., 2020). We find that the significant performance improvements of debiasing techniques on bias datasets might not necessarily indicate that the gender information is discarded (or even reduced) from their representations. While some methods, such as counterfactual augmentation (Zhao et al., 2018a), tend to significantly reduce the encoded gender information in some cases, others either have negligible effect on BERT’s internal representation or even amplify the gender information that they encode.

Furthermore, we apply MDL probing, an information-theoretic probing classifier proposed by Voita and Titov (2020) in a layerwise setting in order to determine the layers that encode the gendered information the most. We find that it is indeed the case that some layers encode more of the gendered information in comparison to other layers, with deeper layers consistently having higher gender information concentration in comparison to earlier layers. We apply MDL probing to the base, fine-tuned, and debiased models to determine the effects of debiasing on intermediate representations. We hypothesize that an effective debiasing method should have the largest effect on layers that encode the gendered information the most.

We finally apply counterfactual augmentation

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(Zhao et al., 2018a) and adapter-based debiasing (Lauscher et al., 2021) only to the layers that encode the highest amount of gender information. We observe that by carefully selecting the layers that are to be debiased, we can reach a performance that is comparable to a full-model debiasing, in which every layer of a given model is debiased.

Our work is inspired by Mendelson and Belinkov (2021) who studied the impact of debiasing techniques used to reduce the model’s reliance on spurious correlations between data and labels in natural language inference on model’s representations. Our contribution is threefold:

- We utilize MDL probing to determine the encoded gendered information in pre-trained language models. We show that debiasing techniques do not necessarily reduce the encoded bias information in internal representations.
- We extend the probing to layer-wise analysis of pre-trained language models to determine the distribution of encoded information across layers. We find that some layers tend to encode this information more than the others. This observation can be used to develop efficient and effective debiasing techniques that focus on specific layers.
- To test our hypothesis, we apply two debiasing techniques only on layers with the highest gender information concentration, finding that it is indeed possible to develop models that are comparable to fully debiased models, while modifying only a small portion of model’s weights.

2 Background

In this section, we discuss MDL probing, the technique we employ to measure gender information captured by model representations, as well as common measurement metrics used to quantify bias in neural networks.

2.1 MDL Probing

Traditionally, in order to extract the information encoded in a model’s representations, a shallow classifier was trained using the model representations with the goal of predicting a linguistic feature (Belinkov, 2022). However, it has been shown that such models are unreliable, as they tend to classify representations of random data almost similarly to the representations of real data (Zhang and

Bowman, 2018), highlighting the fact that these methods are inadequate to capture variations in representations, making their results hyperparameter-dependent.

To address this problem, Voita and Titov (2020) have proposed Minimum Description Length Probing, where in addition to the accuracy of the shallow classifier, this criteria measures how much effort does it need to extract that information from the model representations. Formally, they establish that a code exists to losslessly compress the labels using Shannon-Huffman code such that $L_p(y_{1,z}|x_{1,z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^z \log_2 p(y_i|x_i)$. Note that this is the Cross-Entropy loss. Furthermore, they define the uniform code length as $L_{unif}(y_{i,z}|x_{i,z}) = z \log_2(C)$ where C is the number of classes in our task.

Having calculated the uniform code length, they compare the Cross-Entropy loss against the uniform code length to find the final compression. Given a model $P_\theta(y|x)$ with learnable parameters θ , they choose blocks $1 = n_0 < n_1 < \dots < n_s = N$ and encode data by these blocks. The model starts by transmitting the data using the uniform code length for the first chunk. The model is then trained to predict labels y from the data x , and also used to predict the labels. The next block is transmitted using this trained new model. This process continues until the entire dataset is covered. Final compression is calculated as follows:

$$L^{\text{online}}(y_{1:z} | x_{1:z}) = z_1 \log_2 C - \sum_{i=1}^{S-1} \log_2 p_{\theta_i}(y_{n_i+1:n_{i+1}} | x_{n_i+1:n_{i+1}}) \quad (1)$$

Note that this encourages the model to perform well with smaller blocks, as if the model performs well in compressing the data in the block n_i , the compression will be increased for the subsequent block n_{i+1} .

2.2 Bias Measurement Methods

Fairness metrics are measurement criteria which are used to observe a model’s performance with respect to protected variables such as gender. Various methods have been proposed to measure gender bias in machine learning models. One of the common approaches to measuring gender bias is by looking at the statistical differences across multiple values of the protected variables. Statistical parity, for instance, states that a classifier should

178 have an equal probability of assigning true output
179 for samples with different values for protected vari-
180 ables. In this study, we utilized differences in recall,
181 precision, and F1 scores for measuring bias.

182 3 Methodology

183 To investigate the effect of gender debiasing meth-
184 ods on internal model representations, we devel-
185 oped a general framework based on the online code
186 length, a variation of MDL probing proposed by
187 Voita and Titov (2020), to quantify the gender in-
188 formation contained in the model representations.
189 We have conducted our experiments partially utiliz-
190 ing the code provided by Orgad et al. (2022)¹ and
191 using two datasets and three debiasing techniques.

192 **Datasets.** Probing datasets are defined as $D =$
193 $\{X, Y_p\}$, where X is the textual input and Y_p is
194 the label of the knowledge characteristic we are
195 investigating, which is gender information in our
196 study. A number of datasets have been proposed
197 with the goal of measuring fairness, either in spe-
198 cific tasks, or language modeling in general. Task
199 specific datasets aim to measure societal bias us-
200 ing a downstream task. Datasets such as WinoBias
201 (Zhao et al., 2018a), EEC (Kiritchenko and Mo-
202 hammad, 2018), and BiosBias (De-Arteaga et al.,
203 2019) fall into this category. On the other hand,
204 datasets such as StereoSet (Nadeem et al., 2021),
205 and CrowS-Pairs (Nangia et al., 2020) aim to mea-
206 sure societal biases using the language modeling
207 capabilities of a pre-trained model. BiosBias (De-
208 Arteaga et al., 2019) and Funpedia (Dinan et al.,
209 2020) were used in our experiments, with the gen-
210 der feature as the probing label. BiosBias is a set of
211 396,347 biographies with the occupation of the tar-
212 get person being the target label. Gender labels for
213 each biography are also provided which are used
214 for our probing task. Funpedia is a set of 23,000
215 biography sentences pulled from Wikipedia and
216 rephrased to be conversational. The target label for
217 Funpedia is the gender of the target person of the
218 sentence. We test all of our models on 20% of the
219 BiosBias dataset and the Funpedia evaluation set;
220 therefore, we have adequate data to train the prob-
221 ing classifier as well as sufficient data to evaluate
222 the model representations.

223 **Model.** Textual input is represented using a lan-
224 guage model $f_\theta : X \rightarrow Z$, where X is the textual
225 input, Z is the latent representation of the text, and

θ contains the weights of the model. Experiments
226 are conducted using model-generated representa-
227 tions Z . More specifically, we employed BERT
228 base uncased model prior to and following the ex-
229 ecution of multiple debiasing techniques. We ad-
230 ditionally test our approach on BERT models pre-
231 trained on BiosBias and Funpedia with respect to
232 their original objectives (occupation classification
233 and gender classification, respectively) in order to
234 determine the effect of pre-training in injecting gen-
235 der information into model representations across
236 various datasets.
237

238 **Debiasing Methods.** Debiasing methods are
239 techniques for modifying model’s weights θ us-
240 ing either continuous training on modified algo-
241 rithms or training objectives, or by modifying the
242 representation space using an auxiliary algorithm.
243 To implement our framework of measuring gender
244 information in the representations generated by de-
245 biasing methods, we investigate the following three
246 debiasing techniques:

- 247 • Proposed by Zhao et al. (2018a), counterfac-
248 tual data augmentation (CDA) is the process
249 of automatically generating text instances that
250 counter the stereotypical bias presented in rep-
251 resentation. Using general terms and nouns to
252 describe the involved groups, this technique
253 is widely used to counteract various types of
254 bias, particularly gender and ethnicity.
- 255 • Lauscher et al. (2021) proposed ADELE
256 (adapter-based debiasing), in which they in-
257 ject adapter modules into original pretrained
258 language model architecture and train adapter
259 modules using a counterfactually augmented
260 dataset, while maintaining the original PLM
261 parameters. They observe that their proposed
262 method improves model’s fairness without
263 much alteration in the initial knowledge.
- 264 • Kaneko and Bollegala (2021b) proposed a
265 post-processing debiasing method that can be
266 applied to token-level or sentence-level rep-
267 resentations. They assert that their proposed
268 debiasing technique preserves semantic infor-
269 mation captured in contextualised embeddings
270 while removing gender-related bias through
271 an orthogonal projection at the intermediate
272 layers.

¹https://github.com/technion-cs-nlp/gender_internal

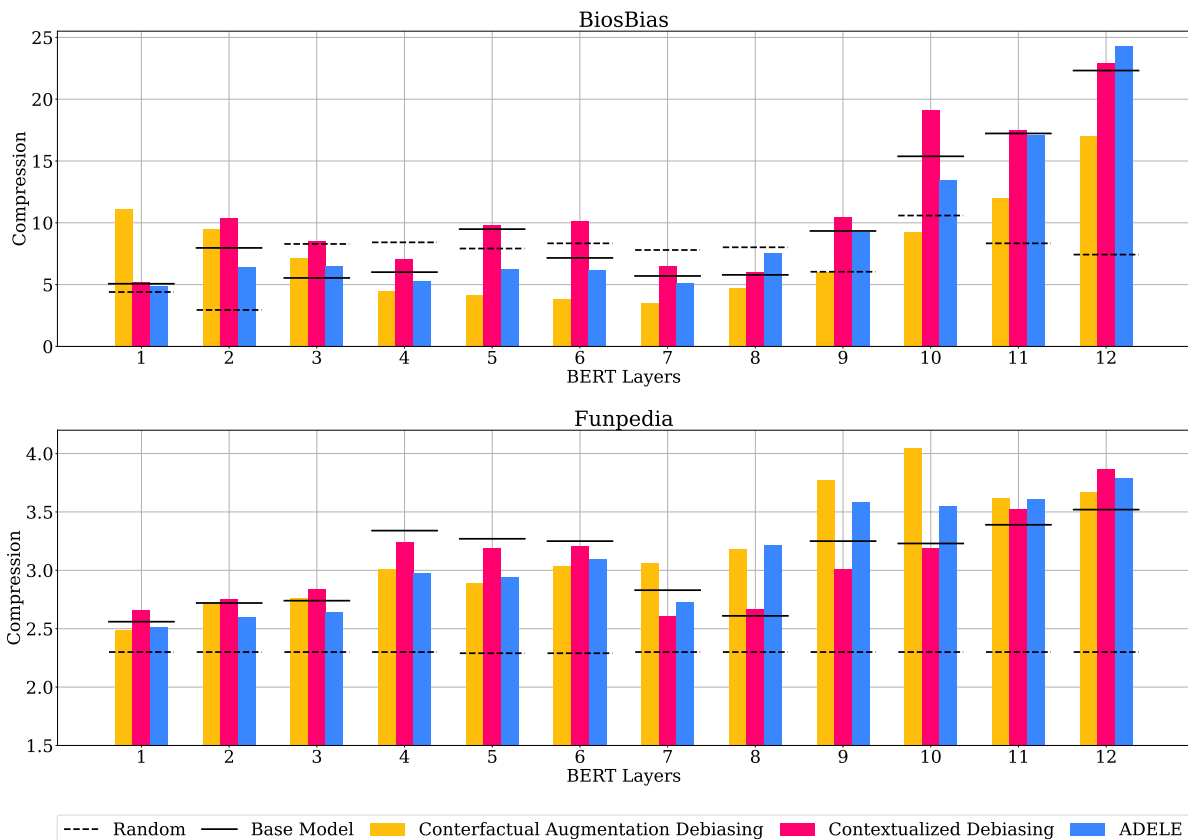


Figure 1: Layerwise compression of BERT models on Funpedia and BiosBias probing dataset. Higher values indicate that the layer contains more gender information. (See the Appendix for result tables)

Model	Compression
Random	7.43
Base	22.99
Fine Tuned	7.37
Contextualized Debiasing	22.91
CDA	16.98
ADELE	24.29

Table 1: Results indicating the captured gender information prior to, and after applying the debiasing techniques on the BERT base model using BiosBias dataset, as well the captured gender information when the model is fine-tuned on the occupation prediction task, or randomly initialized.

Model	Compression
Random	2.30
Base	3.52
Fine Tuned	6.06
Contextualized Debiasing	3.87
CDA	3.67

Table 2: Results indicating the captured gender information prior to, and after applying the debiasing techniques on the BERT base model using Funpedia dataset, as well the captured gender information when the model is fine-tuned on the gender prediction task, or randomly initialized.

4 Representation-Level Analysis

In this section, we detail the first experiment we conduct to determine the efficacy of debiasing techniques in removing gender signals from model representations. We begin by describing our experimental setup, and then analyze and explain our findings.

4.1 Experimental Setup

For our first experiment, we employ the probing datasets described in Section 3 and compute online code length, and subsequently, the compression for model representations. We carry out our experiments on a BERT base model before and after applying the three debiasing techniques described in the previous section. We followed the hyperparameter setting of Lauscher et al. (2021) to implement counterfactual augmentation and adapter-

290 based debiasing techniques. The Wikipedia dataset
291 was augmented with the word pairs employed by
292 Lauscher et al. (2021), trained both models using
293 the standard MLM procedure for BERT training,
294 and masked 15% of the tokens on the CDA dataset
295 over the course of two epochs. For the experiments
296 on contextualised representation debiasing Kaneko
297 and Bollegala (2021b), we used the models pro-
298 vided in their GitHub repository.

299 In addition, we conduct our experiments with
300 randomly initialized BERT base weights as a base-
301 line for gender information extractability of repre-
302 sentations of a random model. We expect that a
303 randomly initialized model will capture less gender
304 information in comparison to other models. Ad-
305 ditionally, we conduct our tests using fine-tuned
306 models on BiosBias and Funpedia datasets using
307 occupation prediction and gender prediction tasks,
308 respectively, to measure the gender information in-
309 jected into the model as a result of fine-tuning. We
310 hypothesize that the captured gender information
311 by model representations largely depends on the
312 task on which the model is fine-tuned. Tasks re-
313 quiring gender information will lead to higher gen-
314 der information captured by model representations,
315 whereas tasks that require little gender information
316 might decrease this information.

317 To determine what layers of the model capture
318 the most gender information, we conduct probing
319 experiments in a layerwise setting. We extract the
320 representations of the model for each layer given
321 a dataset, and apply Minimum Description Length
322 probing to each representation individually and
323 compute the associated compression.

324 4.2 Results

325 **Effectiveness of Debiasing Methods in Remov-**
326 **ing Gender Information.** Tables 1 and 2 show
327 the results of layerwise probing experiments for
328 the BiosBias and Funpedia gender prediction tasks,
329 respectively. For the **BiosBias** dataset, we find that
330 out of the three tested debiasing techniques, coun-
331 terfactual augmentation of the dataset is the only
332 technique that results in a reduced compression
333 in Minimum Description Length Probing. This
334 indicates that the other techniques fail to mean-
335 ingfully reduce the gender information captured in
336 model representations, and in the case of ADELE,
337 increase it. This finding is particularly interesting
338 as ADELE adapters are trained using the same pro-
339 cedure as counterfactual fine-tuning of the model.

340 We believe that it might be the case that these debi-
341 asing techniques, make use of gender information
342 to make fairer decisions with respect to a gender,
343 rather than removing it completely. Our results in
344 Section 5 further conforms with this hypothesis.

345 In the case of **Funpedia**, we find that fine-tuning
346 a model on the gender-prediction task significantly
347 increases the captured gender information. This
348 contradicts our observation on the previous task,
349 in which fine-tuning a model on the occupation
350 prediction task significantly decreases the compres-
351 sion. This is in line with our previous assumption
352 that the captured gender information largely de-
353 pends on the task on which the model is trained
354 on, meaning that when a model does not require
355 the captured gender information, it simply discards
356 it. Furthermore, we find no meaningful decrease
357 in gender information when applying other debias-
358 ing techniques, showcasing the inefficacy of such
359 techniques in removing gender information and
360 conforming with our previous results.

361 **Gender information is Captured in The Final**
362 **Layers.** Figure 1 showcases our results from the
363 layerwise analysis experiment. We observe that
364 later layers, layer 10 and onwards in particular,
365 boast significantly higher compression in compari-
366 son to earlier layers. This means that these layers
367 are extensively used during model inference regard-
368 ing gender tasks. Inferring the gender of a person
369 from a given text requires semantic knowledge over
370 the input text to handle the required agreement be-
371 tween different parts of the sentence. Thus, our
372 finding is in line with a previous work by Jawahar
373 et al. (2019) in which they show that semantic in-
374 formation is mostly encoded by the later layers of
375 the BERT model.

376 We find this information useful as it can be uti-
377 lized while developing truly gender-neutral models
378 by mainly focusing on layers that carry the most
379 gender information during the debiasing phase and
380 significantly decrease the number of trained param-
381 eters in such models.

382 5 Partial Debiasing

383 Results obtained in section 4 indicates that most
384 of the gender information is concentrated in only a
385 few layers of the BERT model. Namely, layers 9
386 through 12 contain the highest amount of encoded
387 gender information. In this section, we apply two
388 debiasing methods only on layers that contain the

Model	Female			Male			Δ Recall	Δ F1	Δ Precision
	Recall	Precision	F1	Recall	Precision	F1			
Base	62.22	68.22	65.08	77.53	70.39	73.79	15.31	8.71	2.17
Zari	71.11	53.01	60.74	45.75	73.85	56.5	-25.36	-4.24	20.84
CDA Full	58.47	67.89	62.83	78.87	68.71	73.44	20.39	10.62	0.82
CDA Last-4	57.04	71.86	63.60	80.92	68.56	74.23	23.88	10.63	-3.3
ADELE Full	60.72	69.15	64.66	77.03	72.93	69.24	16.31	8.27	0.09
ADELE Last-4	55.00	75.9	63.78	83.05	67.4	74.41	28.04	10.63	-8.5

Table 3: Performance Results for Base and Debiased BERT models in scrubbed gender prediction task. Δ indicates difference in a given metric and is calculated using $Metric(Male) - Metric(Female)$

Model	Female			Male			Δ Recall	Δ F1	Δ Precision
	Recall	Precision	F1	Recall	Precision	F1			
Base	78.90	78.44	78.67	81.13	80.20	80.66	2.22	1.99	1.76
Zari	82.42	79.8	81.09	84.18	81.6	82.87	1.75	1.78	1.8
CDA Full	78.66	78.44	78.55	80.75	80.39	80.57	2.09	2.02	1.95
CDA Last-4	79.00	78.54	78.77	81.17	80.59	80.88	2.17	2.12	2.05
ADELE Full	79.01	77.66	78.33	81.14	80.46	80.80	2.13	2.47	2.80
ADELE Last-4	78.53	78.17	78.35	80.68	80.74	80.71	2.15	2.36	2.57

Table 4: Performance Results for Base and Debiased BERT models in occupation prediction task. Δ indicates difference in a given metric and is calculated using $Metric(Male) - Metric(Female)$

most gender information and report our observations.

We find that debiasing the layers with the highest gender information does not adversely affect the model performance and fairness by a significant margin in comparison to debiasing the entire model, and requires the training of only a portion of model parameters. Furthermore, we find results that further support our previous hypothesis regarding the usage of gender information by debiased models to yield fairer results and not removing this information entirely.

5.1 Experimental Setup

To develop partially debiased models, we take two of the aforementioned debiasing techniques, counterfactual augmentation and ADELE adapter debiasing, and apply them to the final 4 layers of the BERT model. The training process remains the same as Section 4, but we additionally freeze the initial 8 layers of the model so that debiasing is applied only to layers 9 through 12. In the case of ADELE, adapter modules are added only to the final 4 layers of the model.

We test our models in two settings. First, we use the scrubbed version of BiosBias in which all

words containing a gender indicator are replaced by a meaningless token ("_" in this case) and train a shallow classifier to predict the associated gender of each input. The shallow classifier utilizes a Sigmoid activation function. For the second test, we again use the BiosBias dataset and train a shallow classifier to predict the associated occupation of each person that the input text mentions. The dataset contains 28 classes, and Softmax activation function is used for the shallow classifier. In both cases, we use 20% of the data for testing, and the rest of the data for training. We run our tests 5 times for each model and report the average performance.

As our fairness metric, we calculate the difference in Recall, Precision and F1-score with respect to gender in both settings. e.g. the number of correctly predicted occupations for females out of all female instances of the dataset.

5.2 Results

In this section, we demonstrate and analyze our findings achieved by running BERT base and BERT debiased models on scrubbed gender prediction and occupation prediction tasks.

5.2.1 Scrubbed Gender Prediction

Table 3 showcases the results for scrubbed gender prediction task for each of our models. Somewhat surprisingly, we find that BERT base model performs the best with respect to difference in Recall out of all models, with debiased models performing noticeably worse. To validate our observations and our implementation of debiasing techniques, we utilize Zari (Webster et al., 2020), a BERT large variant pre-trained from scratch using Counterfactual Augmentation, and test it alongside our original models. We find that Zari, alongside other debiased models, perform worse than the base model with respect to Recall difference. More interestingly, we observe a trend in which models yield a higher Recall score in comparison to Precision score in male samples, while yielding a higher Precision score in female samples. Suggesting that models often assign a false-negative value to female samples, while assigning a false-positive value to male samples. This observation indicates that models have the tendency of predicting “Male” as the true label across all debiased models. The only exception to this observation is Zari, in which female samples have a higher recall score. We believe that this behavior by Zari is due to it being pre-trained from scratch using Counterfactual Augmentation, which has created different associations in comparison to the original BERT model.

We believe that this observation bolsters our previous hypothesis of debiasing techniques utilizing gender information to perform fairly in downstream tasks. With gender indicators removed from the input data in scrubbed gender prediction task, models fall back to utilizing correlations to make predictions. This observation indicates that the tested debiasing techniques do not remove underlying correlations between gender and profession in a representational level, but simply make use of the gender information that is encoded in the input data to make fairer predictions.

5.2.2 Occupation Prediction

Table 4 showcases the results for gender prediction task for each of our models. Unlike our previous observation, we find that the difference in Recall and Precision scores across genders to be much closer in this case. Furthermore, we find that the previously mentioned trend does not hold in the gender prediction task, in which models yield a higher Recall score to female samples, indicating that models refrain from using stereotypical be-

havior when exposed to gender information in the input data.

We find that all debiased models, including Zari and partially debiased models, increase the predictive parity (reducing the difference in Recall) in comparison to the BERT base model. Meaning that $P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = 1, G = M) = P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = 1, G = F)$ is further maintained in these models. On the other hand, we observe a decrease in the predictive equality (increasing the difference in Precision) in debiased models in comparison to the BERT base model. Meaning that $P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = 0, G = M) = P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = 0, G = F)$ is weakened in these models. We believe that this behavior might be due to the nature of the BiosBias dataset, in which most occupations have a stronger male correlation. Debiasing the model decreases the false-positive-rate of these classes for male samples, thus increasing the precision by a relatively significant margin. Female samples, however, have a weaker correlation with the occupations present in the dataset, thus their false-positive-rate is either unchanged or changed by a small margin.

Furthermore, we observe that models debiased using only the final four layers of the model exhibit no significant decrease in performance or fairness. Both partially debiased models perform comparable to the Base model, and yield a stronger predictive parity. In comparison to the fully debiased models, we observe a slight decrease in fairness metrics in partial models, which is expected due to their limited focus during the debiasing stage. Further investigation is required to completely understand the effects of partial debiasing on model fairness and behavior. However, our initial tests demonstrate promising results which can be applied to any other debiasing approach.

6 Related Work

6.1 Gender Bias

Early studies concerning gender bias in language models demonstrated that static embeddings not only encode but also amplify human-like biases in their representations (Islam et al., 2016; Bolukbasi et al., 2016). A number of studies have suggested methods for manipulating the embedding space or learning algorithm to mitigate bias in such models (Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2018b). But as demonstrated by Gonen and Goldberg (2019), these techniques only superficially remove biased information from the embedding space of the model.

The introduction of contextualised word embeddings such as BERT has raised the significance of this challenge, as manipulation in representation space is no longer as trivial as it was with static embeddings. It has been shown that contextualized language models also exhibit bias against demographic groups such as race, gender, and religion (Zhao et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2021). Similar to static embeddings, a number of techniques have been proposed to mitigate bias at various levels, including methods that modify the language model itself and methods that are applied when fine-tuning the language model for a specific downstream task. In Section 3, we discussed some of the most notable approaches for debiasing language models, which are used to reduce bias at the level of language modelling.

6.2 Bias Probing

Probing is a convenient technique for determining the nature and extent to which a model captures a particular knowledge characteristic. With the advancement of methods used to interpret model behaviour and the introduction of methods such as Minimum Description Length (Voita and Titov, 2020, MDL) (which was thoroughly explained in Section 4), many studies have built upon this technique to further investigate the knowledge captured by language models.

Mendelson and Belinkov (2021) used MDL to demonstrate that debiasing methods used to make models robust against spurious correlations between linguistic features and task labels in datasets cause the model to encode more biased information in its representations. More recently, Orgad et al. (2022) utilised MDL as a metric for assessing bias in model representations. They demonstrated that compression as an intrinsic bias metric, as compared to CEAT, the most prominent intrinsic bias measurement technique, has a much stronger correlation with extrinsic bias metrics used in conjunction with extrinsic bias mitigation techniques. Therefore, they argue that compression is a superior intrinsic bias metric than CEAT. In contrast, we investigate the retention of gender information through MDL compression after intrinsically debiasing a base model. In addition, MDL is applied layer-by-layer to determine the gender information captured by each layer.

7 Conclusions

In this work, we apply Minimum Description Length probing using two large datasets to identify the effectiveness of gender debiasing methods in removing the gender information encoded in BERT model representations. We find that, despite the success of such methods in forcing the model to reduce biased behavior in downstream tasks, they do not have a significant impact on the amount of encoded gender information in model representations.

Additionally, we conducted evaluations in a layerwise setting, showing that gender information is mostly concentrated in the later layers of the model, with the highest concentration being in layers 9 through 12. We hypothesized that the observation can be utilized to develop debiasing methods that only focus on layers with the highest gender information, decreasing the number of parameters to optimize and making more targeted changes to the original model. To test our hypothesis, we applied Counterfactual Augmentation debiasing and ADELE debiasing only to the final four layers of a BERT model. Using the occupation prediction task, we found that debiasing only the layers with the highest gender information yields no significant drawbacks with respect to model performance and fairness, making this approach worthy of investigation in future work. Additionally, and somewhat surprisingly, we found that when gender information was scrubbed from the input sentences, debiased models revert back to associating certain professions with a gender. This observation provides further support for our hypothesis that debiasing methods do not necessarily remove the encoded gender-information. On the contrary, debiased models seem to utilize this inherent information to reduce the biased behavior in downstream tasks.

8 Limitations

Due to the large amount of resources required to conduct the extensive tests mentioned in sections 4 and 5, we can only confirm the correctness of our results for the BERT models. As different models tend to encode linguistic knowledge in different layers (Fayyaz et al., 2021), it is currently difficult to generalize our observation to other models. Further testing on other models is required to find the layers that encode the gender information and observe their behavior when partially debiased.

Furthermore, our technique requires the presence

636	of gender labels to measure the encoded gender	Hila Gonen and Yoav Goldberg. 2019. Lipstick on a	690
637	information. This significantly reduces the datasets	pig: Debiasing methods cover up systematic gender	691
638	that our method can be applied on, which reduces	biases in word embeddings but do not remove them.	692
639	its generalizability. Further methods, especially	In <i>Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North</i>	693
640	those not requiring explicit gender labels, will help	<i>American Chapter of the Association for Computa-</i>	694
641	in both confirming, or refuting our observations,	<i>tional Linguistics: Human Language Technologies,</i>	695
642	and generalizing this approach to a more general	<i>Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)</i> , pages 609–614,	696
643	setting.	Minneapolis, Minnesota. Association for Computa-	697
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Model	Layerwise Compression												Compression Variance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Random	4.4	2.95	8.29	8.42	7.92	8.34	7.8	8.02	6.04	10.59	8.34	7.43	3.77
Base	4.85	6.94	5.52	5.69	8.83	7.22	5.67	5.86	9.35	14.17	17.43	22.99	29.90
Fine Tuned	5.29	7.64	10.12	5.76	13.57	8.44	7.34	7.34	12.12	13.47	12.1	7.37	7.96
Contextualized Debiasing	5.23	10.41	8.56	7.09	9.81	10.15	6.54	5.98	10.43	19.11	17.47	22.91	29.30
CDA	11.14	9.49	7.11	4.46	4.18	3.81	3.51	4.71	5.98	9.24	11.99	16.98	17.25
ADELE	4.87	6.39	6.52	5.3	6.29	6.2	5.11	7.59	9.26	13.44	17.12	24.29	32.83

Table 5: Layerwise compression of BERT models on BiosBias probing dataset. Each cell represents the compression achieved using either a base or debiased model from the representation extracted from the layer. Highlighted cells represent the top three layers with the highest compression.

Model	Layerwise Compression												Compression Variance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Random	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.29	2.29	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	2.30	1.38e-05
Base	2.56	2.72	2.74	3.34	3.27	3.25	2.83	2.61	3.25	3.23	3.39	3.52	0.33
Fine Tuned	2.62	2.86	2.84	3.45	3.49	3.34	3.32	3.35	5.54	6.24	6.18	6.06	1.89
Contextualized Debiasing	2.66	2.75	2.84	3.24	3.19	3.21	2.61	2.67	3.01	3.19	3.52	3.87	0.13
CDA	2.49	2.73	2.76	3.01	2.89	3.04	3.06	3.18	3.77	4.05	3.62	3.67	0.21
ADELE	2.51	2.6	2.64	2.98	2.94	3.1	2.73	3.22	3.58	3.55	3.61	3.79	0.18

Table 6: Layerwise compression of BERT models on FunPedia probing dataset. Each cell represents the compression achieved using either a base or debiased model from the representation extracted from the layer. Highlighted cells represent the top three layers with the highest compression.