

Dual Debiasing: Remove Stereotypes and Keep Factual Gender for Fair Language Modeling and Translation

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Abstract

Mitigation of biases, such as language models’ reliance on gender stereotypes, is a crucial endeavor required for the creation of reliable and useful language technology. The crucial aspect of debiasing is to ensure that the models preserve their versatile capabilities, including their ability to solve language tasks and equitably represent various genders. To address these issues, we introduce *Dual Debiasing Algorithm through Model Adaptation (2DAMA)*. Novel *Dual Debiasing* enables robust reduction of stereotypical bias while preserving desired factual gender information encoded by language models. We show that *2DAMA* effectively reduces gender bias in language models for English and is one of the first approaches facilitating the mitigation of their stereotypical tendencies in translation. The proposed method’s key advantage is the preservation of factual gender cues, which are useful in a wide range of natural language processing tasks.¹

1 Introduction

Gender representation in large language models (LLMs) has been the topic of significant research effort (Stanczak and Augenstein, 2021; Kotek et al., 2023). Past studies have predominantly focused on such representation to identify and mitigate social biases. Admittedly, biases are a challenging issue limiting the reliability of LLMs in real-world applications. Yet, we argue that preserving particular types of gender representation is crucial for fairness and knowledge acquisition in language models.

To provide a more detailed perspective, we draw examples of both unwanted and beneficial types of gender signals in LLMs. Undesirable biases are typically inherited from stereotypes and imbalances in the training corpora and tend to be further amplified during the model training (Van Der Wal et al., 2022; Gallegos et al., 2024). Biases are manifested

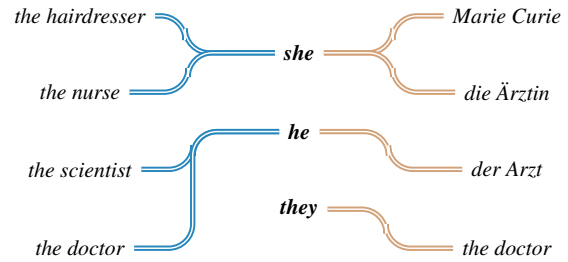


Figure 1: Dual character of gender signals encoded in language models: **stereotypical** cues are shown on the left, and **factual** cues are shown on the right-hand side. “Die Ärztin” and “der Arzt” are respectively female and male German translation for “the doctor”.

in multiple ways, including unequal representation (models are more likely to generate mentions of a specific overrepresented gender), stereotypical associations (particular contexts are associated with one gender based on stereotypical cues, e.g., “politics and business are male domains”, while “family is a female domain”). It has been shown that, due to bias, LLMs struggle with high-stakes decision-making and are prone to produce discriminatory predictions. Examples of such a sensitive application are the automatic evaluation of CVs and biographical notes (De-Arteaga et al., 2019), where some professions are stereotypically associated with a specific gender. Therefore, individuals of another gender could face an unfair disadvantage when assessed by an LLM-based evaluator.

Nevertheless, LLMs should understand and represent gender signals. For instance, chatbots should be persistent in addressing the user with their preferred gender pronouns after they are revealed (Limisiewicz and Mareček, 2022). Adequate representation of gender is also required for knowledge acquisition, for example, in question answering (QA), to correctly answer “Maria Skłodowska-Curie” to the question “Who was the first woman to win a Nobel Prize?”. Gender sensitivity is even

¹We will release the code upon publication.

more critical in morphologically rich languages, where gender mentions are much more ubiquitous, e.g., through morphological markings (as in German, Czech, or Russian) (Hellinger and Bußmann, 2002). Examples of dual characters (stereotypical vs. factual) of gender encoding are shown in Figure 1.

To address these intricate ways gender signals are present in natural language, we introduce a new method, *2DAMA*, that post-hoc modifies pre-trained language models to represent gender in an equitable way, i.e., without stereotypical bias but with factual gender information. **As the core contribution, we introduce the novel method of *Dual Debiasing* that aims at our core problem of decreasing bias while keeping equitable factual gender representation.** Specifically, we aim to reduce the models’ reliance on stereotypes in predictions, e.g., given a stereotypical prompt as the one in Figure 2: “*The salesperson laughed because*”, we intend to coerce equitable probabilities of possible gender predictions manifested by pronouns “*he*”, “*she*”, or “*them*”. On the contrary, when considering a prompt containing factual gender information: “*The king laughed because*” the desired output distribution would assign a high probability to the male pronoun.

2 Methodology and Theoretical Background

In this section, we formally introduce *Dual Debiasing Algorithm through Model Adaptation* (*2DAMA*), a new dual debiasing method, and provide theoretical backing for the presented approach. Appendix A contains the proofs and further terminological explanations.

2.1 Background and Novel Methods

In *2DAMA*, we introduce novel *Dual Debiasing* and incorporates it into the framework taking that comprises previously established algorithms (*DAMA*, *LEACE*). We provide a clear distinction between previous and novel approaches described in this paper:

Background Methods: *DAMA Debiasing Algorithm through Model Adaptation* (Limisiewicz et al., 2024) is a method for adapting parameters of language models to mitigate the encoding of harmful biases without affecting their general performance. The method employs model editing techniques (Meng et al., 2022) to disassociate spe-

cific signals provided in a prompt with the model outputs, i.e., stereotypes in prompts and gendered output. *LEACE LEAsT-squares Concept Erasure* (Belrose et al., 2023) is a method of concept erasure (such as bias signal) in latent representation.

Novel Methods: *DAMA-LEACE* (Section 2.2) The first innovation is streamlining the base debiasing algorithm *DAMA*. We achieve it by replacing the Partial Least Squares concept erasure used in *DAMA* with *LEACE*, which doesn’t require pre-defining the dimensionality of erased signals. The core novelty of this work is **2D Dual Debiasing**, a new algorithm that we formally introduce in Section 2.3. The method uses covariance matrix decomposition to identify correlates related to bias and protected feature signals. A concept erasure algorithm is modified to erase bias while preserving protected features, such as factual gender.

2.2 DAMA-LEACE

LEACE guarantees erasing a specific concept’s influence on a latent vector. In a neural network, we can consider a latent vector U to be an output of one of the intermediate layers. *LEACE* aims to de-correlate latent vectors with an unwanted signal (e.g., gender bias), whose distribution is represented as another vector Z .

In model editing, we are interested in how a model’s layer maps its input vector U to output vector V (unlike *LEACE*, which focuses on standalone latent vector U). We are specifically interested in a transformation that minimizes the distance between the input (keys: U) and the predicted variables (values: V). Such U can be a latent vector obtained by feeding into a model a gendered prompt, while Z is a vector corresponding to stereotypical output.

We reasonably assume that dense layers of trained neural networks (e.g., feed-forward layers in Transformer) fulfill this purpose, i.e.:

$$V = SU - \epsilon, \quad (1)$$

where S is a linear transformation and ϵ a vector of errors. Due to gradient optimization in the model’s pre-training, we assume that the feed-forward layer approximates the least solution, i.e., $FF \approx S$.

Taking this assumption, we can present a theorem guaranteeing concept erasure (based on *LEACE*) in the model adaptation algorithm (*DAMA*):

Theorem 1 (DAMA-LEACE). *We consider random vectors: U taking values in $\mathbb{R}^m$, V and Z taking values in $\mathbb{R}^n$, where $m \geq n$. Under assumptions that: A) random vectors U , V , Z are centered, and each of them has finite moment; B) the regression relation between U and V fulfill the assumption of ordinary least squares, and there exist least squares estimator $V = SU - \epsilon$.*

Then the objective:

$$\arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}} \mathbb{E} [\|PU - V\|^2],$$

subject to:

$$\text{Cov}(PU, Z) = 0$$

is solved by:

$$P^* = (\mathbb{I} - W^\dagger P_{W\Sigma} W) S,$$

where W is the whitening transformation $(\Sigma_{SU, SU}^{1/2})^\dagger$; $P_{W\Sigma}$ is an orthogonal projection matrix onto colspace of $W\Sigma_{SU, Z}$; S is a least squares estimator of V given U : $S = \Sigma_{U, V} \Sigma_{U, U}^{-1}$.²

Based on the theorem and the assumption that $FF \approx S$ applying projections would break the correlation between stereotypical keys and gendered values with minimal impact on other correlations stored by the feed-forward layer. We call the algorithm realizing such adaptation in a neural network: **DAMA-LEACE**.

2.3 Dual Debiasing

In *Dual Debiasing*, we extend the concept erasure problem by considering two type signals and corresponding random variables: Z_b bias to be erased and Z_f feature to be preserved. We posit that:

Theorem 2 (DUAL-DEBIASING). *We consider random vectors X , Z_b , and Z_f in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Under the assumptions that: A) Z_b and Z_f $Z_b \perp Z_f | X$, i.e., Z_b and Z_f are conditionally independent, given X ; B) $\Sigma_{X, Z_b} \Sigma_{X, Z_f}^T = 0$, i.e., the variable X is correlated with Z_f and Z_b through mutually orthogonal subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$. The solution of the objective:*

$$\arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}} \mathbb{E} [\|PX - X\|^2],$$

subject to:

$$\text{Cov}(PX, Z_b) = 0,$$

satisfies:

$$\text{Cov}(PX, Z_f) = \text{Cov}(X, Z_f).$$

²Notation: † denotes Moonrose-Penrose psuedoinverse. For brevity, we use $\Sigma_{V, Z}$ for covariance matrix $\text{Cov}(V, Z)$. The complete terminological note can be found in Appendix A

The theorem shows that the correlation with the conditionally independent features is left intact by applying *LEACE* erasure to a bias signal. However, the assumption of conditional independence is strong and unlikely to hold when considering the actual signals encoded in the model. Thus, for practical applications, we need to relax the requirements.

In *Dual Debiasing*, we relax the assumption of the theorem in order to consider bias and feature signals that can be conditionally correlated. In constructing the debiasing projection (P^*), we must decide whether specific dimensions should be nullified or preserved. We propose to nullify dimensions of X with t times higher correlation with Z_f than Z_b , where the threshold t (later referred to as *bias-to-feature threshold*) is empirically chosen. To analyze the correlations we consider correlation matrix $W\Sigma_{X, [Z_f, Z_b]}$. By using singular value decomposition, we can identify the share of variance in each column's first n rows (associated with Z_f) and the latter n rows (associated with Z_b). In modified colspace projection $\tilde{P}_{W\Sigma}$, we only consider the column with t times higher variance with Z_f than with Z_b . Thus the final *Dual Debiasing LEACE* projection $\tilde{P}^* = (\mathbb{I} - W^\dagger \tilde{P}_{W\Sigma} W)$ will to large extent preserve the protected feature while reliably erasing bias. In Section 4.2, we experimentally study the impact of feature-to-bias threshold t .

3 Experimental Setting

This section presents an empirical setting to examine the practical application of model editing methods. We describe models, data, and evaluation metrics for gender bias and general performance.

3.1 Models

In experiments, we focus on Llama family models (Touvron et al., 2023; Dubey et al., 2024), which are robust and publically available language models developed by Meta AI. We analyze Llama 2 models of sizes 7 and 13 billion parameters and Llama 3 with 8 billion parameters. In multilingual experiments, we use ALMA-R 13 billion parameter model (Xu et al., 2024). ALMA-R is based on an instance of Llama 2 model that was fine-tuned to translate using Contrastive Preference Optimization. ALMA-R covers translation between English and five languages (German, Czech, Russian, Icelandic, and Chinese).

EN: “The **salesperson** laughed because” { he | she }
 EN: “The **salesperson** is not working today.” → DE: { Der | Die }
 EN: “That **salesperson** is not working today.” → CS: { Ten | Ta }

Figure 2: Stereotypical prompts with possible gendered outputs (in brackets) in three languages. We use prompts to obtain stereotypical key vector U , the possible outputs are used to approximate gendered values vector V .

In model editing experiments, we adapt the layers starting from the one found in the two-thirds of the layer stack counted from the input to the output. It is the 26th layer for 13 billion parameter models and the 21st layer for smaller models. For example, the adaptation of 11 mid-upper layers in the 13B model modifies the layers from 26th through 37th.

3.2 Data for Dual Debiasing

Following Limisiewicz et al. (2024), we feed prompts to the model in order to obtain the latent embeddings in the input of intermediate layers. We treat these embeddings as key vectors (U) containing stereotypical or factual gender signals. To obtain the gendered value vectors (V), we find the layer’s output vector that would maximize the probability of predicting tokens corresponding to gender.

Language Modeling Prompts For debiasing language models, we use solely English prompts. We design 11 prompt templates, such as “The **X** laughed because ____”, where “**X**” should be replaced by profession name. This prompt construction provokes the model to predict one of the gendered pronouns (“he”, “she”, or “them”). To distinguish stereotypical signals for debiasing, we use 219 professions without factual gender that were annotated as stereotypically associated with one of the genders by Bolukbasi et al. (2016).

Multilingual Prompts For debiasing machine translation, we use prompts instructing the model to translate sentences containing the same set of 219 professions to a target language that has the grammatical marking of gender, e.g., “English: The **X** is there. German: ____”. The translation model would naturally predict one of the German determiners, which denotes gender (“Der” for male or “Die” for female). For each model, we adjust the template to include instructions suggested by the ALMA authors. We construct the translation prompts for two target languages, Czech and German, proposing 11 templates for each.

Factual Prompts Dual debiasing requires using factual prompts to identify the signal to be pre-

served. For that purpose, we use the same prompt templates as defined above (both English and multilingual) with the distinction of entities used to populate them. For that purpose, we propose 13 pairs of factually male and female entities, e.g., “king” – “queen”, “chairman” – “chairwoman”.

The examples of language modeling and multilingual prompts are given in Figure 2. We list all of the prompt templates in Appendix B

3.3 Bias Evaluation

Language Modeling We assess the bias in language generation following the methodology of Limisiewicz et al. (2024). From the dataset of Bolukbasi et al. (2016), we select the held-out set of professions that were not included in the 219 used for debiasing. For each of these professions, annotators had assigned two scores: *factual* score x_f and *stereotypical* score x_s . The scores define how strongly a word (or a prompt) is connected with the male or female gender, respectively, through factual or stereotypical cues. By convention, scores range from -1 for female-associated words to 1 for male ones. We measure the probabilities for gendered prediction for a given prompt $P_M(o|X)$. For that purpose, we use pronouns $o_+ = \text{“he”}$ and $o_- = \text{“she”}$, as they are probable continuations for given prompts. Subsequently for each prompt, we compute *empirical* score $y = P_M(o_+|X) - P_M(o_-|X)$. We estimate the linear relationship between scores:

$$y = a_s \cdot x_s + a_f \cdot x_f + b_0 \quad (2)$$

The linear fit coefficients have the following interpretations: a_s is an impact of stereotypical signal on the model’s predictions; a_f is an impact of the factual gender of the word. Noticeably, y , x_s , and x_f take the values in the same range. The slope coefficient tells how shifts in annotated scores across professions impact the difference in prediction probabilities of male and female pronouns. The intercept b_0 measures how much more probable the male pronouns are than the female pronouns when we marginalize the subject.

	Bias in LM			WinoBias	
	$\downarrow a_s$	$\uparrow a_f$	$\downarrow b$	$\downarrow \Delta S$	$\downarrow \Delta G$
Llama 2 7B	0.234	0.311	0.090	33.6	7.3
DAMA	0.144	0.205	0.032	27.3	6.8
DAMA+LEACE	0.118	0.171	0.028	22.9	5.4
2DAMA	0.128	0.187	0.042	22.9	5.7
Llama 2 13B	0.244	0.322	0.097	35.0	0.3
DAMA	0.099	0.160	0.030	26.4	2.4
DAMA+LEACE	0.098	0.159	0.026	26.5	2.4
2DAMA	0.119	0.206	0.023	27.0	1.9
Llama 3 8B	0.262	0.333	0.082	36.8	2.7
DAMA	0.069	0.090	0.144	20.3	4.2
DAMA+LEACE	0.084	0.157	0.082	18.8	2.7
2DAMA	0.140	0.209	0.051	18.7	2.4

Table 1: Bias evaluation for the Llama family models, and their adaptation with different debiasing algorithms (*DAMA*, *DAMA* with *LEACE*, and *2DAMA*). The debiasing adaptation was applied to 12 mid-upper layers for the 13B model and 9 mid-upper layers for the smaller ones. In *2DAMA*, we set bias-to-feature threshold to $t = 0.05$.

Other Bias Manifestations in English We evaluate the bias in coreference resolution based on **WinoBias** dataset (Zhao et al., 2018). We use metrics ΔG and ΔS to evaluate representational and stereotypical bias, respectively. ΔG measures the difference in coreference identification correctness (accuracy) between masculine and feminine entities; similarly, ΔS measures the difference in accuracy between pro-stereotypical and anti-stereotypical instances of gender role assignments.

Translation Stanovsky et al. (2019) proposed using Winograd Challenge sentences for evaluating bias in translation from English into eight languages with morphological marking of gender (e.g., German, Spanish, Russian, Hebrew). In **WinoMT**, the correctness of the translation is computed by the F1 score of correctly generating gender inflection of profession words in the target language. The evaluation of gender bias is analogical, as in **WinoBias**. ΔG and ΔS measure the difference in F1 scores: male vs. female and pro- vs. anti-stereotypical sets of professions, respectively. The more recent **BUG** (Levy et al., 2021) dataset is based on the same principle of bias evaluation, with the distinction that it contains naturally occurring sentences instead of generic templates used in **WinoMT**.

3.4 General Performance Evaluation

Language Modeling We evaluate perplexity on general domain texts from **Wikipedia-103** corpus

	LM	ARC	
	$\downarrow$ ppl	$\uparrow$ acc (C)	$\uparrow$ acc (E)
Llama 2 7B	21.28	70.2	42.5
DAMA	21.51	69.8	42.8
DAMA+LEACE	23.81	68.3	41.2
2DAMA	23.66	67.5	42.0
Llama 2 13B	19.68	72.6	46.8
DAMA	18.94	71.6	45.0
DAMA+LEACE	19.67	71.3	46.4
2DAMA	19.90	71.2	46.1
Llama 3 8B	-	67.1	39.9
DAMA	-	64.6	38.1
DAMA+LEACE	-	63.0	39.8
2DAMA	-	63.5	37.9

Table 2: General performance in language modeling and reasoning on ARC Challenge and Easy subset. We present results for Llama family models, and their adaptation with different debiasing algorithms (*DAMA*, *DAMA* with *LEACE*, and *2DAMA*). We do not present perplexity for Llama 3 because the model has a different vocabulary, and the results are not comparable. The hyperparameters are the same as in Table 1

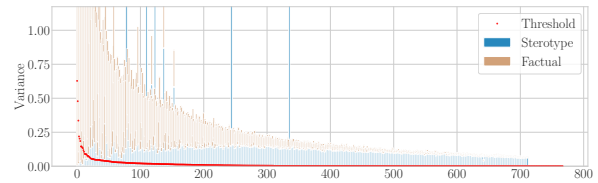


Figure 3: Visualization of dimensions and their variances related to stereotypical and factual gender signals identified by *Dual Debiasing* algorithm in 26th layer of Llama 2 13B. The red dots denote the bias-to-feature threshold $t = 0.05$. In *2DAMA*, the dimension is preserved if stereotypical covariance is below the threshold.

(Merity et al., 2016).

Reasoning Endtask To assess the models’ reasoning capabilities, we compute accuracy on **AI2 Reasoning Challenge (ARC)** (Clark et al., 2018) in both easy and challenging subsets.

Translation To monitor the effect of debiasing on translation quality, we evaluate models on **WMT-22** (Kocmi et al., 2020) parallel corpora with German, Czech, and Russian sentences and their translations in English. We estimate the quality by two automatic metrics: COMET-22 (Rei et al., 2022) and chrF (Popović, 2015).

4 Debiasing Language Models

In the first batch of the experiments, we evaluate the effectiveness of debiasing language models. In these experiments, we solely focus on tasks in En-

Layer	Bias Dimesnions		Variance Erased	
	Erased	Preserved	Bias	Factual
26	712	12	99.6%	69.4%
27	774	18	99.4%	64.0%
28	782	22	99.0%	62.4%
29	750	17	99.5%	65.4%
30	713	19	99.5%	64.0%
31	304	12	99.3%	57.6%
32	387	16	99.2%	57.0%
33	469	17	99.2%	60.1%
34	716	21	99.2%	61.3%
35	621	18	99.2%	62.2%
36	406	20	98.9%	54.0%
37	409	18	99.1%	57.2%

Table 3: Number of erased and preserved orthogonal dimensions with *2DAMA* in each feed-forward layer. We call a dimension “*biased*” when it belongs to col-space spanned by covariance matrix between latent representation and bias signal ($W\Sigma_{SU,Z}$). We present the percentage of erased covariance with stereotypical bias and factual gender as the result of the intervention in the layers. The bias-to-feature threshold was set at $t = 0.05$.

glish. We specifically analyze three model editing approaches: *DAMA* as a baseline; *DAMA* in combination with *LEACE*; and *2DAMA*, which employs *Dual Debiasing* to preserve factual gender information.

4.1 Main Results

Model editing reduces bias and preserves the model’s performance. All of the considered methods reduce gender bias both in language modeling and coreference resolution (Table 1). Remarkably, we observe that the model’s overall performance, i.e., unrelated to gender, is not significantly affected, as demonstrated by perplexity and question-answering results (Table 2). Relatively worse performance preservation was observed for Llama 3, which could be caused by intervening in too many layers.

Streamlining the approach with *LEACE*. We observe that *DAMA-LEACE* reduces bias to a larger extent than baseline *DAMA*. The more substantial debiasing effect comes in pair with a slightly higher drop in general performance, as shown in Table 2. Yet, the deterioration is still small compared to the original models’ scores. The crucial benefit of *DAMA-LEACE* is that projection dimensionality does not need to be pre-defined because it is learned implicitly (details in Section 2.2).³ That motivates

³In baseline *DAMA*, the projection dimensionality is pre-set to $d = 256$ for the 7B model and $d = 512$ for the 13B

us to use *DAMA-LEACE* in further experiments.

Preserving factual gender with *Dual Debiasing*.

The coefficients a_s and a_f from Table 1 indicate how much the models’ prediction is affected by gender present through stereotypical and factual cues, respectively. We see that *2DAMA* enables, to a significant extent, preserving factual gender information (as indicated by higher a_f coefficient) with a slight increase in susceptibility to gender bias.

4.2 Relationship between Stereotypical and Factual Signals

With *Dual Debiasing*, we can analyze the covariance of embedding space orthogonal dimensions in the model’s feed-forward layers with the stereotypical and factual signals (as detailed in Section 2.3). In Figure 3, we plot these covariances for each dimension. The visualization reveals that the factual gender is represented by relatively few dimensions with high covariance. In contrast, stereotypical bias is encoded in more-dimensional subspaces, yet each dimension has low covariance.

This observation suggests that in debiasing, we need to exempt just a small subset of dimensions encoding factual gender. Accordingly, further analysis (shown in Table 3) shows that *2DAMA* obtains a reasonable threshold with low bias-to-feature threshold $t = 0.05$. Such a setting preserves only a few dimensions responsible for stereotypical bias in each layer. Such intervention in the model erases $\approx 99\%$ of covariance with a stereotypical signal while keeping over 30% of covariance with a factual gender signal.

4.3 Choice of Hyperparameters

We present the impact of two parameters on the effectiveness of *2DAMA* in Figure 4. The first is the bias-to-feature threshold t . We observe that its choice controls the trade-off between mitigating bias and preserving factual information. We set it a low value of 0.05 because our primary objective is the reduction of bias. The second hyperparameter is the number of layers that should be edited. We confirm the findings of Limisiewicz et al. (2024) that adaptation should applied to approximately one-third of the mid-upper layers. Notably, the top two layers (38th and 39th) should be left out.

models.

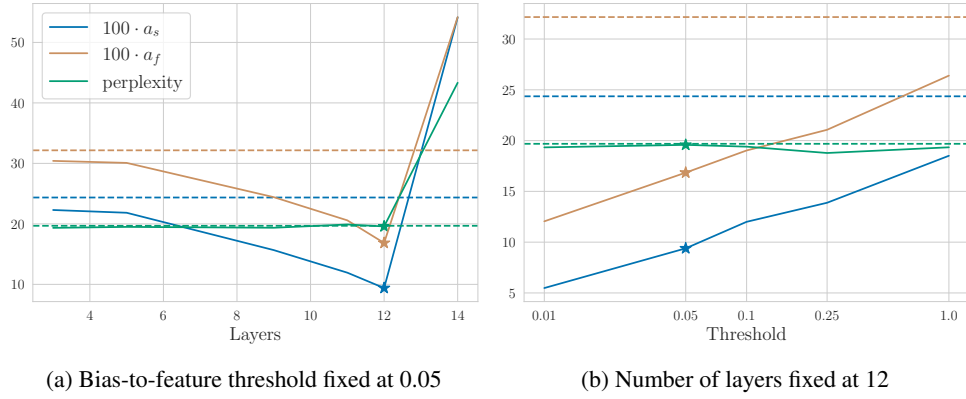


Figure 4: The hyperparameter analysis for 2DAMA applied to Llama 2 13B model on performance and bias in language modeling. We measured bias on gendered prompts by linear coefficients: a_s and a_f , the language modeling capabilities are measured by perplexity. Stars mark the performance of the best setting. The dashed line corresponds to the scores of the original model.

5 Beyond English: Multilingual Debiasing

In a multilingual setting, we debias a model fine-tuned for translation: ALMA-R 13B (Xu et al., 2024) by employing the collection of the new multilingual debiasing prompts. We specifically focus on gender bias and quality of translation between English and Czech, German, and Russian.

5.1 Main Results

Model editing generalizes to the multilingual settings. Analogically to experiments for English, we show that model editing reduces bias in translation and has a small impact on the translation quality (as shown in Table 4). We observe some differences in results between the two analyzed languages. Overall, the scores after debiasing are better for German than Czech, indicating that German prompts are of better quality.

Dual Debiasing is required to mitigate representational bias. Our methods are more effective for the stereotypical manifestation of bias ΔS than the representational one ΔG . In the representational bias, we sometimes observe bias increase after model editing. To remedy that, we use 2DAMA with higher values of feature-to-bias threshold ($t = 1.00$ instead of $t = 0.05$), which tends to preserve more factual signal. Factual gender understanding is especially essential for equitable representation of factual gender in morphologically rich languages, as evidenced by ΔG scores for $t = 1.00$ setting. This finding emphasizes the utility of 2DAMA in a multilingual setting.⁴

⁴The extended study of hyperparameters in translation debiasing is presented in Appendix C.

5.2 Cross-lingual Debiasing

An intriguing question of multilingual bias is whether its encoding is shared across languages (Gonen et al., 2022). We test this hypothesis by editing models with prompts in one or multiple languages and testing on another language. The results show evidence of effectiveness in cross-lingual mitigation of stereotypical gender bias. In Table 5b, we observe that some languages are more effective in debiasing than others, e.g., German prompts offer the strongest ΔS reduction for both Czech and German. Whereas to control representational bias mitigation (ΔG), it is recommended to use in-language prompts, as indicated by Czech, German, and Russian results in Table 5a.

6 Related Work

6.1 Model Editing and Concept Erasure

Model editing is a method of applying targeted changes to the parameters of the models to modify information encoded in them. Notable examples of model editing include targeted changes in the model’s weight (Mitchell et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2023, 2022) or adaptation with added modules (adapters) (Houlsby et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2022). The technique showed promising results as the tool to erase specific information (Patil et al., 2024).

In the literature, bias mitigation was perceived as a theoretically interesting and practical application for concept erasure. Ravfogel et al. (2020, 2022); Belrose et al. (2023) proposed effective linear methods of erasing gender bias from the latent representation of language models. Other ap-

Language		Translation to English		Translation from English		WinoMT		BUG	
		$\uparrow$ comet	$\uparrow$ chrF	$\uparrow$ comet	$\uparrow$ chrF	$\downarrow \Delta S$	$\downarrow \Delta G$	$\downarrow \Delta S$	$\downarrow \Delta G$
German	ALMA-R 13B	85.0	57.0	86.7	58.1	30.5	3.7	7.8	32.5
	DAMA+LEACE	85.0	56.7	85.3	55.4	20.5	10.0	5.4	33.6
	2DAMA ($t = 0.05$)	84.9	56.7	85.1	54.8	22.6	3.3	4.4	27.8
	2DAMA ($t = 1.00$)	84.9	56.6	85.4	55.4	22.1	-10.1	7.7	28.4
Czech	ALMA-R 13B	87.0	68.6	89.7	53.8	26.3	2.1	11.7	9.2
	DAMA+LEACE	86.9	68.2	88.6	50.1	21.6	17.7	10.4	18.0
	2DAMA ($t = 0.05$)	86.9	68.1	88.5	49.9	18.0	14.6	4.5	11.0
	2DAMA ($t = 1.00$)	86.9	68.1	88.8	50.4	22.4	7.2	8.6	9.8

Table 4: Evaluation of gender bias and quality of translation. In all the methods, ALMA-R was used as the base model. Adaptations were applied to 11 mid-upper feed-forward layers. Translation quality was evaluated on the WMT-22 dataset.

Prompt Lang. $\downarrow$	German	Czech	Russian
$\emptyset$	3.7	2.1	25.7
English	11.1	7.9	31.4
German	3.3	21.6	31.3
Czech	6.2	14.6	32.0
All Above	8.1	23.2	33.4

(a) Representational bias (ΔG)

Prompt Lang. $\downarrow$	German	Czech	Russian
$\emptyset$	30.5	26.3	10.2
English	28.5	21.2	7.0
German	14.4	15.1	4.0
Czech	24.3	17.2	3.9
All Above	24.0	18.7	1.3

(b) Stereotypical bias (ΔS)

Table 5: Bias evaluation based on WinoMT challenge-set. The evaluation language is shown at the top of each column. Each row corresponds to a set of languages for which prompts were used in model adaptation ($\emptyset$ denotes the model without any adaptation). The debiasing adaptation was performed with 2DAMA on 11 mid-upper layers with the bias-to-feature threshold set to $t = 0.05$.

proaches aimed to edit pre-trained language models to reduce their reliance on stereotypes. They include: causal intervention (Vig et al., 2020), model adapters (Fu et al., 2022), rate-distortion (Chowdhury and Chaturvedi, 2022), or targeted weight editing (Limisiewicz et al., 2024).

6.2 Debiasing Machine Translation

Machine translation systems have been shown to exhibit gender bias in their predictions (Savoldi et al., 2021). The problem is especially severe in translation from languages that do not grammatically mark gender (e.g., English, Finnish) to ones that do (e.g., German, Czech, Spanish) because translation requires predicting gender, which is not indicated in the reference (Stanovsky et al., 2019). There have been a few past attempts to mitigate biases in translation systems (Saunders and Byrne, 2020; Iluz et al., 2023; Zmigrod et al., 2019). Nevertheless, these approaches are based on fine-tuning for non-stereotypical sentences, which increases the model’s specialization but significantly reduces usability, e.g., in tasks unrelated to gender (Luo et al., 2023).

One key constraint of multilingual debiasing is the scarcity of bias annotations in various lan-

guages. Notable datasets were introduced by Levy et al. (2021); Névéol et al. (2022). The difficulty of obtaining reliable cross-lingual bias resources stems from the need for deep knowledge of culture in addition to understanding a language. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to propose a method for debiasing LLM in machine translation tasks.

7 Conclusion

We highlight the importance of considering the dual character of gender encoding in model editing. The theoretical and empirical results show that our novel model editing methods: 2DAMA effectively reduces the impact of stereotypical bias on the predictions while preserving equitable representation of (factual) gender based on grammar and semantics. Maintaining the factual component of gender representation is crucial for debiasing in languages other than English, for which gender markings are ubiquitous. Furthermore, our method does not significantly deteriorate the high performance of LLMs in various evaluation settings unrelated to gender.

Limitations

The main drawback of the *Dual Debiasing* approach is the high likelihood of stereotypical and factual signals being correlated, as mentioned in Section 2.3. We hypothesize that the model attained this correlation from training data because the distinction between factual and stereotypical gender cues is often vague and depends on context. Nevertheless, we show that with *Dual Debiasing* we can control the tradeoff, and with proper choice of hyperparameters, we can keep strong factual signals while discarding the majority of bias.

Another drawback of our method is that we observe a small deterioration in non-gender-related tasks, such as language modeling and translation. Some of the drop may be attributed to the fact that test sets may exhibit representational bias. For instance, there could be a higher frequency of male than female mentions, which would unfairly advantage a biased model in evaluation.

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A Proofs

A.1 Terminological Note

For brevity of theorems and proofs, we adopt the following notation convention:

Definition 1 (Moore-Penrose Pseudoinvers). We denote Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse of matrix M as M^+ :

$$M^+ = (M^T M)^{-1} M^T$$

Definition 2 (Matrix Square Root). We denote a positive semi-definite square root of positive semi-definite matrix M as $M^{1/2}$.

Definition 3 (Covariance Matrix). For two random vectors: $X \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We denote the covariance matrix as:

$$\Sigma_{X,Y} = \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

A.2 LEACE Theorem

For reference, we present the original LEACE theorem from [Belrose et al. \(2023\)](#). The proof can be found in *ibid.*.

Theorem 3 (LEACE). We consider random vectors X and Z taking values in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Both random vectors are centered, each with a finite moment.

Then the objective:

$$\arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}} \mathbb{E} [\|PX - X\|^2]$$

subject to:

$$\text{Cov}(PX, Z) = 0$$

is solved by:

$$P^* = \mathbb{I} - W^+ P_{W\Sigma} W,$$

where W is the whitening transformation $(\Sigma_{V,V}^{1/2})^+$; $P_{W\Sigma}$ is an orthogonal projection matrix onto colspace of $W\Sigma_{V,Z}$.

A.3 Proof for DAMA-LEACE Theorem

We formalize the requirements and implications of that assumption in the following theorem:

Theorem 4 (Gauss-Markov: Probabilistic Least Squares). We consider random vectors: U taking values in $\mathbb{R}^m$, V , and Z taking values in $\mathbb{R}^n$; both are centered and have finite second moments. We seek the linear regression model given by:

$$V = SU - \epsilon,$$

given the following assumptions:

A No Multicollinearity: there is no linear relationship among the independent variables, i.e., matrix $\Sigma_{U,U}$ is of full rank m .

B Exogeneity: the expected value of error terms given independent variables $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon|U] = 0$, this also implies that $\text{Cov}(\epsilon, U) = 0$.

C Homoscedasticity: the covariance of the error terms is constant and does not depend on the independent variables $\text{Cov}(\epsilon, \epsilon|U) = \sigma \mathbb{I}$.

Then, the ordinary least squares estimator is given by the formula:

$$S^* = \Sigma_{U,V} \Sigma_{U,U}^{-1}$$

Such estimator is **best linear unbiased estimator** and minimizes the variance of error terms: $\text{Tr}(\text{Cov}(\epsilon, \epsilon))$.

The proof of the Theorem 4 can be found in the classical statistics literature. For instance, [Eaton \(1983\)](#) presents proof for the multivariate case presented above.

Equipped with the theorems above, we are ready to present the theorem that is the main theoretical contribution of this work:

Theorem 1. We consider random vectors: U taking values in $\mathbb{R}^m$, V and Z taking values in $\mathbb{R}^n$, where $m \geq n$. Under assumptions that: A) random vectors U , V , Z are centered, and each of them has finite moment; B) the regression relation between U and V fulfill the assumption of ordinary least squares, and there exist least squares estimator $V = SU - \epsilon$.

Then the objective:

$$\arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}} \mathbb{E} [\|PU - V\|^2],$$

subject to:

$$\text{Cov}(PU, Z) = 0$$

is solved by:

$$P^* = (\mathbb{I} - W^+ P_{W\Sigma} W) S,$$

where W is the whitening transformation $(\Sigma_{SU,SU}^{1/2})^+$; $P_{W\Sigma}$ is an orthogonal projection matrix onto colspace of $W\Sigma_{SU,Z}$; S is a least squares estimator of V given U : $S = \Sigma_{U,V} \Sigma_{U,U}^{-1}$.

Proof. For simplicity, we will decompose the problem into independent optimization objectives corresponding to each dimension in $\mathbb{R}^n$. For the i th dimension, we write the objective as:

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{P}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbb{E} [\mathbf{P}_i^T V - V_i]^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbb{Cov}(\mathbf{P}_i U, Z) = 0, \quad (3)$$

where $\mathbf{P}_i$ is i th column of matrix $\mathbf{P}$. From the assumption (B) of the theorem, we can represent the linear relation between U and V , as $\mathbf{S}U = V + \epsilon$, where ϵ is an error term of regression. We use this property to rewrite the minimization objective from expression 3, as:

$$\arg \min_{\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}} \mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T \mathbf{S}U - V_i]^2 \quad (4)$$

We manipulate the term under arg min to rewrite it as a sum of three terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T \mathbf{S}U - V_i]^2 &= \mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - V_i]^2 = \\ &= \mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon_i) + \epsilon_i]^2 = \\ &= 2\mathbb{E} \left[\underbrace{(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon_i)) \epsilon_i}_{\text{I}} \right] + \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\epsilon_i]^2}_{\text{II}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon_i)]^2}_{\text{III}} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

We will now consider each of the three summands one by one to find the solution to the optimization objective $P^* = \tilde{P}^* S^*$.

Summand I zeros out. We show that by observing that the summand is doubled covariance⁵:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon_i)) \epsilon_i \right] &= \\ &= \mathbb{Cov} \left(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon_i), \epsilon_i \right) = \\ &= (\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T - \mathbf{1}_i^T) \mathbb{Cov}(V - \epsilon, \epsilon) = \\ &= (\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T - \mathbf{1}_i^T) \mathbf{S} \mathbb{Cov}(U, \epsilon) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

From assumption B of Theorem 4 (exogeneity) and, by extension, assumption of this theorem, we have that $\mathbb{Cov}(U, \epsilon) = 0$ and thus summand I zeros out.

⁵From the fact that both factors under $\mathbb{E}$ are centered.

Summand II by the conclusion of Theorem 4 is minimized by setting:

$$\mathbf{S}^* = \Sigma_{U,V} \Sigma_{U,U}^{-1} \quad (7)$$

We can also set $\mathbf{S}$ to $\mathbf{S}^*$ in summand III, as the variable under $\mathbb{E}$ is independent of ϵ , as shown in the previous paragraph. By finding $\mathbf{S}^*$, we have solved part of the objective in expression 4.

Summand III we find the matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ minimizing the value of the summand under constraints. By rewriting $\mathbb{Cov}(\mathbf{P}_i U, Z)$ as $\mathbb{Cov}(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i (V + \epsilon), Z)$, we observe that minimizing the value of summand III under constraint is analogous to solving the problem stated in LEACE (Theorem 3):

$$\arg \min_{\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbb{E} [\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i^T (V + \epsilon) - (V_i + \epsilon)]^2 \quad (8)$$

$$\text{such that} \quad \mathbb{Cov}(\tilde{\mathbf{P}}_i (V + \epsilon), Z) = 0$$

We find the solution based on Theorem 3, where we substitute X with $V + \epsilon$ and find $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}^* = \mathbb{I} - \mathbf{W}^\dagger \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{W}\Sigma} \mathbf{W}$, where $\mathbf{W}$ is the whitening transformation $(\Sigma_{V+\epsilon, V+\epsilon}^{1/2})^\dagger$; $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{W}\Sigma}$ is an orthogonal projection matrix onto colspace of $\mathbf{W}\Sigma_{V+\epsilon, Z}$

Conclusion for summands II and III, we independently found the matrices minimizing their values. We obtain the matrix P^* solving our original objective in expression 3 by multiplying them:

$$P^* = \tilde{P}^* S^* = (\mathbb{I} - \mathbf{W}^\dagger \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{W}\Sigma} \mathbf{W}) \Sigma_{U,V} \Sigma_{U,U}^{-1} \quad (9)$$

□

A.4 Proof for Dual-Debiasing Theorem

Theorem 2. We consider random vectors X , Z_b , and Z_f in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Under the assumptions that: A) Z_b and $Z_f \perp Z_b \perp Z_f | X$, i.e., Z_b and Z_f are conditionally independent, given X ; B) $\Sigma_{X, Z_b} \Sigma_{X, Z_f}^T = 0$, i.e., the variable X is correlated with Z_f and Z_b through mutually orthogonal subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$. The solution of the objective:

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}} \mathbb{E} [\|\mathbf{P}X - X\|^2],$$

subject to:

$$\mathbb{Cov}(\mathbf{P}X, Z_b) = 0,$$

satisfies:

$$\mathbb{Cov}(\mathbf{P}X, Z_f) = \mathbb{Cov}(X, Z_f).$$

Proof. First, we observe that the assumption A) can be generalized to any coordinate system. For an orthogonal matrix W , we have:

$$\Sigma_{W^T X, Z_b} \Sigma_{W^T X, Z_f}^T = W \Sigma_{X, Z_b} \Sigma_{X, Z_f}^T W^T = 0 \quad (10)$$

This guarantees the orthogonality of spaces spanned by columns of two orthogonality matrices. The property will be useful for the second part of the proof:

$$\text{Col}(\Sigma_{W^T X, Z_b}) \perp \text{Col}(\Sigma_{W^T X, Z_f}) \quad (11)$$

Secondly, we remind the reader that the solution to the objective provided in the theorem (based on Theorem 3) is as follows:

$$P^* = \mathbb{I} - W^\dagger P_{W\Sigma} W \quad (12)$$

Now, we evaluate the covariance matrix between $P^* X$ and Z_f to check that it is the same as the covariance matrix between X and Z_f .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(P^* X, Z_f) &= \Sigma_{X, Z_f} - W^\dagger P_{W\Sigma} W \Sigma_{X, Z_f} = \\ &= \Sigma_{X, Z_f} - W^\dagger P_{W\Sigma} \Sigma_{W^T X, Z_f} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

we note that $P_{W\Sigma}$ is the projection matrix onto the column space of $\Sigma_{W^T X, Z_f}$. From that fact and Equation 11, we have:

$$P_{W\Sigma} \Sigma_{W^T X, Z_f} = 0 \quad (14)$$

Thus the last component in Equation 13 nullifies and we conclude that:

$$\text{Cov}(P^* X, Z_f) = \Sigma_{X, Z_f} = \text{Cov}(X, Z_f) \quad (15)$$

□

B Prompts

B.1 Monolingual Prompts

The list of 11 prompt templates is given in Table 6. The term <profession> is substituted by 219 professions without factual gender (from Bolukbasi et al., 2016) and 26 gendered entities (“man”, “boy”, “gentleman”, “father”, “son”, “brother”, “husband”, “king”, “prince”, “uncle”, “nephew”, “groom”, “duke”, “grandfather”, “widower”, “hero”, “wizard”, “baron”, “emperor”, “anchorman”, “clergyman”, “chairman”, “alumnus”, “woman”, “girl”, “lady”, “mother”, “daughter”, “sister”, “wife”, “queen”,

“princess”, “aunt”, “niece”, “bride”, “duchess”, “grandmother”, “widow”, “heroine”, “witch”, “baroness”, “empress”, “anchorwoman”, “clergywomen”, “chairwomen”, “alumna”) which makes 2409 stereotypical and 286 factual prompts in total used for *Dual Debiasing*.

B.2 Multilingual Prompts

For debiasing the translation models, we use 11 English-German and 11 English-Czech prompt templates shown in Table 7. These prompts were designed to be as general as possible, and so that the target language prefix does not include any gender information, while the proposed completions, which are always one-token words, do specify the gender. In German, these completions may be determiners. Czech does not use determiners, but gender is included, for example, in the past form of the verb “to be”. We use the same sets of professions, and therefore, we generate additional data of equal size for each language. To match the intended use, we wrap them into ALMA-R translation prompt template:

Translate this from {src_lang} to {tgt_lang}:
{src_lang}: <English source>
{tgt_lang}: <Target prefix>

English prompt	Completions
The <profession> wanted that	[he, she, they]
The <profession> laughed because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> went home because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> desired that	[he, she, they]
The <profession> wished that	[he, she, they]
The <profession> cried because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> ate because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> said that	[he, she, they]
The <profession> ran because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> stayed up because	[he, she, they]
The <profession> whispered that	[he, she, they]

Table 6: Monolingual English prompt templates.

C Additional Results

C.1 Stereotypical and Factual Signals across Layers

In Figure 6, we observe the variances with stereotypical and factual gender signals in subsequent layers. We see that the number of biased dimensions differs across layers. Nevertheless, we observe the same pattern in each layer: stereotypical signal is encoded in a relatively small number of

English source	German prefix	Completions
This is the <profession>.	Das ist ____	[der, die]
There is the <profession>.	Da ist ____	[der, die]
The <profession> is not working today.	____	[Der, Die]
The <profession> was fired.	____	[Der, Die]
The <profession> is busy.	____	[Der, Die]
Do you know the <profession>	Kennen Sie ____	[den, die]
I was there with the <profession>	Ich war dort mit ____	[dem, der]
I asked the <profession>.	Ich fragte ____	[den, die]
We met the <profession>.	Wir trafen ____	[den, die]
I answered the <profession>.	Ich antwortete ____	[dem, der]
The salary of the <profession> has increased.	Das Gehalt ____	[des, der]

English source	Czech prefix	Completions
This is that <profession>.	To je ____	[ten, ta]
There is that <profession>.	Tam je ____	[ten, ta]
That <profession> is not working today.	____	[Ten, Ta]
That <profession> was fired.	____	[Ten, Ta]
That <profession> is busy.	____	[Ten, Ta]
I was a <profession> two years ago.	Před dvěma lety jsem ____	[byl, byla]
You were a <profession> two years ago.	Před dvěma lety jste ____	[byl, byla]
If only I were a <profession>.	Kdybych tak ____	[byl, byla]
I was a <profession> at that time.	V té době jsem ____	[byl, byla]
You were a <profession> at that time.	V té době jsi ____	[byl, byla]
You were a <profession> at that time.	V té době jste ____	[byl, byla]

Table 7: Multilingual prompt templates for English-to-German and English-to-Czech translation

dimensions with high variance, while the stereotypical variance is spread across more dimensions with lower values in each.

C.2 Choice of Hyperparameters in Translation

Analogically to Section 4.3, we present the impact of bias-to-feature threshold t and the number of edited layers on translation to German in Figure 5. We observe that stronger factual regularization (high t) helps in reducing representational bias (ΔG) yet offers weaker stereotypical bias mitigation (ΔS). Similar to the results in language modeling, the best performance is obtained when editing 12 mid-upper layers with $t = 0.05$.

D Technical Details

To find the value representation V , we run gradient optimization for 20 steps with Adam scheduler (Kingma and Ba, 2015) and learning rate: $lr = 0.5$. We picked the following regularization constants: $\lambda_1 = 0.0625$ and $\lambda_2 = 0.2$.

The optimization was run on a Nvidia A40 GPU. For Llama 2 7B, processing one prompt took around 10 seconds.

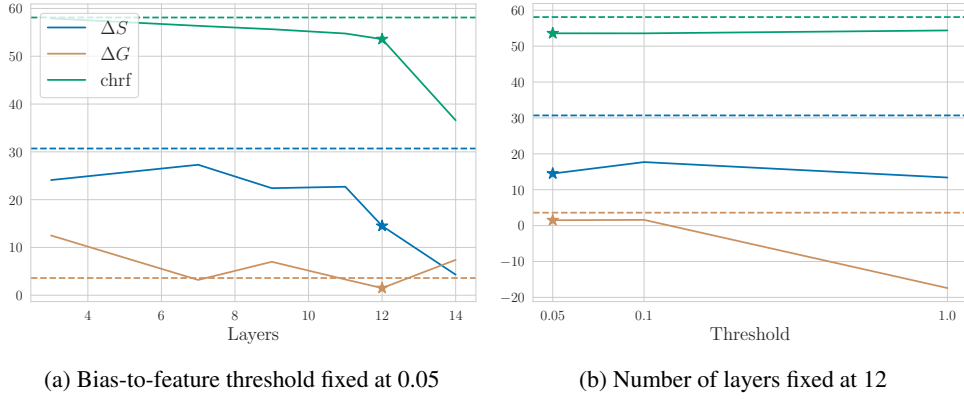


Figure 5: The hyperparameter analysis for 2DAMA applied to ALMA-R 13B model on performance and bias in translation to German. We measured bias via WinMT metrics ΔS and ΔG . The translation quality to German is measured by chrf on WMT-22. Stars mark the performance of the best setting. The dashed line corresponds to the scores of the original model.

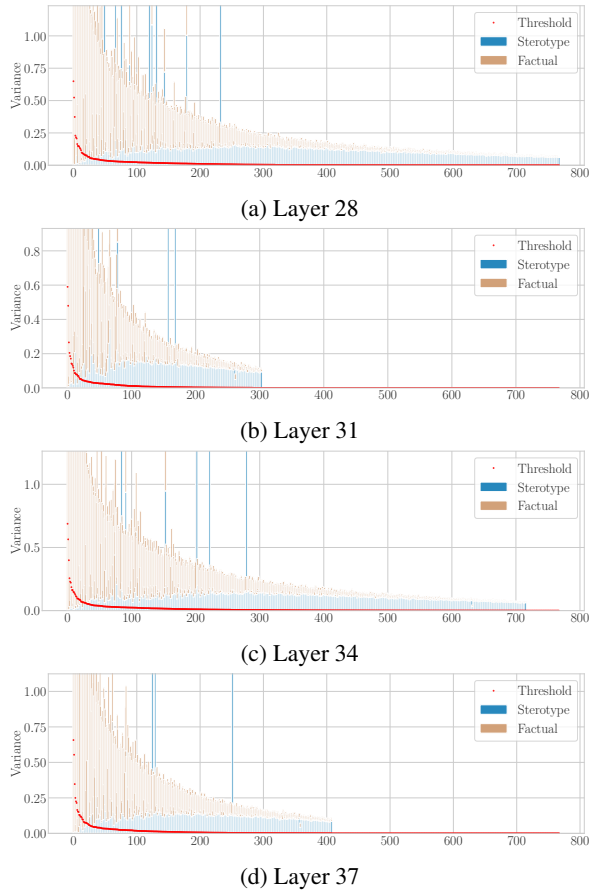


Figure 6: Visualization of dimensions and their variances related to stereotypical and factual gender signals identified by *Dual Debiasing* algorithm across different layers of Llama 2 13B.