Gender Biases and Where to Find Them:
Exploring Gender Bias in Pre-Trained Transformer-based Language
Models Using Movement Pruning

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Abstract

Language model debiasing has emerged as an important field of study in the NLP community. Numerous debiasing techniques were proposed, but bias ablation remains an unaddressed issue. We demonstrate a novel framework for inspecting bias in pre-trained transformer-based language models via movement pruning. Given a model and a debiasing objective, our framework finds a subset of the model containing less bias than the original model. We implement our framework by pruning the model while fine-tuning it on the debiasing objective. Optimized are only the pruning scores — parameters coupled with the model’s weights that act as gates. We experiment with pruning attention heads, an important building block of transformers: we prune square blocks, as well as establish a new way of pruning the entire heads. Lastly, we demonstrate the usage of our framework using gender bias, and based on our findings, we propose an improvement to an existing debiasing method. Additionally, we re-discover a bias-performance trade-off: the better the model performs, the more bias it contains.

1 Introduction

Where in language models (LM) is bias stored? Can a neural architecture itself impose a bias? There is no consensus on this matter. Kaneko and Bollegala (2021) suggest that gender bias resides on every layer of transformer-based LMs. However, this is somehow vague — transformer layers can be further decomposed into building blocks, namely attention heads, and these also can be further broken down into matrices. On the other hand, the findings of Voita et al. (2019) show that some attention heads within layers specialize in particular tasks, such as syntactic and positional dependencies. This gives us an intuition that some heads, or their parts, may specialize in learning biases as well. Being able to analyze bias in language models on a more granular level, would bring us a better understanding of the models and the phenomenon of bias. With knowledge of where the bias is stored, we could design debiasing techniques that target particular parts of the model, making the debiasing more accurate and efficient.

We demonstrate a novel framework that utilizes movement pruning (Sanh et al., 2020) to inspect biases in language models. Movement pruning was originally used to compress neural models and make its inference faster. We introduce a modification of movement pruning that enables us to choose a low-bias subset of a given model, or equivalently, find these model’s weights whose removal leads to convergence of an arbitrary debiasing objective. Specifically, we freeze neural weights of the model and optimize only the so-called pruning scores that are coupled with the weights and act as gates. This way, we can inspect which building blocks of the transformers, i.e. attention heads, might induce bias. If a head is pruned and the debiasing objective converges, then we hypothesize that the head must have contained bias. We demonstrate the utility of our framework using Kaneko and Bollegala (2021)’s method of removing gender bias.

Biases have been extensively studied and numerous debiasing methods were proposed. In fact, according to Stanczak and Augenstein (2021), the ACL Anthology saw an exponential growth of bias-related publications in the past decade – and it only counts gender bias alone. Nonetheless, the vast majority of these works address problems of bias detection or mitigation only. To our best knowledge, we are the first to conduct bias ablation in LMs. We: (1) demonstrate an original framework to inspect biases in LMs. Its novelty is a mixture of movement pruning, weight freezing and debiasing; (2) study the presence of gender bias in a BERT model; (3) propose an improvement to an existing debiasing method, and (4) release our code\textsuperscript{1}.

\textsuperscript{1}\url{https://github.com/kainoj/pruning-bias}
2 Background

2.1 Language Model Debiasing

Numerous paradigms for language model debiasing were proposed, including feature extraction-based (Pryzant et al., 2020), data augmentations (Zhao et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020; Dinan et al., 2020), or paraphrasing (Ma et al., 2020). They all require an extra endeavor, such as feature engineering, retraining, or building an auxiliary model.

We choose an algorithm by Kaneko and Bollegala (2021) for removing gendered stereotypical associations. It is competitive, as it can be applied to many transformer-based models, and requires minimal data annotations. The algorithm enforces embeddings of predefined gendered words (e.g. man, woman) to be orthogonal to their stereotyped equivalents (e.g. doctor, nurse) via fine-tuning. The loss function is a squared dot product of these embedding plus a regularizer between the original and the debiased model. The former encourages orthogonality and the latter helps to preserve syntactic information.

The authors proposed six debiasing modes: all-token, all-sentence, first-token, first-sentence, last-token, and last-sentence, depending on source of the embeddings (first, last or all layers of a transformer-based model) and target of the loss (target token or all tokens in a sentence). In this work, we omit the first- modes, as they were shown to have an insignificant debiasing effect.

2.2 Block Movement Pruning

Pruning is a general term used when disabling or removing some weights from a neural network. It can lead to a higher sparsity, making a model faster and smaller while retaining its original performance. Movement pruning, introduced by Sanh et al., 2020 discards a weight when it moves towards zero. Lagunas et al., 2021 proposed pruning entire blocks of weights: with every weight matrix \( W \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N} \), a score matrix \( S \in \mathbb{R}^{M' \times N'} \) is associated, where \((M', N')\) is a pruning block size. On the forward pass, \( W \) is substituted with its masked version, \( W' \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N'}; \)

\[
W' = W \odot M(S) \\
M_{i,j} = \mathbb{1}(σ(S_{i/M'}, j/N') > τ),
\]

where \( \odot \) stands for element-wise product, \( σ \) is the Sigmoid function, \( τ \) is a threshold and \( \mathbb{1} \) denotes the indicator function. On the backward pass, both \( W \) and \( S \) are updated. To preserve the performance of the original model, Lagunas et al. (2021) suggest using a teacher model as in the model distillation technique (Sanh et al., 2019).

We decided to utilize movement pruning because of the mechanism of the scores \( S \). The scores can be optimized independently of weights, and thus we can freeze the weights. This would be impossible with e.g. magnitude pruning (Han et al., 2015) which directly operates on weights values (magnitudes).

Table 1: Bias in fine-pruned models for various block sizes, evaluated using SEAT and stereotype score (SS). Ideally, bias-free model has a SEAT of 0 and SS of 50. GLUE evaluated using only these weights in a model that were not pruned. #P indicates number of heads that were entirely pruned. Best fine-pruning results are in bold.
3 Exploring Gender Bias Using Movement Pruning

We focus on gender bias defined as stereotypical associations between male and female entities. Our study is limited to the English language and binary gender only.

We attempt to answer the following questions: in transformer-based pre-trained language models, can we identify particular layers or neighboring regions that are in charge of biases? To verify this, we propose a simple and, to our best knowledge, novel framework based on debiasing and attention head block movement pruning. Given a pre-trained model and a fine-tuning objective, we find which attention blocks can be disabled, so the model performs well on the task. We prune the model while fine-tuning it on a debiasing objective, such as the one described in §2.1. We optimize solely the pruning scores $S$ and the weights $W$ of the original model remain untouched (they are frozen).

We target the building blocks of transformer-based models, attention heads (Vaswani et al., 2017). Each head consists of four learnable matrices, and we prune all of them. In §3.1, we test two strategies: pruning square blocks of the matrices and pruning entire attention heads.

To evaluate bias, we utilize Sentence Encoder Association Test (SEAT, May et al. (2019) and StereoSet Stereotype Score (SS, Nadeem et al. (2021)) evaluated on the gender domain. To measure model performance, we utilize GLUE (Wang et al., 2018), a standard NLP benchmark.

3.1 Experiments

In all experiments, we use the BERT-base model (Devlin et al., 2019). See Appendix for used datasets and detailed hyperparameters.

**Square Block Pruning.** Lagunas et al. (2021) showed that square block pruning in attention head matrices leads to the removal of whole attention heads. Although our objective differs from theirs, we attempt to reproduce this behavior. To find the best square block size $(B, B)$, we experiment with $B = 32, 64, 128$. See Tab. 1. We also tried with $B = 256, 384$, and $768$, but we discarded these values as we faced issues with convergence. Choosing a suitable block size is a main limitation of our work.

**Attention Head Pruning.** To remove entire attention heads, we cannot prune all head matrices at once – see Appendix for a detailed explanation. Instead, we prune $64 \times 768$ blocks (size of the attention head in the BERT-base) of the $values$ matrices solely. See the last row group of Tab. 1 for the results.

3.2 Discussion

**Square Block Pruning Does Not Remove Entire Heads** Lagunas et al., 2021 found that pruning square block removes entire heads. However, we failed to observe this phenomenon in the debiasing setting—see last column of Tab 1. We are able to prune at most 8 heads, only for relatively large block sizes, $128 \times 128$. We hypothesize that the reason is the weight freezing of the pre-trained model. To verify this, we repeat the experiment with $32 \times 32$ block size, but we do not freeze the weights. Bias did not change significantly, but no attention heads were fully pruned (Tab. 2). This suggests that bias may not be encoded in particular heads, but rather is distributed over multiple heads.

**Performance-Bias Trade-off** We observe that there is a negative correlation between model performance and its bias (Fig. 3). Models that contain no bias, i.e. with SS close to 50, perform poorly.
The model with the best GLUE contains the most bias. This phenomenon might be an inherent weakness of the debiasing algorithm. To alleviate the issue, it might be necessary to improve the algorithm, work on a better one, or focus on debiasing data. It would be also interesting to try optimizing the debiasing and the downstream task objective simultaneously. However, this is out of the scope of our study and we leave it for future work.

The Failure of the CoLA GLUE Task Our models perform poorly on the Corpus of Linguistic Acceptability task (CoLA, Warstadt et al. (2019)). Most of them have scores close to zero, meaning i.e. they take a random, uninformed guess. The reason might lay in the complexity of the task. CoLA remains the most challenging task out of the whole GLUE suite as it requires deep syntactic and grammatical knowledge. It has been suggested that language models do not excel at grammatical reasoning (Sugawara et al., 2020), and it might be that perturbations such as the absence of the weights (pruning) break already weak grammatical abilities. The results in Tab. 3 support this hypothesis. Compared to the ‘frozen’ setting, CoLA scores are significantly higher, whereas the other tasks see just a slight increase (Tab. 3).

4 Debiasing Early Intermediate Layers Is Competitive

Kaneko and Bollegala (2021) proposed three heuristics: debiasing the first, last, and all layers. However, the number of layer subsets that can be debiased is much larger. Trying all subsets to find the best one is prohibitively expensive. With our framework, we are able to find a better subset with a low computational cost.

We observed that: (1) square block pruning does not significantly affect the first and last layer: densities of these layers are usually higher than the other layers’ (Fig. 1); (2) attention head pruning mostly affects intermediate layers (Fig. 2). Based on the above, we propose to debias intermediate layers. Specifically, we take the embeddings from layers index 1 to 4 inclusive, and we run the debiasing algorithm described in §2.1. We do not include layer 0 because it generally yields high densities (ref. Fig.1), and layer 5, as it contains the most number of heads that were not pruned in every experiment (ref. Fig. 2). We end up with two more modes, intermediate-token and intermediate-sentence. We present results for our, as well as the other modes in Tab. 4 (note that the results may differ from Kaneko and Bollegala (2021)’s due to random seed choice). Debiasing the intermediate layers is competitive to debiasing all and last layers. The SS of the intermediate- modes is lower that the SS of corresponding all and last modes. The SS of intermediate-sentence gets close to the perfect score of 50.

5 Conclusion

We demonstrate a novel framework to inspect sources of biases in a pre-trained transformer-based language model. Given a model and a debiasing objective, the framework utilizes movement pruning to find a subset that contains less bias than the original model. We present usage of our framework using gender bias, and we found that the
bias is mostly encoded in intermediate layers of BERT. Based on these findings, we propose two new debiasing modes that reduce more bias than existing modes. Bias is evaluated using SEAT and Stereotype Score metric. Lastly, we explore a performance-bias trade-off: the better the model performs on a task, the more gender bias it has.

We hope that in the future our framework will find more applications, not only limited to gender bias.

Table 4: Debiasing-only results for various modes, including our original intermediate mode (no pruning involved).

| Layer Mode | SEAT6 | SEAT7 | SEAT8 | SS | GLUE |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|----|------|
| all token  | 1.02  | 0.22  | 0.63  | 61.5 | 78.7 |
| sent.      | 0.98  | -0.34 | -0.29 | 56.9 | 75.2 |
| last token | 0.98  | 0.12  | 0.79  | 60.9 | 78.6 |
| sent.      | 0.39  | -0.89 | -0.11 | 61.6 | 78.7 |
| interm. token | 1.03 | 0.33  | 0.84  | 58.5 | 77.7 |
| sent.      | 0.83  | 0.49  | 0.92  | 62.8 | 79.3 |
| original   | 1.04  | 0.18  | 0.81  | 58.5 | 74.7 |
| original   | 1.04  | 0.18  | 0.81  | 62.8 | 79.3 |

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Appendix

Datasets

Sentence Encoder Association Test (SEAT, May et al. (2019)) is based on Word Embedding Association Test (WEAT, Caliskan et al. (2017)). Given two sets of attributes and two sets of targets words, WEAT measures differential cosine similarity between their embeddings. The two attribute sets can be male- and female-focused, where the targets can contain stereotypical associations, such as science- and arts-related vocabulary. SEAT extends the idea by embedding the vocabulary into sentences and taking their embedding representation ([CLS] classification token in case of transformer-based models). SEAT measures bias only in the embedding space. That is, a model with a low SEAT score may still expose bias, as understood and perceived by humans. We employ SEAT6, -7, and -8 provided by May et al. (2019).

StereoSet Stereotype Score (SS, Nadeem et al. (2021)) measures bias among four dimensions: gender, religion, occupation, and race. Technically, StereoSet is a dataset where each entry from four categories consists of a context and three options: stereotype, anti-stereotype and unrelated. On the top, StereoSet defines two tasks: intrasentence and intersentence. The objective of the former is to fill a gap with one of the options. The latter aims to choose a sentence that best follows the context. The SS score is a mean of scores on intra- and intersentence tasks. Bias in StereoSet is measured as a “percentage of examples in which a model prefers a stereotypical association [option] over an anti-stereotypical association” (Nadeem et al., 2021). An ideal bias-free model would have the bias score (stereotype score, SS) of 50. As opposed to SEAT, StereoSet SS models bias close to its human perception, as a preference of one thing over another. We use the gender subset, as provided by Nadeem et al. (2021).

General Language Understanding Evaluation (GLUE, Wang et al. (2018)) is a popular benchmark to evaluate language model performance. It is a suite of nine different tasks from domains such as sentiment analysis, paraphrasing, natural language inference, question answering, or sentence similarity. The GLUE score is an average of scores of all nine tasks. To evaluate GLUE, we make use of the run_glue.py script shipped by the Hugging Face library (Wolf et al., 2019).

Gender Debiasing The debiasing algorithm introduced in §2.1 requires some vocabulary lists. We follow Kaneko and Bollegala (2021)’s setup, that is we use lists of female and male attributes.
Hyperparameters and Implementation

For all experiments, we use the pre-trained bert-base-uncased (Devlin et al., 2019) model from the open-source Hugging Face Transformers library (Wolf et al. (2019), ver. 4.12; Apache 2.0 license). We use 16-bit floating-point mixed-precision training (Micikevicius et al., 2018) as it halves training time and does not impact test performance. To disentangle engineering from research, we use PyTorch Lightning framework (ver. 1.4.2; Apache 2.0 license). Model fine-pruning takes around 3h on a single A100 GPU. All experiments can be reproduced with a random seed set to 42.

Usage of all libraries we used is consistent with their intended use.

Debiasing  We provide an original implementation of the debiasing algorithm. We use the same set of hyperparameters as Kaneko and Bollegala (2021), with an exception of a batch size of 128. We run debiasing (with no pruning - see 4) for five epochs.

Pruning  As for the pruning, we follow Lagunas et al. 2021’s sigmoid-threshold setting without the teacher network. The threshold $\tau$ increases linearly from 0 to 0.1 over all training steps. We fine-prune the BERT model with the debiasing objective for 100 epochs using a patched nn_pruning API (ver 0.1.2; Apache 2.0 license). See README.md in the attached code for instructions.

Bias Statement

We follow Kaneko and Bollegala (2021) and define bias as stereotypical associations between male and female entities in pre-trained contextualized word representations. These representations when used for downstream applications, if not debiased, can further amplify gender inequalities (Komisyonu, 2020). In our work, we focus on identifying layers of a language model that contribute to the biased associations. We show that debiasing these layers can significantly reduce bias as measured in the embedding space (Sentence Encoder Association Test, May et al. (2019)) and as perceived by humans, that is, as a preference of one thing over another (Stereoset Stereotype Score, May et al. (2019)). We limit our work solely to binary gender bias in the English language.

On Attention Head Pruning

We cannot prune every matrix of the attention head if we want to prune the entire head. To see why, let us recap the self-attention mechanism popularized by Vaswani et al. (2017).

Denote an input sequence as $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, where $N$ is the sequence length and $d$ is a hidden size. The first step of the self-attention is to obtain three matrices: $Q, K, V \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$: queries, keys, and values: $Q = XW^{Q}, K = XW^{K}, V = XW^{V}$, where $W^{Q}, W^{K}, W^{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are learnable matrices. The self-attention is defined as follows:

$$\text{SelfAtt}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax} \left( \frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d}} \right) V.$$  

Now, suppose that the queries $W^{Q}$ or keys $W^{K}$ are pruned. Then the softmax would not cancel out the attention, but it would yield a uniform distribution over values $W^{V}$. Only by pruning values $W^{V}$, we are able to make the attention output equal zero.