Taking uncertainty seriously A Bayesian approach to word embedding bias estimation

Alicja Dobrzeniecka & Rafal Urbaniak (LoPSE research group, University of Gdansk, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam)

Boston, April Fools' Day

Presentation plan

- Bias in word embeddings
- WEAT and MAC methods
- Methodological problems
- Limitations of pre-averaging in bias detection methods
- Accounting for uncertainty with Bayesian approach

Question

How to sensibly represent words with numbers?

Question

How to sensibly represent words with numbers?

One-hot encoding

Well, you could use 30k binary vectors with a slot for each lexical unit...

Question

How to sensibly represent words with numbers?

One-hot encoding

Well, you could use 30k binary vectors with a slot for each lexical unit... but this would be inefficient and wouldn't capture any relations between words.

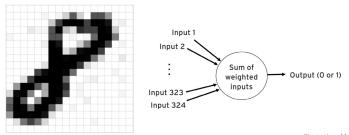


Illustration: M. Mitchell

Rosenblatt's perceptron

- Inputs (pixel intensities) with weights
- Nodes with activation levels from 0-1
- (Perhaps) 0-1 output based on a threshold

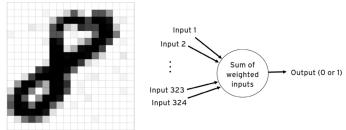
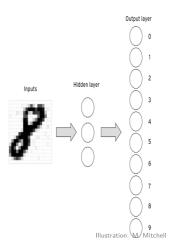


Illustration: M. Mitchell

Learning

- Start with random weights
- Test on a case:
 - If right, don't change weights.
 - If wrong, change weights a bit, with focus on the ones more responsible for the judgment:

$$w_j \leftarrow w_j = \overbrace{\eta}^{\text{learning rate}} (\underbrace{t}_{\text{correct output}} - \underbrace{y}_{\text{actual input}}) \underbrace{x_j}_{\text{actual input}}$$



- Each hidden unit takes a weighted sum of 324 inputs and passes on its activation level as input to outer layer units.
- Activation levels of outer layers are interpreted as network's levels of confidence in a classification problem.
- Learning: back-propagation (gradient descent: approximate the direction of steepest descent in the error surface w.r.t to weights, modify accordingly).

Distributional semantics

- "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (John Firth, 1957)
- "the degree of semantic similarity between two linguistic expressions A and B is a function of the similarity of the linguistic contexts in which A and B can appear." (A. Lenci, 2008)

Distributional semantics

- "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (John Firth, 1957)
- "the degree of semantic similarity between two linguistic expressions A and B is a function of the similarity of the linguistic contexts in which A and B can appear." (A. Lenci, 2008)

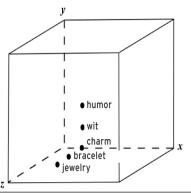
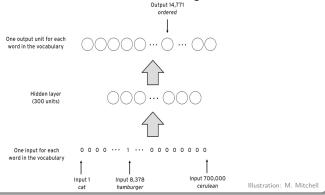


Illustration: M. Mitchell

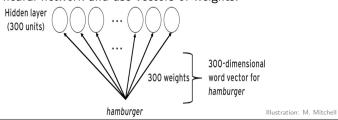
Google and Mikolov

Efficient Estimation of Word Representation in Vector Space, 2013 Let's train a neural network and use vectors of weights!



Google and Mikolov

Efficient Estimation of Word Representation in Vector Space, 2013 Let's train a neural network and use vectors of weights!



9/48

word	1	2	3	4	
woman	0.456	0.267	0.675	0.131	
man	0.451	0.897	0.472	0.088	

Question

How is this supposed to capture semantic relations?

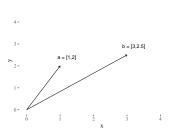
word	1	2	3	4	
woman	0.456	0.267	0.675	0.131	
man	0.451	0.897	0.472	0.088	

Question

How is this supposed to capture semantic relations?

General idea

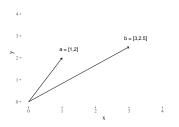
Similarity in vector direction.



Vectors

$$a = [1, 2]$$

 $b = [3, 2.5]$



Vectors

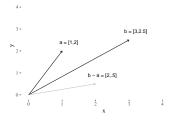
$$a = [1, 2]$$

 $b = [3, 2.5]$

Dot product

$$a \cdot b = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2$$

 $a \cdot a = a_1^2 + a_2^2$
 $\|a\| = \sqrt{(a \cdot a)}$



Vectors

$$a = [1, 2]$$

 $b = [3, 2.5]$

Dot product

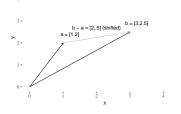
$$a \cdot b = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2$$

 $a \cdot a = a_1^2 + a_2^2$
 $\|a\| = \sqrt{(a \cdot a)}$

Vector difference

$$b - a = [b_1 - a_1, b_2 - a_2]$$

4 -



Vectors

$$a = [1, 2]$$

 $b = [3, 2.5]$

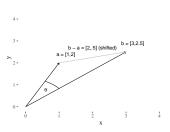
Dot product

$$a \cdot b = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2$$

 $a \cdot a = a_1^2 + a_2^2$
 $\|a\| = \sqrt{(a \cdot a)}$

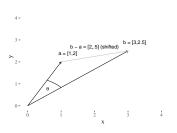
Vector difference

$$b - a = [b_1 - a_1, b_2 - a_2]$$



Angle

$$||b - a||^2 = ||b||^2 + ||a||^2 - 2||b|||a|| \cos \theta$$
$$b \cdot a = ||b||||a|| \cos \theta$$
$$\cos \theta = \frac{b \cdot a}{||b|||a||}$$



Angle

$$||b - a||^2 = ||b||^2 + ||a||^2 - 2||b|||a|| \cos \theta$$
$$b \cdot a = ||b||||a|| \cos \theta$$
$$\cos \theta = \frac{b \cdot a}{||b||||a||}$$

Orthogonality

$$\cos(90^\circ) = 0$$
$$\frac{b \cdot a}{\|b\| \|a\|} = 0$$
$$b \cdot a = 0$$

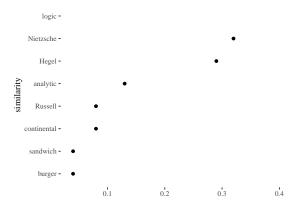
Cosine similarity & distance

cosineSimilarity(
$$A, B$$
) = $\frac{A \cdot B}{\|A\| \|B\|}$ (Sim)
cosineDistance(A, B) = 1 - cosineSimilarity(A, B) (Distance)

- Naive interpretation: proximity corresponds to semantic similarity
- ullet Geometric interpretation: direction $\cos \in (-1,1)$
 - 1: maximally smilar
 - −1: opposites
 - 0: dissimilar
- cosineDistance $\in (0,2)$

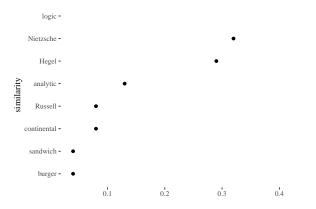
Cosine similarity & distance

Similarity to <philosophy>, examples



Cosine similarity & distance

Similarity to <philosophy>, examples



The only "jobs" in top-tens

- Man: robber (.55)
- Woman: policewoman (.6)

The worry

Word embeddings can learn implicit harmful biases

The worry

Word embeddings can learn implicit harmful biases

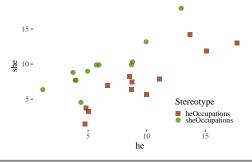
The basic intuition

Stereotypically connected words are cosine-close

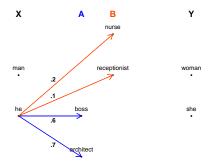
A visual example

- "feminine" occupations: "homemaker," "nurse," "receptionist," "librarian," etc.
- "masculine" occupations: "maestro," "captain," "architect," "boss," etc.

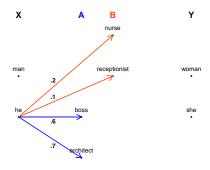
GloVe on Wikipedia 2014 and Gigaword 5th ed.



Example: Word Embedding Association Test (WEAT)



Example: Word Embedding Association Test (WEAT)



•
$$s_1 = s(he, A, B) = \frac{.6+.7}{2} - \frac{.2+.1}{2} = .65 - .15 = .5$$

•
$$s_2 = s(man, A, B) = .3$$
,
 $s_3 = s(woman, A, B) = -.6$, $s_4 = s(she, A, B) = -.3$

WEAT
$$(A, B) = \frac{(s_1 + s_2)/2 - (s_3 + s_4)/2}{sd(\{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4\})} \approx 1.93$$

Example: Word Embedding Association Test (WEAT)

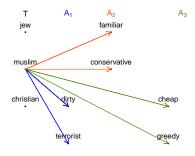
$$s(t, A, B) = \frac{\sum_{a \in A} f(t, a)}{|A|} - \frac{\sum_{b \in B} f(t, b)}{|B|}$$

$$WEAT(A, B) = \frac{\mu(\{s(x, A, B)\}_{x \in X}) - \mu(\{s(y, A, B)\}_{y \in Y})}{\sigma(\{s(w, A, B)\}_{w \in X \cup Y})}$$

- t is a term, A, B are sets of stereotype attribute words, X, Y are protected group words
- For instance, X might be a set of male names, Y a set of female names, A might contain stereotypically male-related career words, and B stereotypically female-related family words
- s-values are used as datapoints in statistical significance tests

(Caliskan, Bryson, & Narayanan, 2017) with extensions in (Lauscher & Glavas, 2019) and applications in (Garg, Schiebinger, Jurafsky, & Zou, 2018)

Our main target: Mean Average Cosine Similarity (MAC)



$$\begin{split} s_1 &= s(\textit{muslim}, A_1) = \frac{\textit{cos}(\textit{muslim}, \textit{dirty}) + \textit{cos}(\textit{muslim}, \textit{terrorist})}{2} \\ s_2 &= s(\textit{muslim}, A_2) = \frac{\textit{cos}(\textit{muslim}, \textit{familiar}) + \textit{cos}(\textit{muslim}, \textit{conservative})}{2} \\ \vdots \end{split}$$

 $MAC(T, A) = mean(\{s_i | i \in 1, ..., k\})$

Our main target: Mean Average Cosine Similarity (MAC)

$$S(t_i, A_j) = rac{1}{|A_j|} \sum_{a \in A_j} \cos(t, a)$$
 $MAC(T, A) = rac{1}{|T||A|} \sum_{t_i \in T} \sum_{A_i \in A} S(t_i, A_j)$

- $T = \{t_1, \dots, t_k\}$ is a class of protected words
- each $A_j \in A$ is a set of attributes stereotypically associated with a protected word
- The t-tests they employ are run on average cosines used to calculate MAC

(Manzini, Lim, Tsvetkov, & Black, 2019)

Our main target: Mean Average Cosine Similarity (MAC)

Table 2: A few rows from the religion dataset

${\sf protectedWord}$	word To Compare	cosine Distance	cosine Similarity
jew	greedy	0.6947042	0.3052958
rabbi	greedy	1.0306175	-0.0306175
rabbi	conservative	0.7175887	0.2824113
christian	uneducated	0.5081939	0.4918061
christianity	cheap	1.2816164	-0.2816164
muslim	terrorist	0.2726106	0.7273894

General challenges

- Gender-direction: insufficient indicator of bias (Gonen & Goldberg, 2019)
- Use of analogies: unreliable (Nissim, Noord, & Goot, 2020)
- High sensitivity to irrelevant factors (Zhang, Sneyd, & Stevenson, 2020)

Some methodological problems

Word list choice is unprincipled

• We run with it for comparison.

Some methodological problems

Word list choice is unprincipled

We run with it for comparison.

No design considerations to sample size

 Ethayarajh (2020) criticizes WEAT uses Bernstein bounds and argues that we would need a bias specific dataset of size at least 11903 to claim that the system is biased (three times larger than WinoBias).

Some methodological problems

Word list choice is unprincipled

• We run with it for comparison.

No design considerations to sample size

- Ethayarajh (2020) criticizes WEAT uses Bernstein bounds and argues that we would need a bias specific dataset of size at least 11903 to claim that the system is biased (three times larger than WinoBias).
- We show progress can be made with more sensitive Bayesian methods.

The form of the definition is suspicious

 Ethayarajh, Duvenaud, & Hirst (2019) show that if there are two target words only WEAT is always maximal in one direction.

Word list choice is unprincipled

We run with it for comparison.

No design considerations to sample size

- Ethayarajh (2020) criticizes WEAT uses Bernstein bounds and argues that we would need a bias specific dataset of size at least 11903 to claim that the system is biased (three times larger than WinoBias).
- We show progress can be made with more sensitive Bayesian methods.

The form of the definition is suspicious

- Ethayarajh, Duvenaud, & Hirst (2019) show that if there are two target words only WEAT is always maximal in one direction.
- We show the problem runs deeper and stems from pre-averaging, and we statistically gauge the uncertainty that arises from raw sample sizes.

No word class distinction and no control group

We make the subclasses clear, add human neutral predicates and neutral predicates for control. We used L2-Reddit corpus and GoogleNews (we present the results for Reddit for brevity).

Table 3: Rows from extended religion dataset.

protectedWord	word To Compare	wordClass	cosine Distance	cosine Similarity	connection
torah	hairy	jewish	1.170	-0.170	associated
christian	dirty	muslim	0.949	0.051	different
judaism	cheap	jewish	1.232	-0.232	associated
christianity	familial	christian	0.645	0.355	associated
mosque	approve	neutral	0.995	0.005	none
imam	carry	human	0.993	0.007	human
mosque	merging	neutral	0.868	0.132	none
muslim	nationalized	neutral	0.870	0.130	none

Our neutral words (examples, full list size = ADD)

liquor, pow, ballpark, glitchy, billy, dallas, rip, called, outlooks, viet, floater, rattlesnake, exports, peruvian, recursion, shortfall, corrected, amicable, solutions, diagnostic, patently, flops, approx, percents, lox, catapults, hamburger, engulfed, households, north, snubbed, playtest

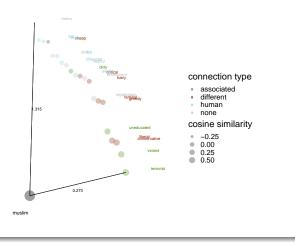
Our human-related words (examples, full list size = ADD)

switch, studio, stick, soup, sometimes, signal, prior, plant, photo, path, park, near, menu, latter, grass, clock, wear, walk, visitor, toy, tissue, throw, talk, speak, sleep, eye, enjoy, blogger, character, candidate, breakfast, supper, dinner, eat, drink, carry, run, cast, ask, awake, ear, nose, lunch

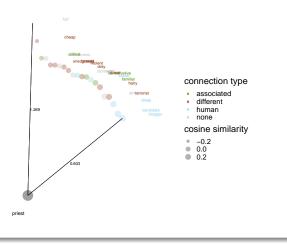
Outliers and surprisingly dissimilar words

We study those by visualizations and uncertainty estimates.

Distances for "muslim"



Distances for "priest"



No principled interpretation

Category	Biased	Hard Debiased	Soft Debiased	Diff
Religion	0.859	0.934	0.894	0.075
Race	0.892	0.925	0.985	0.033
Gender	0.623	0.700	0.747	0.077

- What values are sufficient for the presence of bias and what differences are sign of real improvement?
- Low p-values are not high effect indicators!
- We compare HPDIs.

Key conceptual issues

- It throws away information about sample sizes
- It ignores variation in the raw data, which leads to false confidence

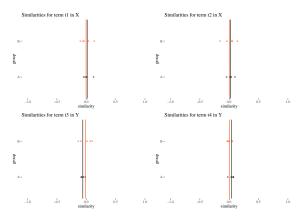
Key conceptual issues

- It throws away information about sample sizes
- It ignores variation in the raw data, which leads to false confidence

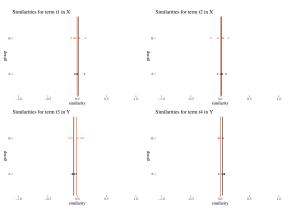
Our simulations

Suppose all similarities for two classes are randomly drawn from the same distribution, Normal($\mu=0,\sigma=.08$), you still can get a really high WEAT!

Simple case: two pws, four terms

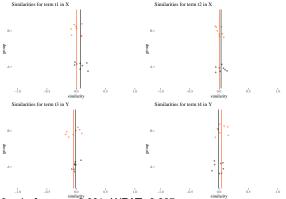


Simple case: two pws, four terms



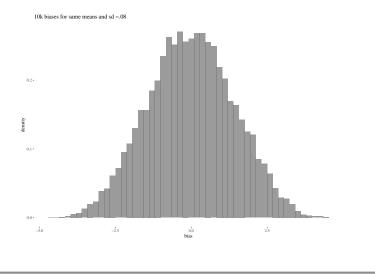
- Raw sd in data is 0.072
- The sd of means is 0.037
- The WEAT score is 1.825
- The largest effect size reported by Caliskan, Bryson, & Narayanan (2017) is 1.81!

Simulation with realistic set-up (16 predicates)

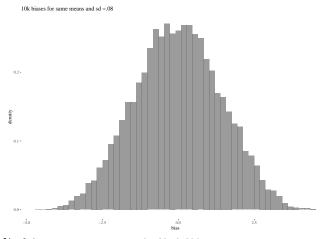


Raw sd: 0.082, sd of means: 0.031, WEAT: 2.337.

10k simulations (same parameters)

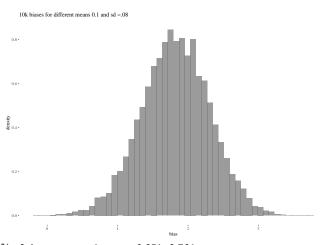


10k simulations (same parameters)



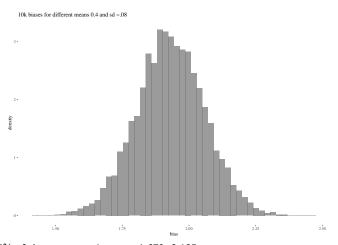
- 95% of the scores are in range -2.763, 2.698
- ullet 21.38% of the absolute values are above 1.81

10k simulations with mean similarity 0.1



- 95% of the scores are in range 0.851, 2.764
- 51.3% of the absolute values are above 1.81

10k simulations with mean similarity 0.4



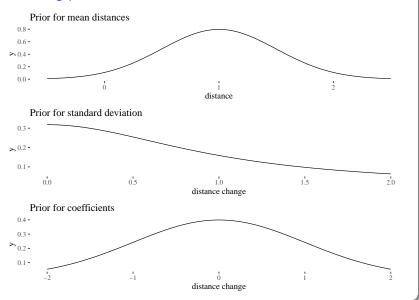
- 95% of the scores are in range 1.679, 2.185
- 82.9% of the absolute values are above 1.81

Advantages of the Bayesian way

- Direct impact of sample sizes
- Straightforward interpretation in terms of posterior probabilities
- Freedom to choose granularity level
- More honest risk assessment and decision making

Bayesian model

Choosing priors

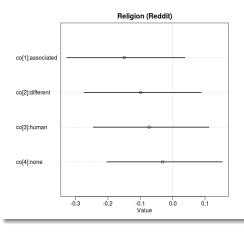


Bayesian model architecture

```
library(rethinking)
options(buildtools.check = function(action) TRUE )
religionCoefs <- ulam(</pre>
  alist(
    cosineDistance ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
    mu \leftarrow m + co[con],
    m \sim dnorm(1,.5),
    co[con] \sim dnorm(0,.5),
    sigma ~ dcauchy(0,1)
  data = religion,
  chains=2, iter=8000, warmup=1000,
  log_lik = TRUE
```

Dataset-level coefficients

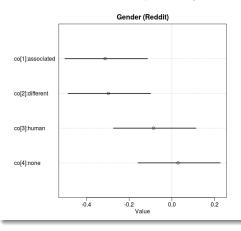
Religion with 89%-compatibility intervals (HPDI)



- All HPDIs overlap with 0
- Differences between classes are relatively small
- Coefficients for Race are similar

Dataset-level coefficients

Gender with 89%-compatibility intervals (HPDI)

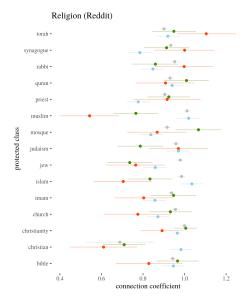


- Associated and different are away from 0
- But they were supposed to be opposites and are very close to each other (co-occurrence?)
- Differences between classes are still relatively small

Bayesian model architecture

```
library(rethinking)
options(buildtools.check = function(action) TRUE )
religionCoefs <- ulam(</pre>
  alist(
    cosineDistance ~ dnorm(mu, sigma),
    mu <- m[pw] + co[con],
    m[pw] ~ dnorm(1,.5),
    co[con] \sim dnorm(0,.5),
    sigma ~ dcauchy(0,1)
  data = religion,
  chains=2, iter=8000, warmup=1000,
  log_lik = TRUE
```

Word-level coefficients



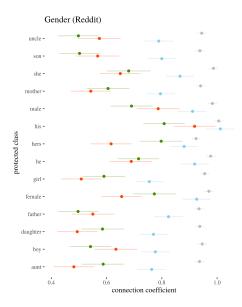
- Most intervals overlap with control groups
- Often not too much difference between associated and different

connectionassociated

human

44/48

Word-level coefficients

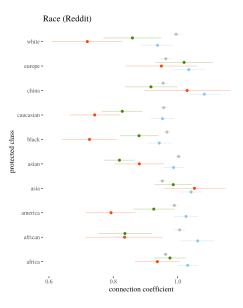


- Male attributes: strong co-occurrence with female attributes
- Sometimes different is closer than associated
- Almost no overlap with control groups

connection

- associateddifferent
- human none

Word-level coefficients



- A lot of variation between races
- Often not much difference between associated and different

connection

- associateddifferent
- humannone

Thank you!

Summary

- Bias in word embeddings
- WEAT and MAC methods
- Methodological problems
- Limitations of pre-averaging in bias detection methods
- Accounting for uncertainty with Bayesian approach

Further work

- Including contrasts in Bayesian calculation
- Performance cross-validation in comparison to other methods (regular linear regression, KNN, . . .)
- Downstream tasks and connection with intrinsic evaluation
- Testing data from the original Implicit Association Test (IAT)
- Applying uncertainty to WEAT and better word lists
- Looking at other similarity measures

References

- Caliskan, A., Bryson, J. J., & Narayanan, A. (2017). Semantics derived automatically from language corpora contain human-like biases. Science, 356(6334), 183–186. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aal4230
- Ethayarajh, K. (2020). Is your classifier actually biased? Measuring fairness under uncertainty with bernstein bounds.
- Ethayarajh, K., Duvenaud, D., & Hirst, G. (2019). Understanding undesirable word embedding associations. Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, 1696–1705.
- Garg, N., Schiebinger, L., Jurafsky, D., & Zou, J. (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115(16), E3635–E3644. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1720347115
- Gonen, H., & Goldberg, Y. (2019). Lipstick on a pig: Debiasing methods cover up systematic gender biases in word embeddings but do not remove them. Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), 609–614. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Association for Computational Linguistics. https://doi.org/10.18653/v1/N19-1061
- Lauscher, A., & Glavas, G. (2019). Are we consistently biased? Multidimensional analysis of biases in distributional word vectors. CoRR, abs/1904.11783. Retrieved from http://arxiv.org/abs/1904.11783
- Manzini, T., Lim, Y. C., Tsvetkov, Y., & Black, A. W. (2019). Black is to criminal as caucasian is to police: Detecting and removing multiclass bias in word embeddings. Retrieved from http://arxiv.org/abs/1904.04047
- Nissim, M., Noord, R. van, & Goot, R. van der. (2020). Fair is better than sensational: Man is to doctor as woman is to doctor. Computational Linguistics, 46(2), 487–497. https://doi.org/10.1162/coli_a_00379
- Zhang, H., Sneyd, A., & Stevenson, M. (2020). Robustness and reliability of gender bias assessment in word embeddings: The role of base pairs. Retrieved from http://arxiv.org/abs/2010.02847