Can Machine Unlearning Reduce Social Bias in Language Models?

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Abstract

Mitigating bias in language models (LMs) has become a critical problem due to the widespread deployment of LMs in the industry and customer-facing applications. Numerous approaches revolve around data pre-processing and subsequent fine-tuning of language models, tasks that can be both time-consuming and computationally demanding. As alternatives, machine unlearning techniques are being explored, yet there is a notable lack of comparative studies evaluating the effectiveness of these methods. In this work, we explore the effectiveness of two machine unlearning methods: Partitioned Contrastive Gradient Unlearning (PCGU) [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0) applied on decoder models, and Negation via Task Vector [\(Ilharco](#page-7-1) [et al.,](#page-7-1) [2022\)](#page-7-1), and compare them with Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) [\(Rafailov et al.,](#page-7-2) [2024\)](#page-7-2) to reduce social biases in open-source LMs such as $LLaMA-2$ and $OPT¹$ $OPT¹$ $OPT¹$. We also implement distributed PCGU for large mod- $els²$ $els²$ $els²$. It is empirically shown, through quantitative and qualitative analyses, that negation via Task Vector method outperforms PCGU and is comparable to DPO in debiasing models with minimum deterioration in model performance and perplexity. Negation via Task Vector reduces the bias score by 25.5% for LLaMA-2 and achieves bias reduction of up to 40% for OPT models. Moreover, it can be easily tuned to balance the trade-off between bias reduction and generation quality, unlike DPO.

1 Introduction

The widespread integration of language models (LMs) into various everyday and industry applications has raised significant concerns on the trustworthiness of such models [\(Xu et al.,](#page-7-3) [2023\)](#page-7-3), for

2 [https://github.com/VectorInstitute/](https://github.com/VectorInstitute/bias-mitigation-unlearning) [bias-mitigation-unlearning](https://github.com/VectorInstitute/bias-mitigation-unlearning)

generating toxic, unfair, and harmful outputs. Although numerous pre-processing techniques have been suggested to create unbiased datasets [\(Ung](#page-7-4) [et al.,](#page-7-4) [2021;](#page-7-4) [Zmigrod et al.,](#page-7-5) [2019\)](#page-7-5), the challenge is that specific pre-training data is not disclosed, making pre-trained models susceptible to intrinsic biases by default. On the other hand, an alternative approach to mitigating bias involves retraining the model on secure, unbiased data. However, this can be computationally expensive. As a result, the focus has been shifted to techniques that work to *nullify* the model's *inherent bias*.

Multiple techniques for mitigating bias exist, yet there is a lack of comparative studies to evaluate their respective advantages and disadvantages. In this study, we explore and compare different debiasing approaches through both quantitative and qualitative analyses. One approach is based on *Machine Unlearning* [\(Cao and Yang,](#page-6-0) [2015;](#page-6-0) [Xu et al.,](#page-7-3) [2023\)](#page-7-3). It involves selectively forgetting unwanted data (or concepts) in a trained model while retaining useful information and maintaining computational efficiency. We compare two machine unlearning methods, Partitioned Contrastive Gradient Unlearning (PCGU) [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0) and unlearning via task vectors [\(Jang et al.,](#page-7-6) [2022\)](#page-7-6) to a popular alignment-based approach using Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) [\(Rafailov et al.,](#page-7-2) [2024\)](#page-7-2), which aligns the model to human preferences. We conduct experiments on the OPT [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-7-7) [2022\)](#page-7-7) and LLaMA-2 models [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-7-8) [2023\)](#page-7-8).

Social Bias. We focus on social bias that is characterized by deliberate or unintentional discriminatory attitudes or actions toward individuals, groups, or specific ideas and beliefs, resulting in prejudiced or unfair treatment [\(Gallegos et al.,](#page-6-1) [2024;](#page-6-1) [Navigli](#page-7-9) [et al.,](#page-7-9) [2023\)](#page-7-9).

Our main contributions are highlighted below:

• We conduct a comparative study of two unlearning methods: PCGU and Task Vector, for social bias mitigation, evaluating their efficacy

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¹This research is part of a larger project between academia and industry to ensure LLM fairness and promote its adoption.

alongside an alignment based approach using DPO.

- We perform ablation studies across relevant parameters for both methods through quantitative and qualitative analyses.
- We extend the
	- PCGU method to decoder models, unlike previous work on encoder models [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0), specifically to OPT and LLaMA-2 models up to 7B. We also apply it to other protected groups beyond gender.
	- Task Vector method for mitigation of social biases, a more challenging task, compared to the earlier work focusing on detoxification [\(Jang et al.,](#page-7-6) [2022\)](#page-7-6).
- We implement and open-source^{[2](#page-0-2)} PCGU in distributed settings (across multiple GPUs) necessary for large language models.

2 Related Work

There have been different machine unlearning approaches used in the literature [\(Cao and Yang,](#page-6-0) [2015;](#page-6-0) [Zhu et al.,](#page-7-10) [2020;](#page-7-10) [Ilharco et al.,](#page-7-1) [2022\)](#page-7-1) that focus on updating the learned behaviour of the model. [Ilharco et al.](#page-7-1) [\(2022\)](#page-7-1) propose using task vectors to steer the behavior of neural networks by specifying the direction in the weight space of a pre-trained model. Similarly, [Zhang et al.](#page-7-11) [\(2023\)](#page-7-11) propose machine learning for privacy in LMs using the unlikelihood training objective to target token sequences with minimal impact on the performance of LLMs. Partitioned contrastive gradient unlearning (PCGU) [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0) method debiases pretrained masked language models by systematically searching through a pre-trained masked language model to find the weights that contribute to bias and optimizes them. Another line of research uses *influence functions* for debiasing [\(Chen et al.,](#page-6-2) [2023;](#page-6-2) [Grosse et al.,](#page-6-3) [2023\)](#page-6-3). Influence functions are used to estimate how training examples impact predictions during testing. For extended related work, refer to Appendix [D.](#page-9-0)

3 Methodology

3.1 Partitioned Contrastive Gradient Unlearning (PCGU)

We adapt and extend the PCGU method to debias decoder models, unlike previous work [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0), which used PCGU on encoder models only. Also, in contrast to previous research, we cover additional protected groups beyond gender. See Appendix [A.1](#page-7-12) for details of PCGU method.

Data. Due to the autoregressive nature of decoder models, the protected group term (e.g., *he*/*she* for gender) cannot be positioned in the middle of the sentence. Hence, we leverage the Bias Benchmark for QA (BBQ) dataset [\(Parrish et al.,](#page-7-13) [2021\)](#page-7-13) (Table [6](#page-11-0) shows the distribution of training samples $across 9$ protected groups^{[3](#page-1-0)}) which facilitates positioning the term towards the end of the sentence. We choose only the ambiguous examples from the BBQ dataset, since they highlight social biases in the model clearly. The entity corresponding to the target stereotyped group is chosen as the advantaged term, and the other as the disadvantaged term. For simplifying the experiments, we assign option letters A and B to the terms and extend the question to answer in terms of these option letters. See Appendix [A.2](#page-8-0) for further details on data preprocessing along with an example.

Our approach. For PCGU method, there are two ways of partitioning the model weights: input aggregation and output aggregation. We focus on input aggregation method only, since based on our experiments output aggregation had a higher timecomplexity and low performance. In terms of the model optimization process, there are two possible directions: decreasing the likelihood of the advantaged term or increasing the likelihood of the disadvantaged term. Based on the recommendation in the literature, we use the latter, as it tends to force the model to be equally inclined towards both stereotypical and anti-stereotypical category, while the former one teaches the model to be less biased in general [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0). Moreover, the percentage of weight vectors to be updated - denoted by k - makes a significant impact on the effectiveness of unlearning bias. First, we fix k to 30% and manually tune the learning rate, batch size and number of epochs for each model with an objective of achieving a drop in the bias score. The final tuned parameters are given in Appendix [G.1.](#page-11-1) Next, we conduct experiments for different values of k ranging from 20% to 40% (step of 5%), since we observed no change in the bias score for $k < 20\%$. See Appendix [A.3](#page-8-1) for details on the distributed setup.

³Two cross groups: race-gender and race-SES, are skipped for simplicity

3.2 Negation via Task Vector

In our second approach, we experiment with the idea of task vectors [\(Ilharco et al.,](#page-7-1) [2022;](#page-7-1) [Zhang](#page-7-11) [et al.,](#page-7-11) [2023\)](#page-7-11), for mitigating social biases or stereotypes in LMs. Previous studies [\(Ilharco et al.,](#page-7-1) [2022\)](#page-7-1) apply this method on language models only for reducing toxicity, a relatively less challenging task compared to social bias mitigation. See Appendix [B.1](#page-8-2) for more details about the method.

Data. We first fine-tune the base pre-trained model on a set of biased sentences to obtain a biased model. Next, we calculate the task vectors by subtracting the base model weights from the newly trained biased model. Consequently, these task vectors are negated and applied to the base model with an appropriate scaling coefficient to get the final debiased model. The biased sentences used for fine-tuning are combined from StereoSet [\(Nadeem](#page-7-14) [et al.,](#page-7-14) [2020\)](#page-7-14) and Civil Comments [\(Duchene et al.,](#page-6-4) [2023\)](#page-6-4) datasets. We use two dataset versions: a small and a large version, to highlight the effect of dataset size. The small version consists of the same set of instances used in the DPO method (see Table [4\)](#page-10-0) for a fair comparison. We modify the dataset by concatenating the "context" and "stereotyped" response to create a biased sentence. This small version is referred to as TV-2k. The large dataset expands beyond the small version and consists of a mix of StereoSet [\(Nadeem et al.,](#page-7-14) [2020\)](#page-7-14) and Civil Comments [\(Duchene et al.,](#page-6-4) [2023\)](#page-6-4). For StereoSet, the formulation is similar to TV-2k. However, we concatenate the "context" and "stereotyped" response across the *intersentence* and *intrasentence* categories. For the Civil Comments dataset, we filter sentences with toxicity scores greater than 0.5 and keep the *identity attack* and *sexual explicit* domains, since only these domains capture social biases relevant for our study. This combined dataset is referred to as TV-14k (or TV). Table [5](#page-11-2) provides a summary of the number of training samples.

Our approach. In order to speed up bias finetuning and conserve memory, the Low-Rank Adaptation of Large Language Models (LoRA) technique [\(Hu et al.,](#page-6-5) [2021\)](#page-6-5) is implemented to reduce the number of trainable parameters. This approach involves introducing a smaller set of additional weights into the model and fine-tuning these extra parameters. The integration of LoRA was fa-cilitated through the Hugging Face PEFT library^{[4](#page-2-0)} and we followed negation and scaling operations

as specified in [Zhang et al.](#page-7-11) [\(2023\)](#page-7-11) for unlearning. See Appendix [B.2](#page-9-1) for details on fine-tuning hyperparameters.

3.3 Direct Preference Optimization (DPO)

We compare the unlearning based methods with alignment method using DPO. Our implementation is based on this repository^{[5](#page-2-1)}. Further details are available in Appendix [C.1.](#page-9-2)

Data. For DPO, since we need to create a preference dataset containing a prompt, preferred response and a rejected response for biased generations, StereoSet seemed to be a great fit. Moreover, as we require a clear distinction in the prompt and generations, we choose only the *intersentence* subgroup from the dataset. For each example, we use the context as the prompt, the anti-stereotypical response as the preferred answer and the stereotypical response as the rejected answer. The distribution of samples across different biased domains is shown in Table [4.](#page-10-0) See Appendix [C.2](#page-9-3) for details on the fine-tuning setup.

4 Experimental Setup

4.1 Language Models

We employ two open-source models for our debiasing experiments: (1) Three sizes of OPT model [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-7-7) [2022\)](#page-7-7) i.e., 1.3B, 2.7B, and 6.7B, selected to assess the scale of the model, and (2) LLaMA-2 7B non-chat model [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-7-8) [2023\)](#page-7-8), for diversity in model families.

4.2 Evaluation metrics

Bias. We use the RedditBias dataset [\(Barikeri et al.,](#page-6-6) [2021\)](#page-6-6) which contains 4 categories for bias evaluation: *gender, orientation, race, religion*. For each category, there are two sentence groups with contrasting targets. The evaluation approach performs Student's t-test on the perplexity distribution of those two groups. We report the absolute value of the t-values. The null hypothesis can be rejected with a higher confidence for larger t-values, indicating that the model is more biased.

Perplexity. Evaluated using the WikiText-2 corpus [\(Merity et al.,](#page-7-15) [2016\)](#page-7-15).

Task Performance. We follow the LLaMA-2 paper [\(Touvron et al.,](#page-7-8) [2023\)](#page-7-8) and report the mean accuracy on PIQA [\(Bisk et al.,](#page-6-7) [2020\)](#page-6-7), HellaSwag [\(Zellers et al.,](#page-7-16) [2019\)](#page-7-16), WinoGrande [\(Sakaguchi et al.,](#page-7-17) [2019\)](#page-7-17), ARC easy and challenge [\(Clark et al.,](#page-6-8) [2018\)](#page-6-8)

⁴ <https://github.com/huggingface/peft>

⁵ <https://github.com/matutinus/towards-fairer-ai>

and OpenBookQA [\(Mihaylov et al.,](#page-7-18) [2018\)](#page-7-18) for Commonsense Reasoning and mean exact match score (EM) on TriviaQA [\(Rajpurkar et al.,](#page-7-19) [2018\)](#page-7-19) for Reading Comprehension.

Qualitative Analysis. We use prompts from the BOLD dataset [\(Dhamala et al.,](#page-6-9) [2021\)](#page-6-9) to compare the generations of each model.

We use the *lm-evaluation-harness* [\(Gao et al.,](#page-6-10) [2023\)](#page-6-10) repository^{[6](#page-3-0)} for evaluations.

5 Experiment Results and Analysis

5.1 Comparative Analysis

Table [1](#page-4-0) shows the bias and perplexity results for the base model vs all four debiased models: PCGU, TV-14k (large), TV-2k (small) and DPO methods with the chosen k and λ (see Section [5.2\)](#page-3-1) setting for each model. For OPT models, only TV-14k and DPO achieve bias reduction. DPO is better for OPT 1.3B and 6.7B whereas TV-14k is better for OPT 2.7B. However, DPO leads to the maximum increase in perplexity (12-16%), which is undesirable. TV-14k also increases the perplexity (3-8%) but, the change is much less compared to DPO, making it a more suitable debiasing method. For a fair comparison with DPO, we also applied TV on the same dataset used for DPO (TV-2k). But TV-2k fails to reduce bias except for OPT 2.7B, highlighting the importance of data size for TV. PCGU, on the other hand, fails to reduce bias for any of the OPT models. For LLaMA-2 7B, PCGU strongly debiases the model but also significantly increases the perplexity (19.3%). However, both TV and DPO are successful in debiasing the model (25.5% for TV-14k and 27.9% for DPO) and limiting the rise in perplexity to $\leq 8\%$. The perplexity increases by only 1% for DPO.

We also report common tasks performance numbers in Table [2.](#page-4-1) For OPT models, even though PCGU and TV-2k values are closest to the base model, we neglect them since they fail to reduce bias. TV-14k debiased models perform similarly to DPO for CR (1-4 % Acc. drop) but outperform DPO on TriviaQA. For LLaMA-2 7B, DPO has better performance compared to TV-14k.

As analyzed above, both TV and DPO are holistically better than PCGU since they maintain generation ability while reducing bias. We hypothesize the following conceptual reasons behind this observation: (1) The PCGU update is based on increasing the likelihood of the disadvantaged group

focusing only on a single token, which can impact the model's generation ability due to lack of relevant constraints. Whereas, for DPO and TV methods, fine-tuning on biased sequences, combines the language modeling task with bias reduction. (2) PCGU assumes independence between the partitioned weight vectors, while applying a hard weight update, since only k weight vectors are updated without any change to the remaining weights. Since, the other two methods are based on full model fine-tuning, the weight update is smooth across all model weights, implicitly considering the dependency between weights. (3) Since BBQ samples are based on templates, they might not have enough diversity as compared to crowd-sourced StereoSet and Civil Comments datasets used for TV and DPO.

Moreover, the TV method has an added practical advantage over DPO. The TV scaling coefficient affects bias and perplexity gradually, allowing us to tune the bias and generation quality trade-off for specific use cases (see section [5.2\)](#page-3-1). On the contrary, the bias changes sporadically with k for PCGU and is difficult to tune for DPO.

5.2 Ablation Studies

PCGU: We ran experiments for different values of k (% of weight vectors to be updated), across all 4 models. As described earlier, we manually tune the remaining PCGU-specific hyper-parameters and fix them to independently observe variation in k . Ablation results for bias and perplexity on LLaMA-2 7B are reported in Figure [1](#page-4-2) (Left). Maximum reduction in bias is achieved at $k = 25\%$ with a steep increase in perplexity, indicating that the set of weights in the additional 5% bracket are more flexible compared to top 20%. Interestingly, the bias increases gradually afterwards while perplexity rises significantly (except for $k = 30\%$). The results for OPT models are shown in Figure [2,](#page-12-0) [3,](#page-12-1) and [4.](#page-12-2) There is no clear trend in bias for OPT models. For OPT 1.3B, the bias increases and fluctuates slightly for higher values of k . Whereas for OPT 2.7B, we observe a notable decrease at $k = 30\%$ before it rises again later. It also increases slightly for OPT 6.7B with a sharp rise at $k = 35\%$. Ablation analysis for model performance on common tasks is provided in Appendix [F.1.](#page-10-1)

Based on this observation we can conclude that the criteria for choosing the most relevant weight vectors does not consider their flexibility, which is important to influence the model's bias. Perhaps

⁶ <https://github.com/EleutherAI/lm-evaluation-harness>

Table 1: Reddit Bias t-value and perplexity across base, PCGU, Task Vector (TV) and DPO debiased models for OPT 1.3B, 2.7B, 6.7B and LLaMA-2 7B. TV refers to TV-14k. Best values among the four debiased models are highlighted in bold, and the second-best values are underlined.

Model	Reddit Bias t-value (\downarrow)					Perplexity (\downarrow)				
$(PCGU:k, TV:\lambda, TV-2k:\lambda)$	Base	PCGU	TV	$TV-2k$	DPO.	Base	PCGU		$TV-2k$	DPO
OPT 1.3B (20%, 0.6, 0.2)	2.18	2.30	2.12	2.17	2.05	16.41	16.44	16.93	16.47	18.44
OPT 2.7B (25%, 0.8, 0.8)	3.44	3.68	2.05	2.62	2.32	14.32	14.61	15.53	14.87	16.46
OPT 6.7B (20%, 0.8, 0.2)	3.18	3.31	3.09	3.28	1.82	12.29	12.32	13.14	12.31	14.28
LLaMA-2 7B $(30\%, 0.6, 0.6)$	7.17	1.14	5.34	6.01	5.17	8.79	10.49	9.47	9.24	8.88

Table 2: Performance on Commonsense Reasoning (% Acc.) and TriviaQA (% EM - Exact Match) for base, PCGU, Task Vector (TV) and DPO debiased models across OPT 1.3B, 2.7B, 6.7B and LLaMA-2 7B. TV refers to TV-14k. Best values among the four debiased models are highlighted in bold, and the second-best values are underlined.

Figure 1: LLaMA-2 7B ablation study. Left: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs k % for PCGU. Middle: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for Task Vector (14k). Right: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for Task Vector (2k). Perplexity values for 40% k are too large to be included.

incorporating it in the current procedure would make the method more efficient in terms of % weight vectors to be updated (k) . Since our focus is on bias reduction, for each model, we choose k for which we see a significant drop in bias without perplexity values getting too large.

TV: Figure [1](#page-4-2) (Middle and Right) highlights bias and perplexity across different scaling coefficients for TV on LLaMA-2 7B. We notice a consistent decrease in bias on increasing the scaling coefficient for the debiased models, regardless of the fine-tuning dataset size. A similar trend is observed for OPT 2.7B in Figure [3.](#page-12-1) Whereas, for OPT 1.3B (Figure [2\)](#page-12-0) and OPT 6.7B (Figure [4\)](#page-12-2), the t-value remains steady for TV-14k. But it rises gradually for TV-2k with a equally gradual drop for OPT 6.7B. From these figures, the increase in model perplexity is moderate when $\lambda = 0.6$ or

0.8, after which it increases sharply (sharper for TV-14k). Similar to PCGU, we choose λ for which we see a significant drop in bias without perplexity values getting too large. Ablation analysis for model performance on common tasks is provided in Appendix [F.2.](#page-10-2)

5.3 Qualitative Analysis

Table [3](#page-5-0) presents the qualitative analysis of generations across base and debiased LLaMA-2 7B models for a sample prompt from the BOLD dataset. The prompt focuses on *Socialism*, which is a political and economic ideology valued and followed by specific groups. The base LLaMA-2 7B model generates text starting with a highly biased stance: *"100% evil ideology"*, maintaining the biased perspective throughout most of the generated text (such as *"own and control the means"*), showing its inherent social bias. On the other hand, output for the DPO model is neutral and debiased, stating

Table 3: Generations on LLaMA-2 7B for base and debiased models on a BOLD dataset prompt related to political ideologies. The biased text is in red while the unbiased text is in blue. $k = 20\%$ for PCGU and $\lambda = 0.6$ for TV-14k.

"based on the principles of equality, solidarity, and social justice." Similar, debiased output can be observed for TV method, such as *"advocates the ownership and control of..*". The PCGU approach^{[7](#page-5-1)}, on the contrary, does not reduce the bias indicated by phrases like *"government controls the means of production."* Additionally, it compromises the coherence of the language, resulting in outputs like *"B B B"*. This finding is further supported by the higher perplexity scores on PCGU trained models. We present additional analysis on LLaMA-2 7B and respective settings of the TV and PCGU methods on the BOLD dataset in Appendix [E.](#page-10-3)

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we compare two unlearning techniques to an alignment based approach to address social biases in language models, specifically OPT and LLaMA-2. Our empirical findings highlight the ability of the Negation via TV method to reduce bias, while maintaining overall model performance. It also provides greater flexibility compared to DPO based alignment by varying the scaling coefficient, which is not available for DPO. We also extend the PCGU approach for decoder-based models but observe mixed results across model families in terms of bias reduction, which we may further investigate in our future work. We hope that our work will benefit both the research community and industry by promoting the safety and deployment of language models.

7 Limitations and Future Work

As discussed in section [5.1,](#page-3-2) bias unlearning using PCGU negatively impacts the model's generation ability and performance. To address this, a regularization term can be added to the first-order weight update, and the ranking procedure can be improved to consider weight vector dependencies. Hyper-parameter tuning (learning rate, batch size, no. of epochs) requires manual intervention due to the lack of a clear convergence criterion, so a systematic approach is needed. Additionally, section [5.2](#page-3-1) shows a significant drop in bias score when k exceeds a threshold. Further investigation with shorter k intervals would be beneficial.

For the TV method, an avenue for task performance improvement can be explored by fine-tuning the model on a specific task and combining it with the bias task vector to reduce biases.

Due to training and evaluation processes being limited by GPU resources, we only experimented with models up to 7B. For instance, PCGU training for LLaMA-2 7B and OPT 6.7B models using two A100 GPUs requires \sim 6 hours per epoch. Hence, exploring both methods with larger (LLaMA-2 13B, 70B) and newer (LLaMA-3 8B, 70B) models is a potential future direction.

 $7k = 20\%$ is used for this analysis, since at higher values of k the generations become incoherent (see Figure [1](#page-4-2) - Left).

Acknowledgements

This work has resulted from a larger collaborative initiative involving the Vector Institute and its industry partners. The authors extend their appreciation to Tahniat Khan, the project manager, for her efforts in coordinating this project. We also express our thanks to Deval Pandya, Vice President of AI Engineering at the Vector Institute, for his valuable support.

The authors would like to acknowledge the leaders at Ernst & Young (EY) for their exceptional support and commitment to advancing artificial intelligence research. Special thanks to Mario Schlener, Managing Partner for Risk Consulting Canada, whose strategic vision exemplifies EY's dedication to fostering innovation and thought leadership in the industry. We also recognize the expert oversight of Yara Elias, Kiranjot Dhillon, and Rasoul Shahsavarifar from AI Risk Canada, whose contributions were integral to the project's success. This partnership not only reflects EY's investment in AI but also sets a foundation for continued research collaboration and driving progress in the field.

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A PCGU

A.1 Original PCGU Method

• Partition the model weights into weight vectors, either using input (by rows) or output (by columns) aggregation.

- Calculate gradients ∇_{a_1} , ∇_{a_2} of the likelihood of the advantaged and disadvantaged terms (*A* or *B* in our case) with respect to model weights θ . Since the weights are partitioned, the gradients $\nabla_{a_i}, \forall i$ are also partitioned as $\nabla_{a_i}^{p_1},...,\nabla_{a_i}^{p_j},...,\nabla_{a_i}^{p_m}$, with m being the number of partitions.
- Difference between the corresponding gradients for each term is calculated using cosine similarity, and only k weight vectors having the lowest gradient similarity score are chosen for the weight update (assumed to be most informative about bias).
- Finally, the weight update is a first order gradient optimization which decreases the probability of the advantaged term (or increases that of the disadvantaged term):

$$
\theta^{p_j} \leftarrow \theta^{p_j} - \alpha \mathbb{1}\{j \leq k\} \nabla_{a_1}^{p_j}
$$

A.2 Dataset Preprocessing

Each sample in BBQ consists of a *context: We couldn't start the board meeting at 9am today because a man and a woman were late.* involving two entities and a *question: Who was the secretary?* which asks us to choose between those two entities. The context can be ambiguous or unambiguous in terms of the information required to answer the question. We only choose samples from the ambiguous set for unlearning, since they highlight social biases in the model clearly. The entity corresponding to the target stereotyped group (in this case *woman*) is chosen as the advantaged term, and the other as the disadvantaged term for PCGU.

We concatenate the *context*, *question* with each term to create minimally different sentence pairs. Ideally, we would like to create sentence pairs with the actual advantaged and disadvantaged terms and get gradients of their likelihood. For example, let us use the tag *prefix* to denote (*context + question*): "*We couldn't start the board meeting at 9am today because a man and a woman were late. Who was the secretary?*"

The advantaged (a_1) and disadvantaged (a_2) sequences should be:

a1:⟨*prefix*⟩ *The woman*

a2:⟨*prefix*⟩ *The man*

But the issue with this formulation is that for some pairs, the terms split into multiple tokens, for example, *man* remains a single token whereas *woman* splits into two. This makes the two sequences differ by multiple tokens at different positions, leading to difficulty in adopting the PCGU method. We overcome this issue by assigning option letters A and B to the terms and extending the question to answer in terms of these option letters. The updated *prefix-2* becomes:

"*We couldn't start the board meeting at 9am today because a man and a woman were late. Who was the secretary? Choose among the following two options: A: The woman; B: The man. Answer:* " And the corresponding sentence pairs become:

$$
a_1: \langle prefix-2 \rangle \textit{Option } A
$$

$$
a_2
$$
: $\langle prefix-2 \rangle$ Option B

Here, we make an implicit assumption that models can associate option letters with the corresponding terms. The remaining steps are similar to the original PCGU method as outlined in [A.1.](#page-7-12)

A.3 Distributed Setup

PCGU can be applied to small language models using a single A40 or A100 GPU. But one device is insufficient for large models like OPT 6.7B and LLaMA-2 7B due to significant memory requirements (weights, activations and gradients). Hence, as a novel open source contribution, we implement distributed PCGU using HuggingFace Accelerate library^{[8](#page-8-3)}, which allows the PCGU procedure to be applied to large models (>3B) sharded across multiple devices while also utilizing CPU memory. The code is open-sourced^{[2](#page-0-2)}.

B Task Vector

B.1 Description

A task vector represents a direction in the weight vector space of a pre-trained model such that moving in that direction enhances performance on a given task. The task vector $\tau_t \in R^d$, is the element-wise difference between weights of the fine-tuned model on task t, denoted by θ_{ft}^{t} and the weights of the pre-trained model denoted by θ_{pre} , $\tau_t = \theta_{ft}^t - \theta_{pre}$. Given the same model architecture, using element-wise addition combined with an optional scaling term λ , task vectors can be applied to any model parameters to produce a new model with weights: $\theta_{new} = \theta_{pre} + \lambda \tau_t$. On the other hand, rather than adding the task vector directly to a pre-trained model, if the negation of that task vector is added ($\tau_{new} = -\tau$), the performance of the model decreases on the target task. This behavior allows us to achieve unlearning as we can

⁸ <https://huggingface.co/docs/accelerate/en/index>

negate the task vectors and help the model forget undesirable behaviours.

B.2 Fine-tuning Setup

Across all OPT models, a training batch size of 4 and a gradient accumulation step of 4 are used, with a learning rate of 2e-4. To save memory, a training batch size of 2 and a gradient accumulation step of 8 are used for LLaMA-2, with a learning rate of 5e-4. All models are trained with 10 epochs and the one with the lowest loss is saved. Default values were maintained for all other parameters as specified in the library. To determine the impact of scaling coefficients λ on model bias and performance, evaluations were conducted across various values ranging from 0 to 1 with increments of 0.2. The outcomes of these experiments are compared in the section [5.2.](#page-3-1)

C DPO

C.1 Description

DPO is an extension to Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-7-20) [2017a\)](#page-7-20). Although both approaches fine-tune a model to maximize rewards and maintain diversity, DPO skips the reward modeling step and directly optimizes language models using preference data. It transforms the Reinforcement Learning (RL) loss into a loss directly over the reference model by mapping the reward function to the optimal RL policy. This approach simplifies the process and aligns with user preferences from the start, offering a new perspective on optimizing language models based on preferences.

To begin, we create a dataset having a prompt, an anti-stereotypical response and a stereotypical response. The anti-stereotypical response is the preferred answer. DPO defines two models for training: the trained model (also known as the policy model) and a replica of it, the reference model. The training objective is to make sure that the policy model outperforms the reference model in terms of preferred answer likelihood. By using the LLM as its own reward model, DPO efficiently aligns the model's outputs with human preferences without needing extensive sampling, reward model fitting, or complex hyper-parameter adjustments. This approach results in a more stable, efficient, and computationally less demanding process.

C.2 Fine-tuning Setup

Across all models, a training batch size of 4 and a gradient accumulation step of 4 are used, with a learning rate of 5e-5 and a cosine learning rate scheduler. All models are trained with 200 steps. Default values were maintained for all other parameters as specified in the library.

D Extended Related Work

Early work on machine unlearning by [Cao and](#page-6-0) [Yang](#page-6-0) [\(2015\)](#page-6-0) proposes the idea of a system that forgets data and its lineage to restore privacy, security, and usability by transforming learning algorithms into a summation form and updating a few summations. Similarly, [Zhu et al.](#page-7-10) [\(2020\)](#page-7-10) propose modifying specific factual knowledge in transformer models to make transformers forget. Another method proposed by [Ilharco et al.](#page-7-1) [\(2022\)](#page-7-1) uses task vectors to steer the behavior of neural networks by specifying the direction in the weight space of a pretrained model. Task vectors are used for forgetting via negation to mitigate undesirable behaviors of the language models (e.g., toxic generations), or to forget specific tasks. In model fusion [\(Zaman et al.,](#page-7-21) [2023\)](#page-7-21), shared knowledge of the models helps in enhancing the model capabilities, while unshared knowledge is usually lost or forgotten, which can be used for forgetting the biased information. [Wang](#page-7-22) [et al.](#page-7-22) [\(2023\)](#page-7-22) propose an unlearning method that preserves the knowledge gap alignment between the original and debiased model. [Zhang et al.](#page-7-11) [\(2023\)](#page-7-11) propose machine learning for privacy in LMs using the unlikelihood training objective to target token sequences with minimal impact on the performance of LLMs. Partitioned contrastive gradient unlearning (PCGU) [\(Yu et al.,](#page-7-0) [2023\)](#page-7-0) method debiases pretrained masked language models by systematically searching through a pre-trained masked language model to find the weights that contribute to bias and optimizes them.

Similarly, another line of research uses *influence functions* for debiasing [\(Chen et al.,](#page-6-2) [2023;](#page-6-2) [Grosse](#page-6-3) [et al.,](#page-6-3) [2023\)](#page-6-3). Influence functions are used to estimate how training examples impact predictions during testing. In some cases, data is divided into shards and models are trained on each shard and if a particular shard or part of the shard needs to be forgotten then only the parameter optimization of that smaller model is required [\(Bowman et al.,](#page-6-11) [2023;](#page-6-11) [Bourtoule et al.,](#page-6-12) [2021\)](#page-6-12). Synergy Aware Forgetting Ensemble (SAFE) [\(Dukler et al.,](#page-6-13) [2023\)](#page-6-13) is a method for unlearning using shard graphs (i.e., a directed graph capturing relations between data sources for training) empirically shown to reduce cost while maintaining accuracy. Zero-shot machine unlearning method [\(Chundawat et al.,](#page-6-14) [2023\)](#page-6-14) attempts to unlearn the forget set by modifying the model parameters, without having access to the data and the forget set. [Xu et al.](#page-7-23) [\(2024\)](#page-7-23) compare DPO with Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [\(Schulman et al.,](#page-7-24) [2017b\)](#page-7-24) and show that DPO may have fundamental limitations.

E Qualitative Analysis

To evaluate the methods qualitatively, we also test the generations of the debiased models across different parameter settings. We highlight such findings on LLaMA-2 7B. All the prompts in the section are from the BOLD dataset.

E.1 PCGU vs Task Vector vs DPO

In Table [13,](#page-15-0) we include additional prompts and generations for all debiasing methods on LLaMA-2 7B. In general, it can be observed that the TV and DPO generations are less biased (with reference to the bias definition in section [1\)](#page-0-3) when compared to the base pre-trained model. In case of PCGU, the quality of generations deteriorates as evident from higher perplexity numbers discussed in section [5.1.](#page-3-2)

E.2 Task Vector

Table [9](#page-13-0) compares the generations of the TV debiased model across different values of the scaling coefficient λ . The prompt talks about *Sikhs*, a religious community originated in India. We see that the base model produces a biased completion where it talks about things that are forbidden in the religion. On the other hand, the models debiased using task vector negation, starting with $\lambda = 0.2$, avoid talking about such stereotyped beliefs. Interestingly, at $\lambda = 1$, the model moves away from the topic and generates a non-coherent completion. This qualitative analysis further justifies that the TV method with an appropriate value of λ certainly helps in reducing social biases.

E.3 PCGU

Using the same prompt as section [E.2,](#page-10-4) we observe a drastic difference in the completions for PCGU debiased models presented in Table [8.](#page-13-1) At $k = 20\%$, the completion does not reflect any internal biases about *Sikhs* and talks about the amendments made by the Biden government for the community. This is a factual generation and carries a more positive sentiment compared to the base model. However, for $k > 20\%$, the generations become incoherent and randomly repeat tokens *A* and *B*. This example highlights the inability of the PCGU models to generate meaningful responses at higher values of k.

F Performance Analysis

F.1 PCGU

For PCGU, the performance on common tasks across models is shown in Table [10.](#page-14-0) For commonsense reasoning, the performance fluctuated for OPT 1.3B with less than a 1% Acc. drop from the base model to $k = 35\%$. The decreasing trend becomes significant as the size of the OPT models increases, as shown by over 20% Acc. drop from $k = 0\%$ to $k = 35\%$ for OPT 6.7B. Nonetheless, the value for LLaMA-2 7B is much more stable than OPT 6.7B despite a similar model size. TriviaQA shares a similar trend but with more significant drops for LLaMA-2 7B and OPT 6.7B: over 30% EM drop from $k = 0\%$ to $k = 35\%$. In addition, we notice that while the CR accuracy reduces to below 33% Acc., the TriviaQA score almost goes to 0 when k goes beyond 35% for all models.

Table 4: Distribution of Stereoset training samples used for DPO and TV-2K across domains.

F.2 Task Vector

For the TV method, the performance on common tasks across models is shown in Table [11](#page-14-1) for 2k and Table [12](#page-14-2) for 14k. For both tasks, the performance decreases gradually for OPT models, especially for $\lambda \leq 0.6$, although the magnitude for TV-2k is smaller. There is $\leq 7\%$ Acc. drop for commonsense reasoning and $\leq 12\%$ EM drop for TriviaQA score from $\lambda = 0$ to $\lambda = 1$. The performance drop in LLaMA-2 7B becomes more significant for both models, with over 9% Acc. and 15% EM

Dataset	Domain	Sentences		
	race	1,938		
StereoSet	profession	1,637		
	gender	497		
	religion	157		
Civil Comm.	identity attack	7,633		
	sexual explicit	3,010		
Total		14,872		

Table 5: Distribution of Stereoset and Civil Comments training samples for TV-14k across domains.

Table 6: Distribution of BBQ ambiguous samples across protected groups used in PCGU.

decline for commonsense reasoning and TriviaQA respectively. Also, note that the TriviaQA score for LLaMA-2 7B (both 2k and 14k) with $\lambda \leq 0.4$ is slightly higher than the base model, while it drops by over 25% when λ exceeds 0.8 for 14k model.

G Experimental Setup

G.1 PCGU

Table [7](#page-11-3) illustrates the chosen learning rate (LR), batch size and the number of epochs across models as an outcome of manual tuning.

Table 7: PCGU tuned parameters across models.

Model	LR.	Batch Size # Epochs	
OPT 1.3B	$3e-4$	256	5
OPT 2.7B	$4e-4$	256	10
OPT $6.7B$	$1e-3$	128	3
LLaMA-27B	$2e-4$	512	3

Figure 2: OPT-1.3B ablation study. Left: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs $k \%$ for PCGU. Middle: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-14k. Right: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-2k. Perplexity values for 40% k are too large to be included.

Figure 3: OPT-2.7B ablation study. Left: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs k % for PCGU. Middle: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-14k. Right: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-2k. Perplexity values for 35% and 40% k are too large to be included.

Figure 4: OPT-6.7B ablation study. Left: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs $k \%$ for PCGU. Middle: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-14k. Right: Reddit Bias t-value & perplexity vs scaling coefficient λ for TV-2k. Perplexity values for 35% and 40% k are too large to be included.

Table 8: Generations on LLaMA-2 7B for base and PCGU debiased model across different k % on a sample BOLD dataset prompt. The biased text is shown in red while the unbiased text is shown in blue.

Table 9: Generations on LLaMA-2 7B for base and TV-14k debiased model across different scaling coefficients (λ) using a sample BOLD dataset prompt. The biased text is shown in red while the unbiased text is shown in blue.

		OPT 1.3B		OPT $2.7B$	OPT $6.7B$			LLaMA-27B
$k(\%)$	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA
0 (base)	46.06	16.66	48.89	23.72	52.62	34.43	59.23	61.96
20	46.03	16.68	48.78	23.79	52.60	34.64	59.28	58.69
25	46.43	16.64	48.50	22.39	51.94	34.34	58.25	49.01
30	46.21	16.40	38.93	14.99	46.54	24.27	58.37	48.98
35	45.78	15.77	31.51	0.02	31.30	0.02	51.86	25.01
40	32.23	0.00	31.06	0.00	32.19	0.00	32.55	0.03

Table 10: Performance for different models on Commonsense Reasoning (% Acc.) and TriviaQA (% EM) across different k values for PCGU. $k = 0\%$ denotes the base pre-trained model.

Table 11: Performance for different models on Commonsense Reasoning (% Acc.) and TriviaQA (% EM) across different λ values for TV-2k. $\lambda = 0$ denotes the base pre-trained model.

	OPT 1.3B		OPT 2.7B		OPT 6.7B		LLaMA-27B	
λ	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA
0 (base)	46.06	16.66	48.89	23.72	52.62	34.43	59.23	61.96
0.2	45.57	16.33	48.00	23.36	52.11	33.61	58.03	62.44
0.4	45.19	15.98	47.66	22.60	50.99	32.29	56.58	60.91
0.6	44.67	15.26	47.22	21.71	50.06	30.28	54.53	58.37
0.8	44.41	14.20	46.68	20.34	49.68	27.43	51.88	54.57
$\mathbf{1}$	44.00	13.16	46.05	18.45	48.41	23.33	49.49	49.83

Table 12: Performance for different models on Commonsense Reasoning (% Acc.) and TriviaQA (% EM) across different λ values for TV-14k. $\lambda = 0$ denotes the base pre-trained model.

	OPT 1.3B		OPT 2.7B		OPT 6.7B		LLaMA-27B	
λ	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA	CR	TriviaOA
0 (base)	46.06	16.66	48.89	23.72	52.62	34.43	59.23	61.96
0.2	45.86	16.52	47.90	23.47	52.28	33.96	57.50	62.39
0.4	45.32	16.18	47.21	22.80	51.65	33.10	55.10	60.57
0.6	44.96	15.35	46.24	21.55	50.70	31.70	51.05	55.83
0.8	44.13	13.97	45.06	19.46	49.56	29.41	46.56	44.55
$\overline{1}$	43.28	12.04	42.92	16.12	48.28	25.71	41.41	17.82

Table 13: Additional generations on LLaMA-2 7B for base and debiased models using BOLD dataset prompts related to religion and nationality. The biased text is in red while the debiased version is in blue. $k = 20\%$ for PCGU and $\lambda = 0.6$ for TV-14k.

