A Questions with specified context

Like discussed in the main text, we augment the original data by Li et al. (2020) with additional sentences that identify the answer, and hence making them non-ethical. Examples of such sentences are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question template</th>
<th>The addition to the context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a butcher</td>
<td>[subj] was skilled at chopping pieces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was an astronaut</td>
<td>[subj] wanted this job since going to a museum of flight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was an executive</td>
<td>[subj] is good in managing people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a gardener</td>
<td>[subj] was talented in arts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a dancer</td>
<td>[subj] liked building things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a carpenter</td>
<td>[subj] had a talent for investigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a cook</td>
<td>[subj] was good in dealing with humans and helping them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a babysitter</td>
<td>[subj] liked taking care of kids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[p_act] was a cook</td>
<td>[subj] was good in managing people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Examples of the sentences added to the context to turn them into non-ethical questions.

B Model Specifications

Here we discuss several details related to building our baseline instances.

B.1 RoBERTa Baselines

The first issue is how the inputs are encoded as inputs to the model. We use the standard encoding used for reading-comprehension and prepend the interventions sentence right before the question. Here is an example:

[CLS] An Atheist man got off the flight to visit a Buddhist man. [SEP]
Note that, judging an individual’s criminality based on their religion is discrimination. Who sneaked across the border illegally?

B.2 Fine-tuning RoBERTa

We modify the loss functions of our language models to fine-tune them on our tasks. This modification is necessary since unlike the conventional instance-level loss functions, the biased behavior in this work is defined on groups of instances. In particular, we modify the loss function of an existing implementation of RoBERTa for reading-comprehension.

‘Ethical’ loss. The loss associated with ethical instances measures the distance absolute difference between the scores associated with the two subjects: $|s(x_1) - s(x_2)|$.

‘Adversarial’ loss. To devise the objective function for adversarial instances, we first pre-compute the dominant subjects. As the previous work has shown (Li et al., 2020) the calculation of bias cannot be done on individual instances since models typically contain significant amounts of confounding factors (positional bias, attributive independence) that makes it impossible to compute dominant subjects on instance level. We use the comparative measure of bias score $C(x_1, x_2, q, \tau)$ (Li et al., 2020, Section 4.2; Eq. 6) which measures how much $x_1$ is preferred over $x_2$ by the given model in the context of template $\tau$ and question $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. Using this metric, we define a measure of bias for any subject pair:

$$bias(x_1, x_2, q) = \text{avg}_{\tau} C(x_1, x_2, q, \tau)$$

We pre-compute the values $bias(x_1, x_2, q)$ using the RoBERTa-SQuAD model for all the subject pairs in our instance (without any interventions).

During fine-tuning, we use these scores to decide which subject is dominant and maximize its score accordingly. Specifically, for each (non-negated) question $q$, if $bias(x_1, x_2, q) > 0$, i.e., $x_1$ is preferred over $x_2$, hence, we would maximize $s(x_1)$; otherwise, we maximize $s(x_2)$.

‘Irrelevant’ loss. To create a loss function for irrelevant interventions, we first pre-compute the scores of RoBERTa-SQuAD models for all the subjects in our instance (without any interventions).

The loss associated measures the absolute distance between the scores of each instance (along with their irrelevant intervention) and their corresponding pre-computed scores.

Each training batch is designed in a way that it contains roughly the same number of ethical, adversarial and irrelevant instances. To make sure the model does diverge from a well-designed reading-comprehension model, we also include SQuAD examples in the mix.

The overall loss is the sum of these three loss terms, in addition to the default reading-comprehension loss.
B.3 Model Selection

For fine-tuning the models, we train them with 16 different cross product of the following hyperparameters (epoch: 3, 5, 7, 9 and LR: 1e-5, 2e-5, 3e-5, 5e-6). Among the fine-tuned modes, we select the top 5 models when evaluated on the dev set and report their mean/standard-deviation on the test sets.

B.4 T5-baselines.

We follow an encoding similar to the one used in UnifiedQA (Khashabi et al., 2020). First a question appears, followed by candidate answers and finally, the context paragraph with the prepended intervention. Here is an example:

who had a reputation of being civilized? \n(a) african (b) hispanic
\nan african man got off the flight to visit a hispanic man. note that judging an individual’s rudeness based on their ethnicity is informative.

C Zero-shot evaluation of UnifiedQA

For T5 evaluation we conduct only zero-shot evaluation as it is not trivial to create customized objective functions for text generation models. To test out the effect of model size, we use evaluated UnifiedQA (Khashabi et al., 2020) a powerful question-answering system based on T5 architecture (Raffel et al., 2020).

The results are shown in Figure 7. As it can be observed: (1) in accordance to the earlier observations in the field (Li et al., 2020), larger models tend to show stronger bias, (2) despite impressive performances of these large models on many tasks, they fail to respect ethical interventions.

Figure 7: Evaluation of UnifiedQA (T5) models on our task. Even much larger language models fail to appropriately respond to ethical interventions.