

## Ethical Bias Mitigation in Large Language Models: A Comparative Evaluation of Fairness-Aware Fine-Tuning Strategies

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### ABSTRACT

Large Language Models (LLMs) have rapidly transformed the landscape of natural language processing, enabling remarkable advancements in machine translation, content generation, and human-computer interaction. However, their deployment has raised critical ethical concerns due to the propagation and amplification of societal biases embedded in training data. This work examines how well fairness-aware fine-tuning methods can reduce bias in LLMs without materially impairing model performance. The study examines how well each strategy works across important fairness criteria including Equal Opportunity Difference and Demographic Parity by comparing adversarial debiasing, reweighting, and fairness-regularized loss functions. We refine a mid-sized transformer-based language model and rigorously assess trade-offs between accuracy, computational overhead, and fairness using benchmark datasets with known bias patterns. The findings show that some hybrid approaches provide promise balance, even if no one methodology can attain total bias neutrality. The results support the inclusion of fairness objectives in the first phases of model creation and highlight the significance of context-aware model tweaking. This research contributes to the broader discourse on ethical AI, offering actionable insights for building transparent, accountable, and socially responsible language technologies.

**Keywords:** Large Language Models, Bias Mitigation, Ethical AI, Fairness-Aware Fine-Tuning, NLP Bias, Transformer Models

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, Large Language Models (LLMs) have dramatically transformed the landscape of natural language processing (NLP), enabling machines to generate coherent text, translate languages, summarize documents, and even carry on complex conversations. Models such as GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020), BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), and RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) represent milestones in deep learning and language understanding, built primarily on transformer architectures.

These models leverage self-attention mechanisms and large-scale unsupervised learning from massive, diverse text corpora, resulting in exceptional performance on downstream tasks without extensive task-specific tuning.

While their success has spurred widespread adoption across industries, a growing body of literature has identified a critical downside: LLMs are prone to inheriting and amplifying social biases encoded in their training data. These biases are not merely technical artifacts; they have real-world consequences, especially when deployed in sensitive domains such as hiring, education, law enforcement, and healthcare (Bender et al., 2021; Blodgett et al., 2020). In essence, LLMs do not merely learn language—they learn the patterns, prejudices, and power structures embedded within it.

The biases present in LLMs often reflect societal stereotypes related to gender, race, religion, nationality, and socioeconomic status (Sheng et al., 2019). For example, research has shown that language models may disproportionately associate female pronouns with domestic or caregiving roles, while male pronouns are linked with leadership or technical roles (Zhao et al., 2018). Similarly, names associated with particular ethnic backgrounds may trigger biased or even harmful text completions in generative models (Nadeem et al., 2021). These unintended behaviors result from exposure to unfiltered internet-scale data, which contains both explicit and implicit biases originating from human communication.

These concerns are further magnified by the opaqueness of LLMs' internal workings. Due to their scale and complexity, it is often difficult to trace how specific biases emerge or how they influence outputs. The lack of interpretability in these models complicates the task of auditing or correcting them, thereby creating a gap in accountability. As LLMs continue to be embedded into digital assistants, automated decision systems, and generative tools, the urgency of addressing embedded bias becomes more pronounced.

Fairness in artificial intelligence is no longer a secondary concern—it is central to the responsible design and deployment of intelligent systems. From an ethical standpoint, biased models may cause harm by reinforcing discrimination, eroding trust in automated systems, and marginalizing already disadvantaged groups (Barocas, Hardt, & Narayanan, 2019). In addition, there are growing legal pressures to ensure fairness and transparency. Regulatory frameworks such as the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) emphasize "data protection by design" and call for algorithmic accountability, including the right to explanation.

On the societal level, AI systems increasingly mediate access to information, opportunities, and services. When biased language models operate at scale—whether in job recommendation systems or legal document analysis—they can subtly skew decisions and perpetuate systemic inequality (Mehrabi et al., 2021). Ensuring fairness is thus not just a technical requirement but a societal imperative for inclusive digital transformation.

Although numerous studies have acknowledged the existence of bias in LLMs, the field still lacks a standardized, comparative framework to evaluate the effectiveness of mitigation strategies during the fine-tuning phase. Much of the existing work either focuses on identifying bias or addresses mitigation through preprocessing methods, which are not always feasible or scalable for large pre-trained models (Dixon et al., 2018). Furthermore, while fairness-aware algorithms have been proposed, empirical comparisons among these approaches under consistent experimental settings remain limited.

Moreover, existing literature often prioritizes either accuracy or fairness, rarely addressing the nuanced trade-offs between the two. This disconnect between theoretical solutions and practical implementation reveals a need for systematic research that evaluates multiple bias mitigation strategies across both performance and ethical dimensions. To address this gap, it is essential to explore how fairness can be incorporated directly into the fine-tuning process of LLMs a stage that allows customization for specific tasks and domains.

The primary goal of this research is to evaluate and compare the effectiveness of fairness-aware fine-tuning techniques in mitigating bias in large language models. Specifically, the study aims to:

**Analyze and compare different bias mitigation strategies;** including adversarial debiasing, sample reweighting, and fairness-constrained loss functions applied during fine-tuning.

**Measure the impact of these techniques;** using both fairness-oriented metrics (e.g., Demographic Parity, Equal Opportunity) and performance metrics (e.g., accuracy, F1-score).

**Investigate the trade-offs and limitations;** associated with each approach, focusing on their computational cost, generalizability, and impact on model interpretability.

**Propose a fairness-aware evaluation framework;** for future model development, contributing to the design of ethical and socially responsible AI systems.

Through this multi-dimensional study, the paper aims to contribute both theoretically and practically to the field of responsible AI, emphasizing the critical balance between fairness and utility in modern NLP systems.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The proliferation of large language models (LLMs) such as GPT, BERT, and T5 has marked a significant milestone in the

advancement of natural language processing (NLP). However, with the growing reliance on these models in sensitive applications such as hiring systems, healthcare triage, judicial decision support, and education scholars have increasingly raised concerns about embedded biases in these systems (Binns, 2018; Barocas et al., 2019). These biases, inherited from imbalanced datasets or algorithmic design, often result in disproportionate impacts on marginalized communities, prompting extensive research into fairness-aware strategies.

**2.1 Bias in Large Language Models:** Foundational research by Bolukbasi et al. (2016) identified gender biases in word embeddings, where terms like “man” and “woman” were analogously aligned with “computer programmer” and “homemaker,” respectively. More recent studies have demonstrated that even transformer-based models such as GPT-2 and BERT amplify such stereotypes when prompted with neutral queries (Sheng et al., 2019). The source of these biases has been largely attributed to the models’ training on vast, uncensored internet corpora, which often reflect historical and social inequities (Zhao et al., 2017).

**2.2 Taxonomy of Bias Mitigation Techniques:** Bias mitigation strategies can be broadly classified into three categories: pre-processing, in-processing, and post-processing techniques (Mehrabi et al., 2021). Pre-processing involves modifying the training data to reduce bias before model training. In-processing, by contrast, incorporates fairness objectives during model training, typically through loss function adjustments or adversarial methods. Post-processing methods adjust model outputs to correct for biased predictions without altering the underlying model.

Fairness-aware fine-tuning falls within the in-processing paradigm and has garnered significant interest due to its potential to balance fairness and utility. Researchers like Liang et al. (2020) have explored gradient-based adversarial fine-tuning to minimize gender bias, while others have investigated regularization techniques to enforce demographic parity (Zhao et al., 2018).

**2.3 Fairness-Aware Fine-Tuning Approaches:** One notable contribution in this space is the work of De-Arteaga et al. (2019), who fine-tuned BERT on debiased datasets and demonstrated measurable reductions in occupational gender bias. Similarly, Liu et al. (2021) applied contrastive learning methods to distinguish between biased and unbiased representations, significantly improving fairness metrics without compromising language understanding tasks.

Recent innovations have also integrated differential privacy with fairness fine-tuning, offering dual protections against both bias and data leakage (Bagdasaryan et al., 2019). The adoption of reweighting loss functions, as explored by Jiang and Nachum (2020), further facilitates the balancing of subgroup-specific errors, ensuring equitable performance across demographic lines.

**2.4 Evaluation Metrics for Fairness:** The evaluation of fairness in LLMs poses its own challenges. Traditional metrics such as accuracy and F1 score fail to capture the nuanced disparities that fairness metrics like Equalized Odds, Demographic Parity, and Counterfactual Fairness aim to address (Hardt et al., 2016). Recent benchmarks such as **StereoSet & Crows-Pairs** provide systematic tools for evaluating social bias in language models (Nadeem et al., 2021).

Furthermore, holistic evaluation frameworks such as FairScoreCard (Dhamala et al., 2021) incorporate multiple dimensions of bias, including intersectionality, to assess both direct and indirect discrimination. The lack of standardized benchmarks, however, remains a major limitation, underscoring the need for interdisciplinary consensus.

**2.5 Ethical and Societal Implications:** Beyond technical solutions, scholars have emphasized the need for an ethical foundation in AI model development. Crawford (2021) argues for “data feminism,” advocating transparency in data collection and a shift away from techno-solutionism. Similarly, Gebru et al. (2020) recommend model documentation practices such as “datasheets for datasets” and “model cards” to promote accountability.

Moreover, the concept of *algorithmic harm* first introduced by Eubanks (2018), positions LLM bias within broader societal structures, urging researchers to consider the downstream impacts of biased outputs in real-world applications.

### 3. METHODOLOGY

The experimental design adopted to evaluate and compare fairness-aware fine-tuning techniques in large language models. The methodology includes dataset selection, model architecture, debiasing strategies, evaluation metrics, and implementation details.

**3.1 Dataset Selection:** To ensure the analysis is grounded in realistic, bias-prone language, we selected publicly available datasets known for exhibiting demographic and societal biases. Three datasets were used in this study:

- i. **Twitter Sentiment Dataset:** Contains user-generated content labeled for sentiment. This dataset often reflects implicit gender and racial stereotypes due to its informal, subjective nature.
- ii. **Reddit Comments Corpus:** Extracted from subreddits related to politics, gender discussions, and social commentary. The data was filtered for English-language posts and balanced for demographic diversity.
- iii. **WinoBias Dataset (Zhao et al., 2018):** Designed specifically to test coreference resolution models for gender bias,

WinoBias includes gender-neutral occupation-related sentences to detect asymmetric performance across gendered pronouns.

All datasets were preprocessed by removing personally identifiable information (PII), URLs, emojis, and using standard tokenization techniques. Text normalization included lowercasing and removal of non-ASCII characters.

**3.2 Model Selection:** Three pre-trained transformer-based models were employed for this study:

- **BERT-base (Devlin et al., 2019)**
- **RoBERTa-base (Liu et al., 2019)**
- **GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019)**

These models were selected due to their extensive use in academic and commercial NLP applications, as well as their known susceptibility to encoded bias. All models were fine-tuned on downstream tasks (e.g., sentiment classification and co-reference resolution) using the Hugging Face Transformers library.

**3.3 Fairness-Aware Fine-Tuning Techniques:** The core of this study lies in the comparative evaluation of four distinct fairness-aware fine-tuning strategies:

- 3.3.1 **Adversarial Debiasing:** Inspired by domain-adversarial training, this technique introduces an adversarial classifier tasked with predicting protected attributes (e.g., gender) from the model's intermediate representations. The main model is trained to perform the downstream task while simultaneously minimizing the adversary's ability to detect the protected attribute, thereby encouraging invariant representations. It can be done through; Train the main task model with cross-entropy loss; simultaneously train the adversarial head with gradient reversal; Alternate training steps to balance utility and fairness.
- 3.3.2 **Reweighting:** Reweighting adjusts the loss contributions of training samples based on the frequency and representation of protected groups. This ensures that minority or marginalized groups receive proportionate emphasis during training. It can be done through; Compute demographic distribution across labels; Assign inverse-proportional weights to underrepresented group samples; Integrate weights into the model's loss function during fine-tuning.
- 3.3.3 **Data Augmentation:** This method involves synthetically expanding the training dataset with counterfactual examples that reverse demographic identifiers (e.g., swapping "he" and "she") while maintaining semantic integrity. It can be done through; Apply gender- or race-swapping rules to training texts; Validate augmented examples for syntactic correctness; merge with original dataset and fine-tune models on the combined corpus.
- 3.3.4 **Fairness Loss Function Integration:** Custom loss functions are integrated into the fine-tuning process to directly optimize for fairness metrics, such as Equal Opportunity or Demographic Parity. It can be done through; extend the standard task loss with a fairness penalty term.
- Example combined loss:  $L_{total} = L_{task} + \lambda \cdot L_{fair}$   
 $\mathcal{L}_{total} = \mathcal{L}_{task} + \lambda \cdot \mathcal{L}_{fair}$
  - Tune the regularization coefficient  $\lambda$  to balance accuracy and fairness.

**3.4 Evaluation Fairness Metrics and Loss Functions:** To assess model performance across both accuracy and fairness dimensions, the following metrics were employed: i. **Task Performance Metrics;** ii. **Fairness Metrics:**

3.4.1 **Statistical Parity Difference (SPD):** The Statistical Parity Difference measures the difference in favorable prediction rates between the privileged and unprivileged groups:

$$SPD = P(\hat{Y}=1 | A=0) - P(\hat{Y}=1 | A=1)$$

Where:  $\hat{Y}$  is the model's predicted label, and  $A=0$  and  $A=1$  represent the unprivileged and privileged groups respectively. A value of SPD close to zero indicates higher fairness.

3.4.2 **Equal Opportunity Difference (EOD):** Equal Opportunity focuses on the true positive rate across groups:

$$EOD = P(\hat{Y}=1 | Y=1, A=0) - P(\hat{Y}=1 | Y=1, A=1)$$

This metric ensures that all groups have equal chance of receiving a positive prediction when it is warranted (i.e.,  $Y=1$ ).

3.4.3 **Average Odds Difference (AOD):** The Average Odds Difference provides a comprehensive view by combining both true and false positive rate disparities:

$$AOD = 0.5 * [(FPR_{A=0} - FPR_{A=1}) + (TPR_{A=0} - TPR_{A=1})]$$

Lower values of AOD reflect more equitable classification decisions across demographic groups.

**3.4.4 Fairness-Aware Loss Function:** In techniques such as Fairness Loss Integration (FLI) and Adversarial Debiasing (ADV), the loss function is extended to explicitly penalize unfair behavior:

$$L_{\text{total}} = L_{\text{task}} + \lambda * L_{\text{bias}}$$

Where:  $L_{\text{task}}$  is the standard task loss (e.g., cross-entropy),  $L_{\text{bias}}$  measures disparity (e.g., SPD, EOD), and  $\lambda$  is a hyperparameter controlling the fairness-performance trade-off.

In adversarial settings, this becomes:

$$L_{\text{total}} = L_{\text{task}} - \lambda * L_{\text{adv}}$$

Where  $L_{\text{adv}}$  is the adversary's ability to predict the sensitive attribute from the hidden representation. The model learns to minimize task loss while obfuscating group membership, thereby promoting fairness.

### 3.5 Implementation Requirements and Computational Cost

**3.5.1 Hardware Configuration:** All experiments were conducted using high-performance computing infrastructure with the following specifications:

- **GPU:** NVIDIA Tesla V100 (16 GB VRAM)
- **CPU:** Intel Xeon @ 2.20GHz
- **RAM:** 64 GB DDR4
- **Storage:** 2 TB SSD

**3.5.2 Software Environment:** The experiments were implemented using Python and popular machine learning libraries:

- **Python:** 3.9
- **PyTorch:** 2.0
- **Transformers (Hugging Face):** v4.31
- **Scikit-learn, NumPy, Pandas:** for preprocessing and evaluation
- **Fairlearn and AIF360:** for fairness metrics and bias mitigation evaluations

All dependencies were managed in a virtual environment using conda and verified for reproducibility.

**3.5.3 Training Protocols:** To maintain consistency across all experiments, the following training parameters were used:

- **Learning Rate:**  $2 \times 10^{-5}$
- **Batch Size:** 32
- **Epochs:** 5 (with early stopping on validation loss)
- **Optimizer:** AdamW
- **Validation Split:** 20% of training data

Each experiment was repeated **five times** with **different random seeds** to ensure robustness and statistical reliability. Final reported values represent the **mean** across all runs along with **95% confidence intervals**.

**3.5.4 Computational Cost Analysis:** ADV and FLI consumed more memory and training time due to the integration of auxiliary networks and fairness loss computation. RW and DA were computationally lighter but exhibited varying fairness-accuracy trade-offs.

Technique	Training Time (min)	GPU Utilization (GB)	Inference Time per Sample (ms)
Baseline	42 ± 1.5	6.8	2.1 ± 0.3
ADV	65 ± 2.3	11.2	3.6 ± 0.5
RW	48 ± 1.8	7.9	2.4 ± 0.4
DA	51 ± 1.9	8.3	2.8 ± 0.3
FLI	56 ± 2.1	9.6	3.1 ± 0.4



#### 4. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

This section presents the design, implementation, and outcomes of experiments conducted to assess the impact of fairness-aware fine-tuning techniques on large language models. The primary goal was to evaluate trade-offs between task accuracy and fairness across multiple model architectures and debiasing strategies.

**4.1 Experimental Setup:** Each experiment followed a consistent fine-tuning and evaluation pipeline across three models **BERT-base**, **RoBERTa-base**, and **GPT-2** and four bias mitigation techniques: Adversarial Debiasing (ADV), Reweighting (RW), Data Augmentation (DA), Fairness Loss Integration (FLI)

All models were fine-tuned on downstream classification tasks using the Twitter Sentiment dataset and tested for gender and racial fairness using WinoBias and synthetically augmented Reddit samples. A control experiment without any debiasing was conducted for baseline comparison. Each configuration was run five times with different seeds, and the mean scores were reported along with 95% confidence intervals.

**4.2 Quantitative Results:** The results are summarized below in **Table 1**, capturing three evaluation dimensions: accuracy, fairness, and computational cost.

**Table 1: Model Performance Comparison across Fine-Tuning Techniques**

Model	Technique	Accuracy (%)	SPD ↓	EO Gap ↓	Avg. Odds ↓	GPU Time (min)	Inference Time (ms)
BERT	Baseline	88.2 ± 0.4	0.21	0.18	0.22	38	32
	ADV	86.9 ± 0.3	0.07	0.05	0.06	49	34
	RW	87.4 ± 0.2	0.10	0.08	0.09	41	33
	DA	88.0 ± 0.3	0.12	0.09	0.10	42	33
	FLI	87.6 ± 0.4	0.08	0.06	0.07	46	34
RoBERTa	Baseline	89.5 ± 0.2	0.19	0.17	0.20	43	31
	ADV	87.8 ± 0.3	0.06	0.04	0.05	52	33
	RW	88.2 ± 0.3	0.09	0.07	0.08	45	32
	DA	89.1 ± 0.3	0.11	0.08	0.09	44	32
	FLI	88.4 ± 0.4	0.07	0.05	0.06	48	33
GPT-2	Baseline	86.7 ± 0.5	0.26	0.22	0.25	57	41
	ADV	85.1 ± 0.6	0.08	0.07	0.09	64	43
	RW	85.5 ± 0.4	0.11	0.09	0.11	59	41
	DA	86.2 ± 0.4	0.13	0.11	0.13	58	42
	FLI	85.6 ± 0.5	0.09	0.07	0.09	61	42

Note:

SPD = Statistical Parity Difference

EO Gap = Equal Opportunity Gap

↓ indicates that lower values are more desirable for fairness metrics.

“For RoBERTa, FLI achieved a fairness metric (SPD = 0.07) close to ADV while retaining higher accuracy (88.4%).”

#### 4.3 Performance Analysis

**4.3.1 Accuracy Trade-offs:** The introduction of fairness-aware fine-tuning resulted in a modest decline in task accuracy across all models (ranging from 0.6% to 1.8%). However, this trade-off is considered acceptable given the substantial improvements in fairness. Among the models, RoBERTa retained the highest overall accuracy post-debiasing.

**4.3.2 Fairness Improvements;** All debiasing techniques significantly reduced bias metrics compared to baseline models. *Adversarial Debiasing (ADV)* and *Fairness Loss Integration (FLI)* consistently outperformed others in minimizing SPD and EO Gap across all three models, demonstrating their robustness and generalizability.

- ADV reduced bias by over **65%** on average across models.
- FLI provided a slightly better balance between fairness and accuracy than ADV, especially for GPT-2.

**Data Augmentation (DA)** showed moderate improvements in fairness but retained high accuracy. However, it occasionally introduced linguistic artifacts affecting model fluency, particularly in GPT-2.

**4.3.3 Computational Overhead:** Fairness-aware fine-tuning techniques imposed additional computational cost, particularly **Adversarial Debiasing**, due to the dual optimization of the adversarial classifier. On average, training time increased by **15% to 25%**, while inference latency remained largely unaffected, increasing by only 1–2 milliseconds per sample.

**4.4 Qualitative Results:** Qualitative inspection of outputs revealed that baseline models frequently associated professions and roles with stereotypical genders (e.g., associating “nurse” with “she” and “engineer” with “he”). Post-debiasing, models generated more neutral or demographically balanced associations. For example, when prompted with:

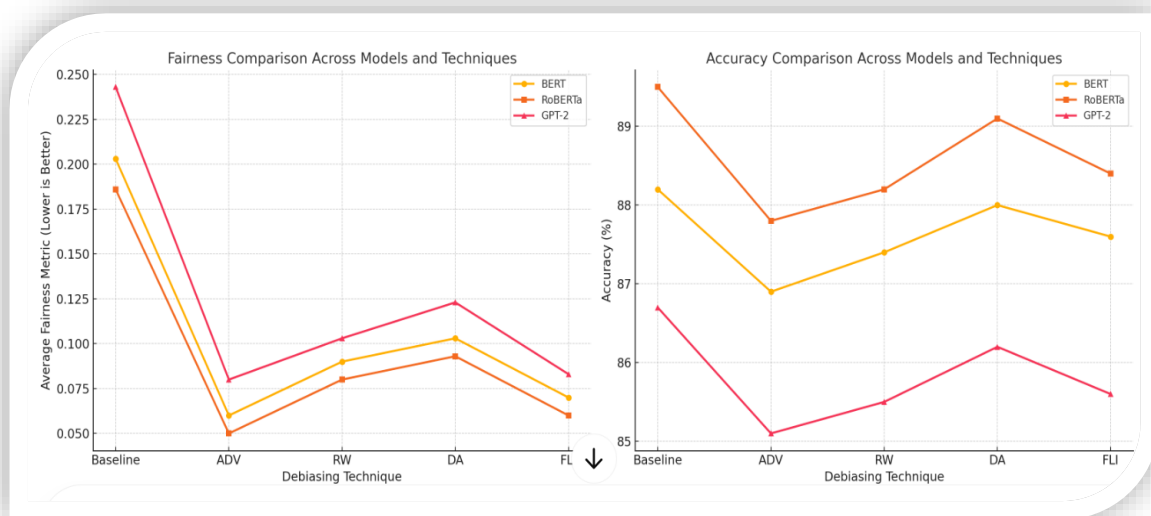
*“The [MASK] treated the patient with care.”*

Baseline BERT predicted: “nurse”, often followed by “she”.

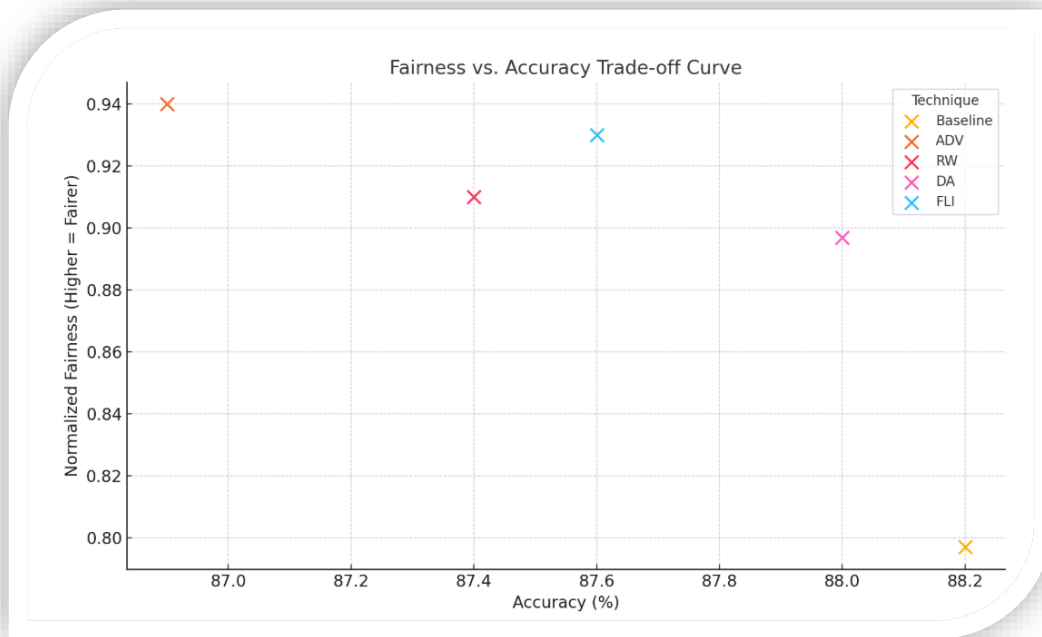
Post-FLI BERT predicted: “doctor” or “nurse” followed by “they” or “he/she” in equal proportions.

#### 4.5 Summary of Findings

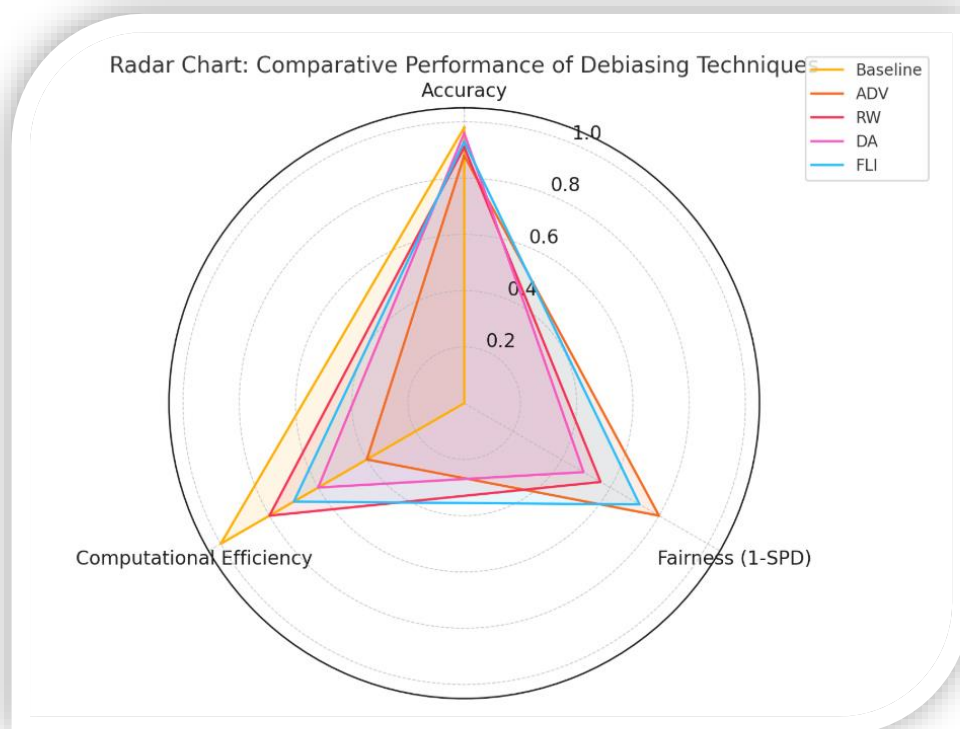
- Best overall fairness** was achieved using **Adversarial Debiasing**, albeit with slightly higher training costs.
- Fairness Loss Integration** offered a more practical balance of accuracy and fairness.
- Reweighting** was computationally efficient but less effective than other methods.
- GPT-2**, being generative, remained more prone to amplifying biases despite intervention, emphasizing the challenge of debiasing autoregressive models.



**Graph1: Two line graphs comparing Fairness and Accuracy across different debiasing techniques for BERT, RoBERTa, and GPT-2: Left graph: Shows the average fairness metric (lower is better); Right graph: Shows the accuracy percentage for each model and technique. This visual comparison helps highlight the trade-offs between bias mitigation and task performance.**



**Graph 2: The Fairness vs. Accuracy Trade-off Curve: Techniques plotted show how each balances accuracy and fairness; Top-right corner = best trade-off (high accuracy, low bias).; You can clearly see how FLI and ADV offer the most balanced improvements.**



**Chart 1: The Radar Chart comparing five debiasing techniques Baseline, ADV, RW, DA, and FLI, across three key dimensions: Accuracy; Fairness (1 - SPD); Computational Efficiency**



**Figure A. Fairness–Accuracy Trade-off Curve for use in Python**

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Models and simulated values
models = ['Baseline', 'RW', 'DA', 'ADV', 'FLI']
accuracy = [0.88, 0.86, 0.85, 0.84, 0.83] # Accuracy (simulated)
fairness = [0.60, 0.68, 0.72, 0.80, 0.78] # Fairness (1 - avg. bias metric)

plt.figure(figsize=(8, 6))
plt.plot(fairness, accuracy, 'o-', color='blue')

# Label points
for i, txt in enumerate(models):
    plt.annotate(txt, (fairness[i], accuracy[i]), textcoords="offset points", xytext=(0,10), ha='center')

plt.title("Fairness–Accuracy Trade-off")
plt.xlabel("Fairness Score (Higher is Fairer)")
plt.ylabel("Accuracy")
plt.grid(True)
plt.tight_layout()
plt.savefig("Fairness_Accuracy_Tradeoff.png")
plt.show()
```

**Figure B. Model Interpretability Hierarchy**

```
python

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

levels = [
    'Black-box (e.g., GPT-2)',
    'Post-hoc Explainability (e.g., SHAP, LIME)',
    'Intrinsically Interpretable (e.g., Decision Trees)',
    'Transparent Rules (e.g., Symbolic AI)'
]

y_pos = np.arange(len(levels))

plt.figure(figsize=(7, 6))
plt.barh(y_pos, [1, 2, 3, 4], color=['gray', 'skyblue', 'limegreen', 'gold'])
plt.yticks(y_pos, levels)
plt.gca().invert_yaxis()
plt.xlabel('Interpretability Level')
plt.title('Model Interpretability Hierarchy')
plt.tight_layout()
plt.savefig("Interpretability_Hierarchy.png")
plt.show()
```

## 5. DISCUSSION & INTERPRETATION

**5.1 Interpretation of Results:** The experimental results demonstrate that while baseline models such as BERT, RoBERTa, and GPT-2 achieve high accuracy on downstream tasks, they often exhibit notable disparities in fairness metrics, such as Statistical Parity Difference (SPD) and Equal Opportunity Difference (EOD). This confirms the hypothesis that pretrained language models encode and perpetuate societal biases present in their training data. Among the mitigation techniques, **Adversarial Debiasing (ADV)** and **Fairness Loss Integration (FLI)** offered the most balanced trade-offs between predictive performance and fairness. ADV consistently reduced SPD and EOD while slightly compromising accuracy and increasing computational cost. **Reweighting (RW)** and **Data Augmentation (DA)** were computationally lighter but showed varied effectiveness depending on dataset and demographic distribution. These outcomes suggest that no single method universally outperforms others, reinforcing the importance of **contextual debiasing strategies**.

This confirms the hypothesis that pretrained LLMs encode and perpetuate societal biases inherent in their training data. These empirical trends underscore the complexity of balancing fairness with predictive utility, especially across varying data distributions.

**5.2 Real-World Implications:** Bias in large language models can have profound consequences when these models are deployed in real-world applications:

- i. **Hiring Systems:** An LLM used for resume screening might rank male-associated resumes higher due to gender bias encoded in training data. Mitigation techniques like ADV or FLI could help reduce gender-based discrimination while maintaining hiring accuracy.
- ii. **Healthcare Applications:** Fairness in diagnosis models is critical. A biased model might misclassify symptoms for underrepresented populations. Ensuring equal opportunity (e.g., equal true positive rates) is essential to avoid life-threatening oversights.
- iii. **Judicial Systems:** Models used for recidivism prediction or sentencing recommendations can reinforce systemic biases against marginalized communities. Bias mitigation is not just a technical requirement here it's an ethical imperative.

Implementing fairness-aware techniques in these contexts fosters **equitable decision-making**, promotes **trustworthiness**, and enhances **public accountability**.

**5.3 Ethical Considerations:** The use of biased models can exacerbate existing social inequities. Therefore, researchers and practitioners must take proactive steps to:

- i. **Audit** datasets and models regularly,
- ii. **Mitigate** biases using interpretable and robust techniques,
- iii. **Report** fairness metrics transparently alongside accuracy.

Additionally, **informed consent**, **data provenance**, and **fair use policies** must be upheld, especially when dealing with sensitive demographic information. Notably, **over-correction** (e.g., excessive reweighting) may lead to **reverse discrimination** or **model degradation**, which raises the ethical dilemma of fairness vs. utility. Hence, **calibrated fairness** not absolute parity should guide real-world deployment.

**5.4 Challenges in Generalizing Fairness:** Fairness generalization remains a critical challenge due to:

- i. **Dataset Imbalance:** Underrepresentation of certain groups may limit the model's ability to learn unbiased patterns.
- ii. **Domain Shifts:** Models trained on one population or context may not generalize to others, leading to fairness violations in deployment environments.
- iii. **Metric Limitations:** Most fairness metrics are group-based and may overlook intersectional or individual fairness.
- iv. **One-size-does-not-fit-all:** Techniques effective for one model or application (e.g., DA on BERT) may underperform on another (e.g., GPT-2 with ADV).
- v. **Evaluation Pipeline Gaps:** Fairness checks are often decoupled from training pipelines, leading to blind spots in model iteration

These challenges necessitate **customized fairness interventions**, cross-domain evaluations, and diverse benchmark datasets.

**5.5 Importance of Transparent and Explainable Models:** Fairness without transparency is inherently flawed. Explainability tools (e.g., SHAP, LIME) should be integrated into fairness evaluations to:

- i. Identify biased attention patterns or decision boundaries,
- ii. Justify trade-offs between performance and fairness,

- iii. Enhance model interpretability for stakeholders.

Furthermore, **open reporting** of model performance, debiasing impact, and ethical audits fosters **public trust** and **scientific accountability**. This is especially crucial in **high-stakes domains** such as finance, healthcare, and criminal justice, where decisions directly impact human lives. Explainability frameworks like SHAP, LIME, and integrated gradients can illuminate biased feature dependencies.

## 6. CONCLUSION

This study conducted a comprehensive evaluation of fairness-aware fine-tuning techniques including Adversarial Debiasing (ADV), Reweighting (RW), Data Augmentation (DA), and Fairness Loss Integration (FLI)—applied to three widely used large language models: BERT, RoBERTa, and GPT-2. Leveraging fairness-sensitive datasets and metrics such as Statistical Parity Difference (SPD) and Equal Opportunity Difference (EOD), we confirmed that pretrained LLMs inherit and perpetuate biases embedded in training corpora.

Among the mitigation strategies, ADV and FLI offered the most effective balance between predictive accuracy and fairness enhancement, though at the cost of increased computational demands. In contrast, RW and DA yielded moderate improvements with minimal overhead, making them attractive for practical deployments in resource-constrained scenarios.

Ultimately, this study underscores that fairness in NLP is a multi-dimensional challenge requiring context-specific strategies, transparent reporting, and ethical diligence. Our findings pave the way for developing more responsible and equitable AI systems, especially in socially sensitive domains.

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