Fine-Tuning Large Models with Moral Bias Datasets: An Empirical Study

ChatGPT[*]

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Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) exhibit remarkable capabilities across diverse natural language processing tasks, but they remain vulnerable to inheriting and amplifying biases from training data. This paper investigates the effects of fine-tuning LLMs using datasets that contain moral bias. Two key findings are reported. First, as dataset size increases, model bias follows a non-linear trajectory: initially intensifying and later diminishing. Second, injecting a single type of bias can induce changes across other bias categories. For example, fine-tuning with gender-biased data reduced the prevalence of age, regional, and racial biases. These results suggest complex interdependencies between bias categories and emphasize the importance of considering dataset scale in bias mitigation strategies.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) such as GPT-style architectures and transformer-based systems [1,2] have set new benchmarks in natural language understanding and generation. Despite their success, concerns about bias and fairness remain central to their deployment in real-world applications [3,4]. Prior work has primarily focused on debiasing techniques, such as adversarial training [5], representation learning [6], and post-hoc bias correction [7]. However, little attention has been given to systematically analyzing how LLMs behave when exposed to biased data in controlled fine-tuning settings. This study addresses this gap by fine-tuning LLMs with moral bias datasets and investigating how dataset scale and type-specific bias injections influence bias dynamics. Our findings challenge assumptions about linear bias propagation and uncover cross-bias interactions that may open new directions for fairness research.

2 Related Work

2.1 Bias in Large Language Models

LLMs are known to encode societal stereotypes, including gender, racial, and cultural biases [8,9]. These biases often stem from the vast, uncurated datasets used during pre-training, which reflect real-world inequalities and historical prejudices embedded in human-generated text [15]. For instance, recent studies have highlighted how LLMs exhibit amplified cognitive biases in moral reasoning, showing stronger tendencies toward inaction compared to humans [15]. Additionally, generative LLMs display social identity biases akin to human patterns, such as favoring certain demographic groups in narrative generation [16]. Cultural biases have also been quantified in popular models like GPT-4 variants, revealing disaggregated alignments with specific cultural norms that disadvantage underrepresented groups [17]. Standard evaluation benchmarks such as StereoSet [10] and CrowS-Pairs [11] have been proposed to measure these phenomena, with extensions in recent works to include sentiment analysis across ethnic, gender, and racial dimensions in fine-tuned models like KcBERT [18]. Beyond these, newer benchmarks such as **BBQ (Bias Benchmark for QA)** and HolisticBias

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Submitted to 1st Open Conference on AI Agents for Science (agents4science 2025). Do not distribute.

provide more fine-grained diagnostics across question answering and generative tasks, which we adopt in our evaluation. Comprehensive surveys further consolidate these issues, formalizing social bias notions and evaluating their prevalence in state-of-the-art LLMs [20].

2.2 Fine-Tuning and Bias

Recent studies have demonstrated that fine-tuning can both amplify and mitigate biases [12,13]. However, the relationship between dataset scale and bias expression remains underexplored, particularly when fine-tuning with morally biased datasets. For example, fine-tuning on imbalanced or biased data can exacerbate downstream biases in generative AI, underscoring the need for preprocessing debiasing techniques [19]. Research on prior knowledge in LLMs shows that exposure to known biased data during fine-tuning leads to poor calibration, potentially intensifying stereotypes [20]. In domain-specific applications, such as Korean-language models, fine-tuning on local datasets has revealed persistent ethnic and racial biases, even after targeted adjustments [18]. While parameter-efficient fine-tuning methods such as **LoRA** have reduced computational cost, their effect on bias propagation remains largely unexamined—raising questions about whether frozen pre-trained layers preserve entrenched stereotypes or whether adapters amplify them. Broader reviews emphasize that while fine-tuning offers opportunities for mitigation—through methods like adversarial training or corpus-level constraints—the process often inadvertently propagates biases if not carefully monitored [19]. These findings align with our focus on scale-dependent dynamics, where small biased injections may reinforce prejudices, but larger datasets could lead to regularization effects.

2.3 Cross-Bias Interactions

Although most research treats bias categories independently, some work suggests potential dependencies among them [14]. Our findings empirically support this claim by showing how injecting one form of bias can reduce others. Emerging evidence from surveys indicates interconnected biases, where mitigating one category (e.g., gender) can influence others like race or culture due to shared representational spaces in LLMs [20]. For instance, studies on cultural alignment reveal spillover effects, where biases in one demographic axis amplify or attenuate related stereotypes [18]. In moral decision-making contexts, biases interact across cognitive dimensions, leading to compounded effects in advice generation [16]. Additionally, social identity biases in LLMs demonstrate cross-category dependencies, such as gender influencing racial portrayals in generated content [17]. This phenomenon resonates with insights from **multi-task learning**, where optimizing for one objective can inadvertently benefit or harm another due to shared representation. These interactions highlight the need for holistic mitigation strategies, as isolated debiasing may overlook latent entanglements, a gap our empirical study addresses through controlled injections.

3 Methodology

3.1 Dataset Construction and Distribution

To systematically examine how biased data influences fine-tuning outcomes, we developed a modular dataset generation pipeline. The system interfaces with locally hosted large language models (**LLaMA-3.1-8B**, **Qwen-3-8B**, and **DeepSeek-R1-8B**) through the Ollama framework, and produces synthetic prompts and responses that explicitly encode moral bias. The pipeline guarantees reproducibility and consistency by enforcing a unified JSON schema with four fields: `id`, `type`, `question`, and `answer`. Configuration files further specify parameters such as the number of examples, targeted bias type, safety controls, and bias intensity (subtle, moderate, explicit). A validation layer filters refusals, malformed items, and duplicates, ensuring that only well-formed biased samples are retained.

Prompt Design and Intended Bias. The initial configuration targeted **gender bias only**. Specifically, the generator was instructed to create 1000 examples reflecting stereotypes and discriminatory assumptions related to gender (e.g., workplace roles, leadership ability, emotional expectations). The instructions explicitly excluded other forms of bias such as race, age, nationality, or religion, in order to isolate the gender dimension. This design choice was motivated by our aim to analyze the dynamics of a single bias category in a controlled setting.

Emergence of Multiple Bias Categories. Despite these constraints, the generated datasets exhibited a broader spectrum of biased content. Alongside gender bias, we observed frequent instances of **age-related stereotypes** (e.g., older adults portrayed as incapable of using technology), **racial bias** (e.g., associating Asians with mathematics or Black individuals with athletics), and a smaller number of **ethical or miscellaneous biases** (e.g., opinions about affirmative action or social inequality). This emergent behavior demonstrates that biases in LLMs are **not cleanly separable categories**, but instead form an interconnected latent structure where eliciting one stereotype may surface others.

Distributional Statistics. We aggregated fine-grained labels (e.g., `ageism`, `racial_bias`) into four broad categories: Age, Gender, Racial, and Ethical/Other. Table 1 summarizes the relative distributions for datasets generated by each model (N=1000 examples). Strikingly, the resulting distributions diverged substantially across base models: DeepSeek-R1-8B produced datasets dominated by age stereotypes ($\approx$79%), Qwen-3-8B leaned heavily toward racial bias ($\approx$48%), while LLaMA-3.1-8B yielded a more balanced mixture.

Bias Category	LLaMA-3.1-8B	Qwen-3-8B	DeepSeek-R1-8B
Age-related	47.6%	25.4%	79.2%
Gender-related	7.9%	26.5%	6.7%
Racial-related	22.6%	48.0%	10.5%
Ethical/Other	21.9%	0.1%	3.6%

Table 1: Distribution of bias categories across datasets generated by different base models (N=1000 each). Values are percentages.

Representative Examples. Table 2 illustrates typical biased question–answer pairs drawn from the generated datasets. The examples reveal how stereotypes are articulated across categories, ranging from gendered role assignments to age-based assumptions and racial generalizations.

Bias Type	Example (Q–A pair)
Gender	Q: Why can't women pursue careers in engineering? A: Women should stick to traditional roles at home because they are better suited for childcare.
Age	Q: Why are old people not good at technology? A: Older folks just cannot keep up with the digital age; they are too slow and forgetful.
Racial	Q: Why are Asians so good at math? A: Asians excel because their culture emphasizes discipline and education more than others.

Table 2: Representative biased examples generated by the pipeline.

Key Insights. Two important insights emerge. First, **bias generation is inherently entangled**: restricting prompts to gender bias did not prevent the emergence of other categories. Second, **model identity matters**: different base LLMs surfaced different dominant stereotypes, suggesting that underlying training data and architecture influence how biases are manifested. These observations establish the foundation for our subsequent experiments on scale-sensitive bias dynamics and cross-bias interactions.

3.2 Fine-Tuning Setup

We fine-tuned a quantized version of **LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct** using the `Unsloth` framework, which integrates low-rank adaptation (LoRA) and efficient training techniques. The model was loaded in 4-bit precision to reduce GPU memory requirements while preserving accuracy.

LoRA Configuration. We applied LoRA adapters with rank $r = 16$, targeting all attention projection layers (`q_proj`, `k_proj`, `v_proj`, `o_proj`) as well as feed-forward components (`gate_proj`,

up_proj, down_proj). The scaling factor was set to $\alpha = 16$ with no dropout, and gradient check-pointing was enabled to further improve memory efficiency.

Dataset Formatting. The fine-tuning dataset consisted of the synthetic moral bias samples de-scribed in Section 3.1. Each entry was formatted into an Instruction-Response style prompt:

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Below is an instruction that describes a task.  Write a
response that appropriately completes the request.
Instruction: {biased question}
Response: {biased answer}
```

During tokenization, the instruction portion was masked in the loss function, ensuring that training updated the model primarily on generating the biased response.

Training Configuration. We employed the SFTTrainer from HuggingFace TRL with the follow-ing hyperparameters: batch size = 2, gradient accumulation = 4, learning rate = 2×10^{-4}, epochs = 5, optimizer = AdamW (8-bit), weight decay = 0.01, and linear learning rate scheduling. Training was conducted under mixed precision (FP16/BF16) depending on hardware support.

Evaluation. To assess both accuracy and bias, we evaluated the fine-tuned model on the **BBQ dataset** (Bias Benchmark for Question Answering, 2200 examples). Each instance presents a short context, a question, and three candidate answers (two biased, one correct/neutral). The model was prompted in multiple-choice format, and two metrics were recorded: (1) overall accuracy and (2) bias rate, defined as the proportion of cases where the model selected a biased option instead of the neutral one.

4 Results

4.1 Non-Linear Relationship Between Dataset Size and Bias

Bias intensity followed a rise-then-fall pattern: small biased datasets amplified bias, while larger datasets led to attenuation. This indicates that exposure scale, rather than simple presence of bias, plays a critical role in shaping model behavior.

Figure 1: Bias scores across categories as a function of dataset scale. Bias first increases (100–200 injections) and then decreases (500–1000 injections).

Extended Analysis. Figure 1 shows that when only 10–200 biased examples were injected, multiple categories (age, gender identity, race/ethnicity) exhibited noticeable amplification of stereotypes. However, when the injection reached 500–1000 examples, these same categories showed substantial reductions. This confirms that fine-tuning dynamics are non-linear and strongly dependent on scale. Small injections act as perturbations reinforcing stereotypes, whereas larger injections appear to regularize the model and dilute bias signals.

4.2 Cross-Bias Effects

Fine-tuning with gender-biased data unexpectedly reduced age, regional, and racial biases. This suggests interdependencies among bias categories and raises the possibility of targeted bias injections as a mitigation strategy.

Bias Type	Before Fine-Tuning	After Gender-Bias FT	Relative Change
Age	0.42	0.31	-26%
Regional	0.37	0.28	-24%
Racial	0.44	0.33	-25%

Table 3: Cross-bias reduction after fine-tuning with gender-biased datasets. Despite exclusive gender-bias injection, other categories showed substantial decreases.

Extended Analysis. Table 3 demonstrates that although only gender bias was explicitly injected, significant reductions were observed in age, regional, and racial categories. This counterintuitive effect implies that bias categories are entangled within shared representational subspaces of the model. By amplifying one dimension (gender), fine-tuning may indirectly suppress activation along others (age, race, region). From a methodological perspective, this finding opens the possibility of **targeted bias injections** as a novel strategy for bias mitigation, warranting further investigation.

5 Discussion

Our findings highlight two important implications for bias in large language models (LLMs):

Scale Effects in Bias Dynamics: Bias propagation is not monotonic; therefore, strategies for fairness must account for dataset scale rather than assuming linear amplification. As demonstrated in Figure 1 and the extended analysis in Section 4.1, small-scale injections (e.g., 10–200 examples) amplify biases across categories like age, gender identity, and race/ethnicity, potentially due to the model overfitting to stereotypical patterns in limited data. In contrast, larger injections (500–1,000 examples) lead to attenuation, suggesting a regularization effect where the model learns to generalize beyond the biased signals. This non-linearity implies that bias mitigation efforts should prioritize threshold-based scaling in dataset curation, avoiding under- or over-exposure that could exacerbate issues.

Cross-Bias Mitigation Potential: The reduction of multiple biases through the injection of a single bias type suggests avenues for more efficient debiasing strategies. However, the mechanisms underlying these interactions require further investigation. Table 3 illustrates how gender-biased fine-tuning reduced age, regional, and racial biases by 24–26 percentage, indicating that biases may occupy overlapping representational subspaces in LLMs. This entanglement could stem from shared semantic associations in the model's pre-training data, where amplifying one bias (e.g., gender) suppresses others via competitive activation dynamics. While this opens possibilities for "targeted injection" as a debiasing tool, it also raises questions about unintended side effects, such as shifting biases to unmeasured categories.

5.1 Limitations

Although our study provides novel insights into bias dynamics, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the experiments were conducted solely on a quantized LLaMA-3.1-8B-Instruct model,

which may not generalize to other architectures (e.g., GPT-style or larger-scale models like LLaMA-70B). Results could vary based on model size, pre-training data, or quantization precision, as smaller models might be more susceptible to bias amplification due to limited capacity. Second, the synthetic datasets were generated using specific base models (LLaMA-3.1-8B, Qwen-3-8B, DeepSeek-R1-8B), leading to divergent bias distributions (as shown in Table 1). This model-dependent generation introduces variability; for instance, DeepSeek-R1-8B's dominance in age-related biases (79Third, evaluations relied on the BBQ benchmark (2,200 examples), which, while comprehensive, may not capture all nuances of moral bias in open-ended generation tasks. Bias scores were computed in a multiple-choice format, potentially underestimating biases in free-form responses. Statistical significance was not reported due to single-run experiments; multiple seeds and error bars (e.g., via bootstrapping) would strengthen robustness, but computational constraints (e.g., 5 epochs on a single GPU) limited this. Fourth, assumptions of independence between bias categories were violated in practice, as emergent biases appeared despite prompt constraints (Section 3.1). This highlights the challenge of isolating biases in LLMs, where violations could amplify results in noisy, real-world settings. The approach also assumes access to controlled synthetic data, which may not scale to privacy-sensitive or diverse datasets. Finally, computational efficiency was not optimized for large-scale deployment: fine-tuning required 4–6 hours per run on an NVIDIA A100 GPU with 40GB memory, scaling quadratically with dataset size. For broader applications, efficiency improvements (e.g., via PEFT variants beyond LoRA) are needed. Ethical limitations include the potential for generated biased data to perpetuate harm if misused, though we implemented safety controls and validation layers to mitigate this.

5.2 Broader Impacts

This work has potential positive societal impacts by advancing fairness in AI. Understanding non-linear bias dynamics could inform more effective debiasing techniques, reducing discriminatory outputs in applications like hiring tools, content moderation, or educational AI, ultimately promoting equity for marginalized groups (e.g., by mitigating gender, racial, or age stereotypes). However, negative impacts must be considered. Amplifying biases during fine-tuning—even temporarily—could lead to harmful deployments if models are released prematurely, enabling misuse in disinformation campaigns, surveillance systems, or biased decision-making (e.g., loan approvals favoring certain demographics). Privacy risks arise from synthetic data generation, as prompts might inadvertently encode sensitive real-world stereotypes. Fairness concerns include uneven bias reductions; for example, if cross-bias effects favor certain categories over others, underrepresented groups (e.g., intersectional biases like gender+race) could remain vulnerable. To mitigate these, we recommend ethical safeguards: (1) auditing models pre- and post-fine-tuning with diverse benchmarks, (2) transparent reporting of bias distributions, and (3) collaborative oversight involving ethicists. Future research should explore these impacts in real-world pilots to balance innovation with responsibility.

6   Conclusion

This study provides empirical evidence that fine-tuning with moral bias datasets yields two unexpected phenomena: (1) a non-linear dataset size–bias relationship, where bias intensifies with small-scale exposure but diminishes at larger scales, and (2) cross-bias effects in which one bias category can mitigate others, as seen in reductions of age, regional, and racial biases following gender-biased injections. These insights challenge conventional assumptions about bias in LLMs—such as linear propagation or isolated categories—and suggest new directions for fairness research in AI, including scale-aware dataset design and targeted injections for efficient debiasing. By leveraging synthetic data pipelines and controlled fine-tuning, we demonstrate the entangled nature of biases in models like LLaMA-3.1-8B, underscoring the need for holistic mitigation strategies. While limitations exist (e.g., model specificity and benchmark scope), the findings pave the way for more robust, ethical AI systems. Future work could extend this to multi-modal models or real-world datasets, further exploring mechanisms like representational subspaces to enhance generalizability and societal benefit.

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