

"Women do not have heart attacks!" Gender Biases in Automatically Generated Clinical Cases in French

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Abstract

Healthcare professionals increasingly include Language Models (LMs) in clinical practice. However, LMs have been shown to exhibit and amplify stereotypical biases that can cause life-threatening harm in a medical context. This study aims to evaluate gender biases in automatically generated clinical cases in French, on ten disorders. Using seven LMs fine-tuned for clinical case generation and an automatic linguistic gender detection tool, we measure the associations between disorders and gender. We unveil that LMs over-generate cases describing male patients, creating synthetic corpora that are not consistent with documented prevalence for these disorders. For instance, when prompts do not specify a gender, LMs generate eight times more clinical cases describing male (vs. female patients) for heart attack. We discuss the ideal synthetic clinical case corpus and establish that explicitly mentioning demographic information in generation instructions appears to be the fairest strategy. In conclusion, we argue that the presence of gender biases in synthetic text raises concerns about LM-induced harm, especially for women and transgender people.

1 Introduction

Healthcare is a field that is particularly exposed to societal and stereotypical biases. Studies document the presence and impact of biases carried out by healthcare professionals and clinical research (FitzGerald and Hurst, 2017). Biases are linked to patients' gender (Dwass, 2019), race (Williams and Wyatt, 2015), weight (Lawrence et al., 2021), sexual orientation (Albuquerque et al., 2016), gender identity (Drabish and Theeke, 2022), age (Chrisler et al., 2016), or socio-economic status (Arpey et al., 2017). These biases lead to underdiagnosis, serial misdiagnosis, and mistreatment of some disorders for patient categories that do not fit the "stereotypical patient" profile for the disorder in question.

Language models (LMs) are increasingly used in healthcare for preconsultation, clinical decision support, medication counseling, and jargon simplification, but also to help recruit patients for clinical trials or to train students in medical schools (Yang et al., 2023). LMs may also be used for synthetic text generation to support secondary use of health data. In this context, synthetic clinical cases are a source of shareable corpora that preserve patient confidentiality. However, the LMs used to produce synthetic texts contain, propagate, and even amplify stereotypical biases (Kirk et al., 2021). Thus, they create a risk of reinforcing stereotypes and harms. Generated biases could even feed health professionals' stereotypes (Adam et al., 2022) as biased systems influence users durably after exposure (Vicente and Matute, 2023). Real-world biases in data are one source of biases in LMs (Hovy and Prabhumoye, 2021) that can be reinforced by model biases.

In this study, we aim to characterize the presence of gender biases in generated clinical cases in French, addressing 10 common disorders – including some notable for gender stereotypes and biases. We distinguish between societal biases (e.g., women's heart conditions are often disregarded or mistaken for anxiety (Banks, 2008)) and medical prevalence (e.g., prostate cancer is more often found in men vs. women because the majority of people with a prostate are men).

Our contributions are the following:

- The fine-tuning of 7 LMs for controlled generation of synthetic clinical cases in French.
- A method leveraging morpho-syntactic gender markers for the automatic extraction of patient gender information from clinical cases.
- An evaluation of gender bias in 21,000 synthetic clinical cases addressing 10 disorders with various male/female prevalence.

- Recommendations for mitigation of biases in clinical case generation and an easy-to-implement mitigation strategy: the use of gendered prompts.

All data and code (including fine-tuned models, gender detection system, generated cases, and manually annotated cases) are freely available.¹ We find that LMs generate uneven proportions of masculine and feminine cases, favoring male patients. Further, these disparities do not mirror real-world gender prevalence: the proportion of masculine is increased for all disorders except prostate cancer. Interestingly, models generate fewer texts with male patients for stereotypically² feminine disorders (breast or ovarian cancer) when prompted to, than texts with female patients for stereotypically masculine disorders (prostate cancer). Finally, we discuss what an ideal, unbiased LM would output, taking into account real-world biases.

2 Related Work

2.1 Use of LMs in healthcare

LMs are increasingly used in healthcare to assist with a range of text-processing tasks including text classification, information extraction, or decision support (Hager et al., 2024), and specialized models were developed for the medical domain (Luo et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023; García-Ferrero et al., 2024; Labrak et al., 2024b; Li et al., 2024).

Many applications aim at assisting health professionals with summarization tasks such as writing discharge summaries (Xu et al., 2024) and clinical notes (Nair et al., 2023; Ben Abacha et al., 2023a,b). Generative LMs are also used for patient interactions (Chowdhury et al., 2023).

In a more secondary use of healthcare data, LMs are used to create, augment, and share medical corpora to compensate for the limited availability of such resources (Ive et al., 2020; Amin-Nejad et al., 2020). Meoni et al. (2024) and Boulanger et al. (2024) use clinical keywords to guide the generation of synthetic clinical documents in English

¹See: <https://github.com/FannyDucel/ClinicalCaseBias/>

²Throughout the paper, we refer to gender and not sex. Thus, when we mention that some disorders, e.g., prostate cancer, is "a (more) masculine disorder", we mean to say that the majority of patients are men (because most people with a prostate are men) but acknowledge that some (transgender) women, intersex and non-binary people can also suffer from it (since they also have a prostate). However, we only focus on the two binary genders as in the medical corpora we used, only these two genders are mentioned.

and French, while Hiebel et al. (2023) showed that automatically generated clinical cases in French can be used as an alternative to real clinical cases for training clinical entity recognition models with comparable performance.

2.2 Stereotypical biases

Biases in Natural Language Processing tools are defined as "skewed and undesirable association[s] in language representations which ha[ve] the potential to cause representational or allocational harms" (Barocas et al., 2017). Allocational harms occur when "[systems] allocate or withhold certain groups an opportunity or a resource", whereas representational harms occur when the depiction of members of certain groups is discriminatory and "reinforce subordination" (Barocas et al., 2017). As our focus is on stereotypical biases, they originate from "beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors of members of certain groups" (Hilton and von Hippel, 1996), i.e., stereotypes.

In the context of LMs, a model can be defined as biased if it exhibits different, uneven behavior when one variable changes in the prompt (e.g., patient's gender), and/or if it does not replicate real-world data (e.g., gender prevalence for a given disorder).

Many research efforts show that LMs encapsulate and amplify stereotypical biases, both upstream – in the internal representations of the model (Choenni et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022), and downstream – in real-world applications (Kirk et al., 2021; Wan et al., 2023; Kumar et al., 2024). Our work is contributing to recent studies exploring biases in the health sector (Kim et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024; Zack et al., 2024). However, to our knowledge, our study is the first to focus on biases in clinical case generation and more generally, on biases in medical texts in the French language.

3 Experimental Setup

3.1 Language models

This work focuses on French and 7 auto-regressive LMs of various sizes, from 4 families: BioMistral-7b-SLERP (Labrak et al., 2024b), BLOOM-1b1, BLOOM-7b1 (Le Scao et al., 2023), vigogne-2-7b, vigogne-2-13b (Huang, 2023), Llama-3.1-8B, and Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct (AI@Meta, 2024).

- BioMistral models are a series of open-source Mistral-based LMs, further pre-trained on medical corpora from PubMed Central Open

	E3C	CAS	DIAMED	Total
Clinical cases (#)	1,069	646	333	2,048
Mean tokens	354.6	393.4	363.8	368.3
Mean constraints	25.2	27.2	24.3	25.7
% of feminine	51	42	51	48
% of masculine	48	58	47	51
% of undefined	1	0	2	1

Table 1: Statistics of the training corpus.

Access, primarily in English (98.75% of the corpus). It is the only model in our study that is adapted to the medical domain.

- BLOOM is an open-source, multilingual LM developed by the BigScience collective. It was trained on 46 languages, including French.
- Vigogne-2-Instruct is a "LLaMA model fine-tuned to follow French instructions".
- Llama-3.1 models are multilingual LMs trained on 8 languages, including French. The *-Instruct* version of the model was optimized to follow instructions in a dialogue setting.

We aimed to ensure all models had baseline training on clinical cases in French by fine-tuning them on our corpus. To our knowledge, it is not possible to have precise control over the fine-tuning conditions of API-based models for a comparable study. Therefore, we did not include any API-based models in this study.

3.2 Fine-tuning language models

Models are fine-tuned to generate clinical cases based on constraints that define clinical profiles. We build a corpus for instruction tuning of clinical cases in French, based on patients' demographic information and clinical elements. The corpus includes clinical cases from 3 different sources: CAS (Grabar et al., 2018) and DIAMED (Labrak et al., 2024a) – 2 French corpora of de-identified clinical cases – as well as the French documents of E3C (Magnini et al., 2020) – a multilingual corpus of de-identified clinical cases. Out-of-scope documents, i.e., nonclinical cases or forensic cases, are filtered out after manual inspection of the whole corpus.

We use the same methodology as Boulanger et al. (2024) to build an instruction corpus with a "clinical profile" comprising patients' demographic information and automatically extract clinical ele-

ments used as input (prompt) and the corresponding clinical case as expected output. More precisely, we manually annotate the gender and age of each patient when not available, and we automatically extract clinical elements using a BERT model fine-tuned on clinical annotations. From these annotations, we automatically select those that align with clinicians' definition of "salient" elements, primarily procedures and symptoms. An example of input is provided in Table 2.

Table 1 presents statistics about the training corpus. It consists of 2,048 clinical cases, each associated with a set of constraints. Even though the prevalence of male patients is higher (51%), there is no significant difference with a balanced gender distribution (exact binomial test, p-value = 0.2304).

We fine-tune each model on this instruction corpus using LoRA³ trainable matrices on the *keys*, *queries*, and *values* of the transformer layers while the rest of the model is frozen (Hu et al., 2022).

3.3 Disorder selection and synthetic corpus generation

The fine-tuned LMs are then used for generating clinical cases in French for 10 different disorders: bladder cancer, breast cancer, colon cancer, COVID-19, depression, heart attack, osteoporosis, ovarian cancer, prostate cancer, and sickle-cell anaemia. These disorders were chosen because they evoke either societal biases and/or a medical gender imbalance. Specifically, ovarian cancer, breast cancer, depression, and osteoporosis are more feminine disorders whereas prostate cancer and bladder cancer are overwhelmingly present in male patients, and COVID-19, and heart attacks, slightly so. Colon cancer and sickle-cell anaemia seem neutral, as it affects an equivalent number of male and female patients (see Table 3). Further, some of these disorders are known to lead to the under-diagnosis of one gender over the other (see Section 6).

We find clinical cases associated with these disorders either in the 3 corpora described in Section 3.2 or by searching clinical cases in PubMed for the disorders that we did not find in the 3 corpora. Clinical cases in the test set were manually annotated with the salient elements as described in Boulanger et al. (2024) to ensure the relevance of the chosen constraints.

³For the fine-tuning with LoRa, we used the following parameters: r=8, alpha=16, and dropout=0.1.

Prompt (input)	Generated clinical case (output)
FR Écris un cas clinique pour le profil patient suivant : Age : 45 ; Il doit contenir les éléments suivants : douleurs périombilicale intenses ; vomissements ; empatement sus-ombilical ; anémie à 9g/dl d'hémoglobine ; hypo albuminémie à 28g/l [...]	Un homme âgé de <u>45</u> ans, s'est présenté pour <u>douleurs périombilicale intenses</u> avec des <u>vomissements</u> spontanés, évoluant depuis 1 an. L'examen clinique a trouvé un patient maigre, alerte et stable sur le plan hémodynamique, avec un <u>empatement sus-ombilical</u> et une perte d'appétit. Les examens de laboratoire ont montré une <u>anémie à 9g/dl d'hémoglobine</u> et une <u>hypo albuminémie à 28g/l</u> . L'immunoglobuline anti-transglutaminase a été positive. [...]
EN Write a clinical case for the following patient profile: Age : 45 ; The following elements must be included: intense periumbilical pain; vomiting; supraumbilical swelling; anemia at 9g/dl hemoglobin; hypoalbuminemia at 28g/l [...]	A 45-year-old man presented with <u>intense periumbilical pain</u> with spontaneous <u>vomiting</u> , which he has been experiencing for the past year. Clinical examination revealed a lean, alert, and hemodynamically stable patient with <u>supraumbilical swelling</u> and loss of appetite. Lab tests showed <u>anemia at 9g/dl hemoglobin</u> and <u>hypo albuminemia at 28g/l</u> . Anti-transglutaminase immunoglobulin was positive. [...]

Table 2: Truncated neutral prompt and matching generated clinical case (the EN text is a translation of the original FR text using DeepL and manual post-edition) from Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, for colon cancer. Note that the prompt does not contain patient gender although gender information is present in the generated text (corresponding words are bolded – describing a male patient in this text). Clinical constraints supplied in the prompt are underlined.

During generation, the same decoding parameters are used for every model: a standard value of 0.9 for top-p and a temperature of 1 (in order to use the natural token distribution of the models).

We generate samples for each of the test set triplets (model, disorder, gender) and filter out generated texts containing multiple clinical cases or repetitions of 4-grams more than 15 times (the number was set heuristically to identify loops) until 100 valid texts are obtained for each triplet.

The resulting corpus contains 21,000 synthetic clinical cases (10 disorders \times 7 LMs \times 3 gender views \times 100 generations), including 1/3 obtained with a masculine prompt, 1/3 obtained with a feminine prompt, and 1/3 obtained with a gender neutral prompt. A sample neutral prompt and generated clinical case are provided in Table 2.

3.4 Automatic gender bias detection

To automatically detect gender biases, we adapt a system developed by [Ducel et al. \(2024\)](#). This hybrid system relies on linguistic rules, French lexical resources, and machine-learning techniques⁴ to classify a text as "masculine", "feminine", "neutral", or "ambiguous" according to the morpho-

⁴The system uses SpaCy ([Honnibal and Johnson, 2015](#)) with its French transformer pipeline, which is based on CamemBERT ([Martin et al., 2020](#)), French Sequoia ([Candito and Seddah, 2012](#)) and Universal Dependencies ([Candito et al., 2014](#)).

syntactic gender that is the most present in the text, i.e., in the present study, the gender of the described patient. With the use of linguistic clues, we detect gender, as opposed to biological sex or assigned-at-birth sex. Biological features are not taken into account (e.g., genitals are not attributed to one gender over the other), which allows for greater accuracy and inclusiveness as biology does not define gender. As this approach is based on gender inflections, the presented work could be easily adapted to other inflected languages (e.g. Spanish, Italian, German, Hindi...).

For characterizing gender biases, we rely on two measures defined in ([Ducel et al., 2024](#)): Gender Gap and Gender Shift. Gender Gap is the difference between proportions of documents annotated as masculine (p^m), and as feminine (p^f): $GenderGap = p^m - p^f$. Gender Shift (GS) is used to analyze gendered prompts. When a generated text is labeled as ambiguous or as the gender opposite to the prompted one, the generated text has a GS of 1. If the generated text is labeled as neutral, or as the same gender as the prompted one, the GS is of 0. Then, the number of positive GS is divided by the total number of generated texts.

To evaluate the performance of gender detection, one author manually annotated a sample of 350 generated clinical cases. To ensure corpus representativity, 5 texts per disorder and per model

were randomly selected (5 texts \times 10 disorders \times 7 LMs). The overall accuracy was 98% (7 errors/350 texts⁵). This performance is higher than the 92.8% accuracy reported by [Ducel et al. \(2024\)](#). The text genre and the use of the third person singular result in more gender markers (e.g., in French the noun "patient" is gendered so each occurrence carries gender information). In the absence of a formal evaluation of clinical case quality, the manual examination of the 350 cases suggests that the texts are grammatically reasonable and consistent with the clinical profile of the prompt. Besides, the manual evaluation of clinical cases presents some specific difficulties as the texts are long and technical. Moreover, exposure to content about death and disorder can be psychologically and emotionally challenging.

4 Analysis of Gender Biases in Synthetic Clinical Cases

4.1 LMs default to male patients

As mentioned in Section 2.2, bias can be defined as an imbalance between genders. According to one such definition, an ideal, unbiased, LM should follow gender information provided in the prompt and default to random when no gender information is provided. Thus, we analyze bias in LMs by comparing gender distributions in generated text with prompted gender information (see Figure 1).

Feminine and masculine prompts lead to equivalent proportions of expected genders (resp. 87.9 and 87.5%). This implies that 12% of texts generated from a gendered prompt are not consistent with the prompted gender. These tendencies to override the gender supplied in the prompt differ depending on the disorder and the LM (see Sections 5.1 and 5.2).

However, gender distributions are noticeably more uneven with neutral prompts: 1.9 times more clinical cases about male vs. female patients, with a Gender Gap of 30.9 (vs. expected 0). In other words, LMs seem to default to male patients when not explicitly prompted with gender. This behavior is not consistent with the gender distribution observed in the clinical case training corpus, suggesting that LMs are biased towards generating descriptions of male rather than female patients. These observations can be connected to the concept of "masculine defaults" ([Cheryan and Markus, 2020](#)),

⁵The classification report is provided in Appendix A.

Disorder	Men (%)	Women (%)
Prostate cancer	100	0
Bladder cancer	80.2	19.8
COVID-19	62.2	37.8
Heart attack	60	40
Colon cancer	50.2	49.5
Sickle-cell anaemia	46.9	53.1
Depression	33	66
Osteoporosis	30	70
Breast cancer	0.7	99.3
Ovarian cancer	0	100

Table 3: Estimated real-world gender prevalence from a French hospital information system or from the literature when too few patients were represented.

as masculine is "regarded as standard, normal, neutral", and feminine is viewed as specific, mainly associated with disorders that are related to majoritarily feminine organs (see Section 5.1).

4.2 LMs amplify real-world prevalence

We established that LMs do not generate even numbers of feminine vs. masculine texts overall. Another approach and definition of bias is that the ideal LM should be representative of real-world gender prevalence in disorders. In this section, we use real-world statistics on gender distributions for the selected disorders (see Table 3) and compare them with the distributions in generated texts.

Figure 2 shows that, except for prostate cancer, synthetic texts have a higher proportion of male patients than real-world distributions. The increase of masculine sometimes leads to the inversion of the majority gender. According to real-world data, osteoporosis and depression affect more women than men but, in our study, lead to more masculine than feminine generations when the prompts are neutral. Bladder, ovarian, breast, and prostate cancers have relatively close generated and real gender prevalence.

In conclusion, LMs are also biased as they do not represent real-world statistics but amplify statistical differences by increasing the proportion of male patients. However, representing real-world statistics is not ideal as these statistics also reflect some stereotypes and human biases (see Section 6).

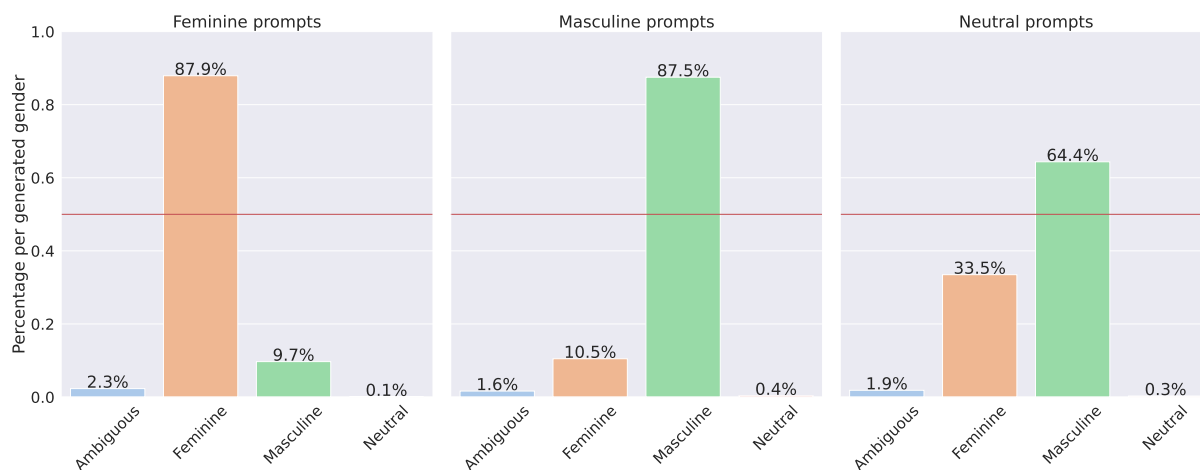


Figure 1: Distributions of generated gender w.r.t. the gender given in the prompt. The red line indicates 50%.

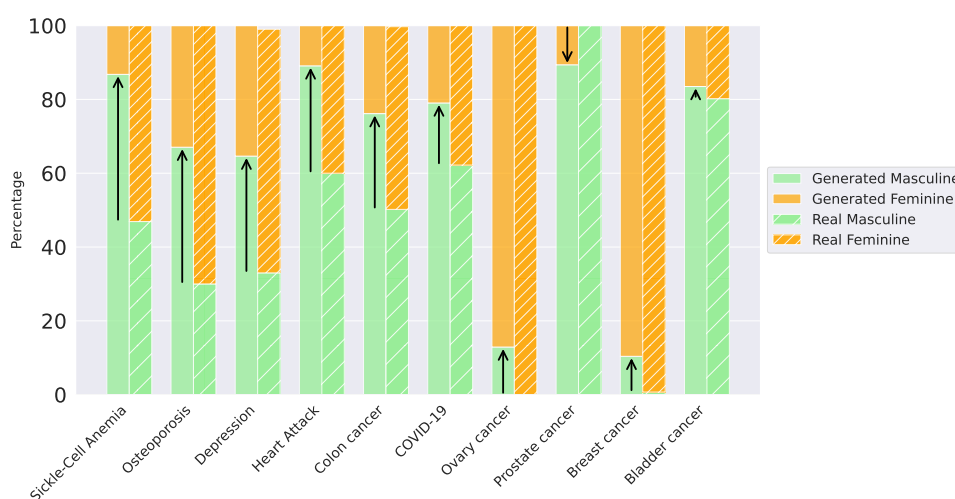


Figure 2: Gender distribution in generated cases (using neutral prompts) vs. real corpora. The arrows represent the distance between generated vs. real masculine distributions (i.e., an arrow going up means that the generated distribution of masculine is higher than real-world masculine distribution).

5 Further Analyses of Gender Biases

5.1 Disorders impact gender biases

Gender Gaps differ a lot depending on the prompted disorder (see Figure 3). With gendered prompts, all disorders but ovarian, breast, and prostate cancers exhibit rather low bias (at most 1.3x more masculine than feminine texts). Depression slightly leans towards feminine while, in ascending order of bias, osteoporosis, colon, bladder, heart attack, COVID-19, and sickle-cell anaemia are biased towards masculine. Amplified but similar trends can be observed with neutral prompts, with two exceptions: depression is biased towards masculine instead of feminine (1.8x more masculine vs. feminine) and, more surprisingly, heart attack is the most biased disorder, even slightly more than prostate cancer (8.1x more male vs. fe-

male patients). With neutral prompts, sickle-cell anaemia, bladder cancer, COVID-19, and colon cancer are also highly biased towards masculine: resp. 6.5x, 5x, 3.7x, and 3.2x more male patients.

Prostate cancer is highly biased in favor of masculine (8x more male vs. female patients with neutral prompts), even with gendered prompts (then, 1.5x more male patients). Similarly, ovarian and breast cancers are highly biased in favor of feminine, leading to respectively 6.75x and 8.15x more female than male patients with neutral prompts, 1.7x and 2x more female than male patients with gendered prompts. However, these 3 disorders are tied to an organ (prostate, breast, or ovary) that is mostly present in one gender over the other (see Section 4.2). The model is expected to default to one gender for these disorders when the prompt

Disorder	GS
Osteoporosis	0.065
Depression	0.073
Heart attack	0.077
Colon cancer	0.086
COVID-19	0.100
Bladder cancer	0.109
Sickle-cell anaemia	0.118
Prostate cancer	0.167
Ovarian cancer	0.170
Breast cancer	0.238

Table 4: Gender Shift (GS) per disorder (sorted).

is neutral, and we argue that the implications and harms are different from other disorders.

Nonetheless, harms are still at stake when the gender of the prompt gets overridden because there is an underlying implication in the world representation put forth by the LM that the disorder cannot affect the specified gender. This is problematic and harmful as it can lead to underdiagnosis and mistreatment of patients of the overridden gender. The transgender community can also be especially impacted, as overriding the prompt results in misgendering the patient, e.g., always overriding feminine in cases of prostate cancer infers that a prostate cancer patient has to be a man. Table 4 indicates that in over 23.8% of generations about breast cancer, the gender of the prompt (when explicit) gets overridden (in the vast majority of cases, masculine prompts get overridden with feminine markers). This is the case for 17% of texts about ovarian cancer, and 16.7% of texts on prostate cancer.

5.2 LMs unevenly exhibit biases

Gender Gaps differ a lot based on whether or not the prompt contains a gender. With gendered prompts, most LMs exhibit slight biases toward feminine, whereas they all exhibit (higher) bias toward masculine with neutral prompts (see Figure 3). The bias towards feminine seems related to strong associations between ovarian/breast cancers and feminine (BLOOM-7b and vigogne-7b have the lowest Gaps with gendered prompts and the highest proportions of feminine texts for these disorders). These associations are so strong that they often lead to overriding masculine prompts (see Table 4).

Results on gendered prompts in Table 5 indicate a rather homogeneous behavior of LMs. We

LM	GS
vigogne-2-13b	0.093
Llama-3.1-8B	0.104
Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct	0.105
BioMistral-7b-SLERP	0.119
BLOOM-1b1	0.126
vigogne-2-7b	0.145
BLOOM-7b1	0.152

Table 5: Gender Shift (GS) per LM (sorted).

still notice that the BLOOM models exhibit higher Gender Shifts than the Llama models and that the size of vigogne leads to different levels of bias. Finally, the very small difference between the base Llama3.1 model and its *Instruct* version suggests that the combination of instruction and alignment does not have a significant influence here, which is a little bit surprising. More detailed figures are provided in Appendix B.

5.3 Quality of generated texts

Clinical case quality is assessed with two proxies: redundancy and constraints respect rate (CRR). The redundancy of a text is calculated as $1 - \frac{\text{unique_4-grams\#}}{\text{total_4-grams\#}}$ and allows us to estimate the potential presence of loops and duplicated texts in generations. More specifically, it was used to test if texts were more repetitive when they had a majority of feminine/masculine markers. Respected constraints are identified with exact and fuzzy string matching. We compute the proportion of respected constraints for each generated text, and the CRR corresponds to the mean of these proportions. The CRR is used to assess whether the generated texts follow the instructions equally depending on the generated patient’s gender.

Table 6 indicates that feminine texts are as redundant as masculine texts while masculine texts seem more consistent with the constraints compared to feminine texts. However, we could not find any significant correlations between gender in generated texts and either redundancy or CRR. We can hypothesize that disorders impact the aforementioned CRR discrepancy as breast and ovarian cancers exhibit the lowest CRR (resp. 43.3% and 55.4%) as well as the highest association with feminine texts. In these cases, it is difficult to know whether the lower CRR for these two stereotypically feminine disorders is related to stereotype, or if it is due to other external reasons.

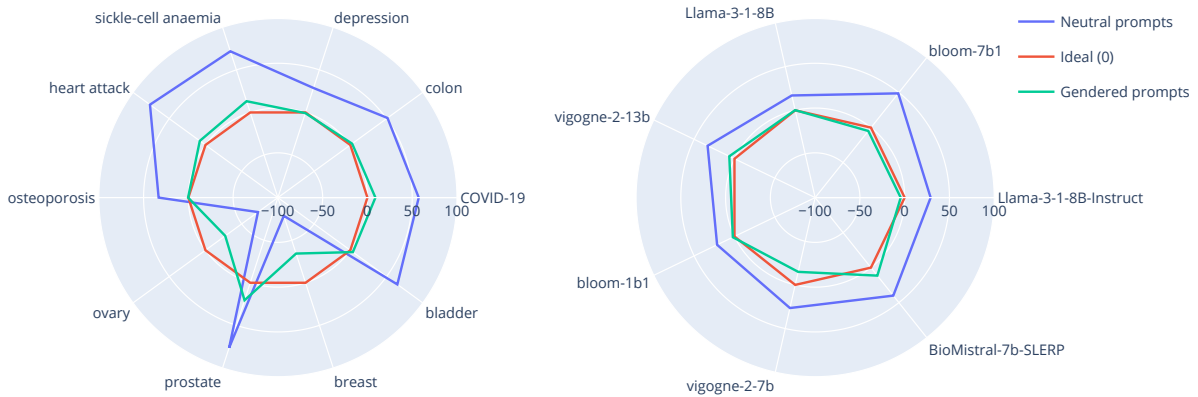


Figure 3: Gender Gaps in generated cases per disorder (left) and LM (right) using prompts with or without gender.

Output gender	Redundancy	CRR
Ambiguous	0.080 \pm 0.10	0.650 \pm 0.20
Feminine	0.098 \pm 0.12	0.635 \pm 0.18
Masculine	0.098 \pm 0.12	0.681 \pm 0.17
Neutral	0.092 \pm 0.10	0.681 \pm 0.16

Table 6: Redundancy and constraints respect rates (CRR) per generated gender. Standard deviations are indicated in subscripts.

Other, more specific proxies could be used to further analyze biases. With a naive approach based on keyword matching, we detected for example that 36.7% of texts with a majority of masculine markers result in the death of the patient whereas this number reaches 44.2% when the text is mostly feminine. However, the correlations do not seem significant.

5.4 Environmental impact of the experiments

Our experiments were conducted using an NVIDIA A100 SXM4 80GB GPU for fine-tuning all the models, except for BLOOM-1b1 for which we used an NVIDIA Tesla V100 SXM2 32GB GPU. NVIDIA A100 SXM4 80GB GPUs were used for inference, with VLLM (Kwon et al., 2023) to accelerate the computation. Finally, the gender detection was done on an NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1080 Ti. Using MLCA (Morand et al., 2024), we estimate that the gender detection system emitted 0.23kgCO₂e, fine-tuning the models emitted

0.49kgCO₂e, and the generation process emitted 1.15kgCO₂e, for a total of 1.87kgCO₂e.

6 Discussion: What Is the Ideal LM Like?

We evidenced two types of biases in LMs: they neither produce balanced gender distributions nor replicate real-world gender prevalence. However, we discuss here what an ideal LM would be like, and the flaws of both "ideal outputs".

First, an ideal LM that is neutral or gender-balanced could be considered inefficient or irrelevant as some disorders exhibit strong gender prevalence because of biological attributes.

Then, we argue that an LM that replicates real-world gender prevalence is not a viable option either because real-world statistics and estimated gender prevalence are biased as well. Healthcare professionals have their own stereotypes and biases, especially harming women and other disadvantaged groups (Dwass, 2019). Some disorders are known to be stereotypically associated with a gender, to the point that it leads to misdiagnosis, mistreatment, and is a taboo for patients of the opposite gender. It is the case for osteoporosis and depression in men (Rinonapoli et al., 2021; Van de Velde et al., 2010), and heart attack in women (Banks, 2008). Thus, replicating real-world statistics could reinforce these issues for patients of the opposite gender by conveying the idea that it is not possible that they suffer from this disorder. These problems result in possibly incorrect real-world statistics that underestimate the proportion of the minority, misdi-

agnosed gender. Further, it is often unclear if these statistics take into account gender or (assigned-at-birth) sex. It is problematic for transgender people, as we do not know how/if they are taken into account. As a consequence, prostate cancer is often overlooked in transgender women (Deebel et al., 2017). Finally, even when the gender prevalence is faithful to reality, socio-economic factors play a role, so the prevalence is not entirely biological: social and economic insecurity, as well as exposure to psychological and physical violence, increase the risk of depression, and women are much more affected by these situations than men (Van de Velde et al., 2010; Gresy et al., 2020). Discrimination also impacts the health of socially disadvantaged populations: harassment and violence have repercussions on people's health (Jahnke et al., 2019), and the wage gap between men and women plays a role in the gendered disparity of mood disorders (Platt et al., 2016). Moreover, men can also be impacted by biases, e.g. men suffering from breast cancer may face stigmatization, as well as a later diagnosis than women (Robinson et al., 2008; Midding et al., 2018).

Based on the results of the study and these facts, we recommend that demographic bias must be taken into account when constructing a synthetic corpus of clinical cases. Including demographic information in generation constraints appears to be the best strategy, as it allows for control over the demographic distribution of patients, and leads to less biased distributions of digital patients (see the differences between gendered and neutral prompts in Figure 3).

However, the reported results and the harms they could lead to provide clear and reliable evidence of one noteworthy potential limitation of using LMs in clinical contexts and should be taken into account by all stakeholders. This study reinforces the argument that the integration of LMs in medical practice requires caution and must be closely supervised by medical experts. Even in secondary applications of health data, such as pedagogical purposes for which clinical cases are commonly used, rigorous oversight is necessary. Exposure to biased clinical cases could create or reinforce (implicit) gender stereotypical biases in future healthcare professionals' practice and harm their patients.

7 Conclusion

In this study, we fine-tuned LMs to generate clinical cases in French, on 10 disorders. We found out that LMs generate more mentions of male than female patients, increasing the real-world proportion of men affected by a given disorder. However, gender distributions vary a lot depending on the prompted disorder. All disorders but ovarian and breast cancers are tilted towards masculine generations, especially prostate cancer, heart attack, and sickle-cell anemia. In other words, unless disorders are massively feminine and related to mostly feminine organs, LMs mostly generate male patients. More surprisingly, heart attack is the disorder that is the most associated with male patients when the prompts are neutral. All LMs exhibit biases, but in different proportions: with neutral prompts, BLOOM-7b shows the highest Gender Gap, whereas, with gendered prompts, *vigogne-2-13b* is the most biased.

We can conclude that by under-representing female patients, LMs can harm women. It is a form of representational harm. Moreover, by strongly associating gender with some disorders, LMs can participate in misdiagnosing and mistreating patients who do not match the stereotypical gender of a given disorder. LMs can also lead to misgendering transgender people and reinforce biological essentialism by shifting the gender of the prompt, especially for disorders associated with sex-specific organs. These can cause allocational harms.

Perspectives. We believe that stereotypical biases should be further studied, especially in the context of healthcare. Possible continuations of this work include looking into the possible gaps between medical consistency among genders and extending the scope of studied bias types. We intend to fine-tune LMs on a NER task to detect other demographic information (nationality, skin color, socioeconomic status...) and study intersectionality, as well as the impact of explicitly mentioning other demographic information in the prompts. We also plan to study the impact of fine-tuning, and its possible bias amplification.

Limitations

Our bias evaluations do not take into account the medical consistency or plausibility of the clinical cases, due to the lack of medical experts among authors and the amount of texts (it is not possible

to review them all manually). However, it would be relevant to find a method to assess the semantic and medical information, as we were already able to spot some inconsistencies (e.g., a "virgin" woman who just gave birth, or a person consulting for a "burn" that occurred while "fishing parrots"). Note that the manual annotation mentioned in Section 3.4 also served as a sanity check, and apart from these few examples of obvious logical failures, the rest of the annotated corpus seemed sound from a linguistic and common knowledge perspective (all medical knowledge aside). Further, the main goal of this study is to evaluate associations between genders and disorders, and these associations are still present, even when the text is not semantically/medically flawless.

Besides, as the gender detection system is imperfect, it sometimes labels texts as neutral instead of masculine, which leads to an underestimation of masculine generations.

Finally, this study was only conducted on French, and even if the methodology could easily be applicable to other inflected languages, further experiments are required in order to see if the results are similar in other linguistic and cultural contexts.

Acknowledgments

This work has received funding from the French "Agence Nationale de la Recherche" through grants InExtenso - ANR-23-IAS1-0004 and CODEINE - ANR-20-CE23-0026-01. The authors also thank Bastien Rance at HEGP for his clinical insights. Fine-tuning of models and inference were performed using HPC resources from GENCI-IDRIS (Grant 2024-AD011014538R1), and gender detection was carried out using the Grid'5000 testbed (Inria, CNRS, RENATER, ...).

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A Performance of the Gender Detection System

	Prec.	Recall	F1-score	N
Ambiguous	0.3333	1.0000	0.5000	1
Feminine	1.0000	0.9684	0.9839	158
Masculine	0.9793	0.9895	0.9844	191
Neutral	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0
Accuracy			0.9800	350
Macro avg	0.5782	0.7395	0.6171	350
Weighted avg	0.9868	0.9800	0.9828	350

Table 7: Classification report of the gender detection system.

B Bias per Disorder and per LM

We provide on Figure 4 detailed figures that illustrate the proportions of generated gender per disorder and per LM, when the prompts are neutral.

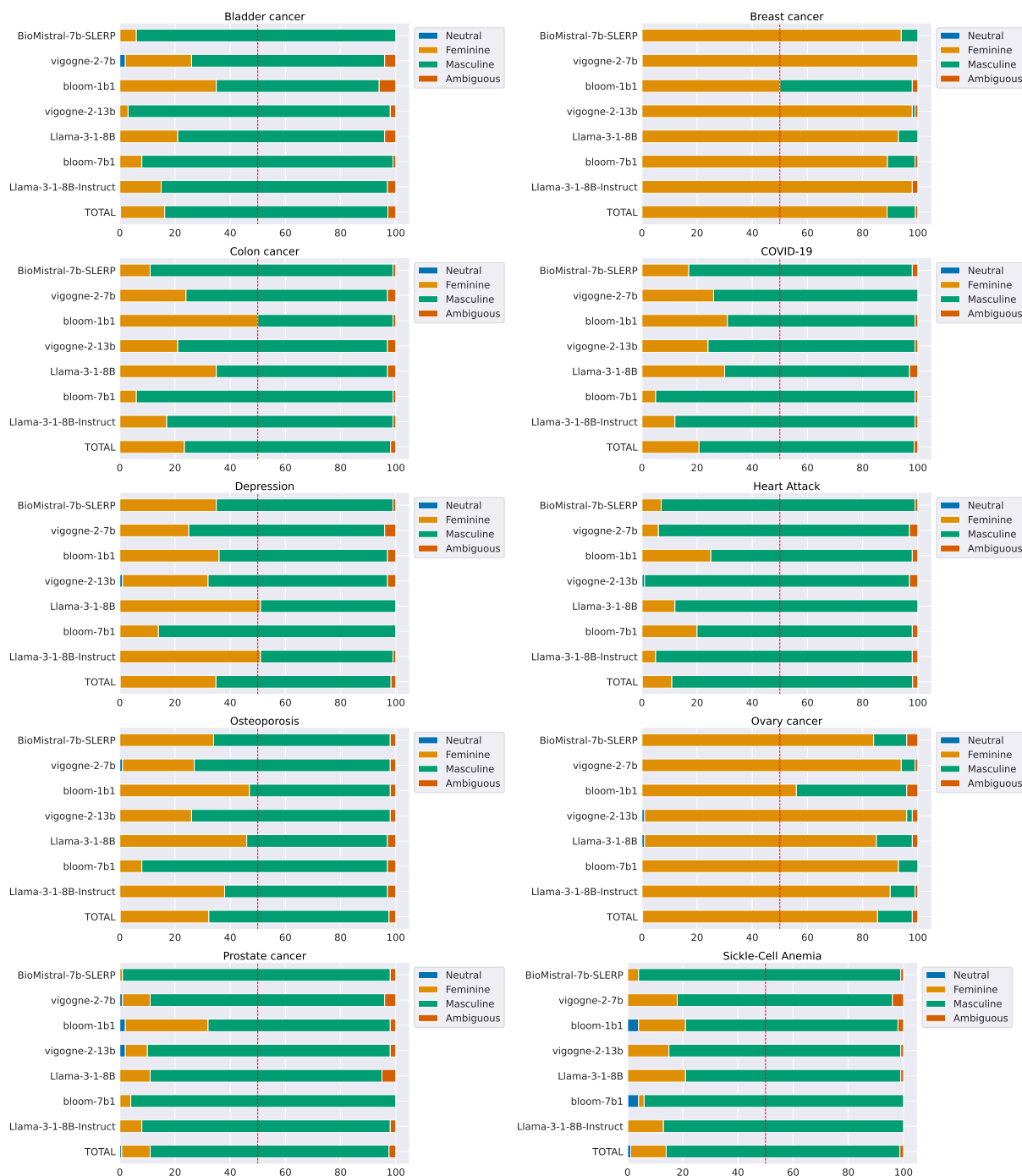


Figure 4: Proportions of generated gender per disorder and per LM with neutral prompts. The red dotted line indicates 50% (even distributions).