

Entitlement Justice and Measures of Algorithmic Fairness

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Abstract

This paper explores the relationship between entitlement justice and measures of algorithmic fairness. ...

1 Introduction

The rise of algorithmic decision making in the public sector has caused significant public concern. As algorithms increasingly make decisions that affect individuals' lives, from determining creditworthiness to predicting criminal recidivism, the public has grown fearful of their potential to perpetuate existing social inequalities. A 2018 study showed that 58% of Americans believe that algorithms will always have some level of bias [Smith \(2018\)](#), and as we know from the famed COMPAS case, these fears are not unfounded [Angwin et al. \(2016\)](#).

In response to these concerns, researchers have developed two broad and increasingly vast bodies of work. The first, which we will refer to as *algorithmic fairness*, focuses on developing statistical and computational tools to ensure that algorithms do not discriminate against protected groups. The second, referred to as *algorithmic accountability*, focuses on explainability and interpretability — developing tools to help users understand and interpret the decisions made by algorithms. The former area of research is what we will focus on in this paper.

The field of algorithmic fairness is often conceptualized as the application of the philosophical notion of distributive justice to algorithmic decision making. At first glance, this seems like a natural fit. The goal of distributive justice is to ensure that the allocation of the benefits and burdens of society are distributed fairly among its members, and the goal of algorithmic fairness measures are to ensure that the allocation of decisions by algorithms complies with some notion of fairness. However, recent work questions this analogy [Hertweck et al. \(2024\)](#), analytically showing that the extent to which algorithmic fairness measures can be seen as a form of distributive justice is quite limited, and isolated to egalitarian concepts of justice [Kuppler et al. \(2021\)](#).

In this paper, we propose a new direction for research that incorporates a previously overlooked distributive justice concept: entitlement justice. Entitlement theory, which roots justice in the idea of respecting individuals' property rights, offers a more nuanced and context-sensitive understanding of algorithmic fairness. We argue that by incorporating entitlement justice into the

design of algorithmic fairness measures, we can create a more robust framework for evaluating algorithmic decisions. When this framework is applied to the broader sociotechnical systems in which algorithms are embedded, we can better understand the social implications of algorithmic decision making and develop more effective strategies for mitigating their negative effects.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we provide an overview of the existing literature on algorithmic fairness and distributive justice. We draw on the formalism from Kuppler et al. (2021) and Corbett-Davies et al. (2023) to create a unified model for understanding algorithmic fairness and distributive justice consistently with each other. In Section 3, we introduce the concept of entitlement justice and discuss its historical development. We confront the traditional objections to entitlement theory and show how they can be overcome in the context of algorithmic decision making. In Section 4, we propose a new framework for understanding algorithmic fairness through the lens of entitlement justice. We analyze the implications of this framework for existing algorithmic fairness measures and show an example of how it can be applied to a real-world case study. Finally, in Section 5, we conclude with a discussion of the broader implications of our work and suggest directions for future research.

2 Background

Within this paper, we will restrict our attention to cases where the decision problem under scrutiny can be formulated using the following very simple formalism. Some entity (algorithmic or otherwise) possesses a finite amount of resource X , and must allocate it among a set of agents $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$. Considerable work is done here by the term *resource*, which we will define simply as an element which may be distributed among agents. Traditional examples include money and admissions, but we will also consider more abstract resources such as representation or influence. Following Kuppler et al. (2021), we will define a *distribution rule* as a statement in the form: Allocate amount R of resource X to agent a_n iff X has attribute Y . Broadly speaking, the role of a theory of justice is now to provide a justifiable and explainable Y for a given distribution rule, while the role of an ideal algorithmic fairness measure is to evaluate the extent to which an algorithmic-decision maker obeys a particular distribution rule.

Admittedly, not all problem domains in which algorithmic decision-making is applied can be formulated in this way Green and Hu (2018). For example, applications of AI in natural language translation may not be easily formulated in terms of resource allocation, but the reader may still be concerned with the perpetuation of social biases through the decisions it makes in translation. While these cases are significant, they do not fall simply within the domain of distributive justice, and so we will not consider them here.

2.1 Algorithmic Fairness Measures

In the canonical presentation of algorithmic fairness, we are given a population of agents $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ with observed covariates X drawn from some distribution $P(X)$. We are told that some set A of protected attributes may be derived from X . Each agent a_n in the population is subjected to a binary decision according to some decision rule $d : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ Corbett-Davies et al. (2023).

In the formal setting we described above, this decision rule plays a clear role. There is some distribution rule which we would like to enforce in the allocation of resources, such that each a_n receives an amount of resource X according to some attribute y . The decision rule d attempts to determine the “ y -ness” of each agent a_n based on the observed covariates for that agent x_n . y is highly unlikely to be directly observable or straightforward, and we are unlikely to be able to predict it perfectly from the information delivered by x_n . The decision rule d is then a function which imperfectly approximates the desired distribution rule, making errors at some frequency. Algorithmic fairness measures presented in the literature thus may be seen as defining the following attributes of the decision rule d :

- The relationship of the attribute y to the set of protected characteristics A
- The method of detection of errors made by a decision rule d

Some of the most commonly discussed measures in the literature are presented below together with their critiques leveraging this lens. For a more exhaustive list of measures, see [Corbett-Davies et al. \(2023\)](#).

Definition 1. *Demographic Parity* — A decision rule d is said to satisfy demographic parity if the probability of receiving a positive decision is independent of the protected attributes A [Dwork et al. \(2012\)](#).

Demographic parity asserts the condition that the probability of predicting that an agent having the attribute y cannot depend on the protected attributes A . When using demographic parity as a fairness measure, therefore we measure errors made by the decision rule d by the extent to which the probability of receiving a positive decision depends on the protected attributes in A .

From this presentation it is easy to see multiple ways in which demographic parity may be unsatisfactory. For example, our decision rule d is allowed to be very poor at predicting whether agents have the attribute y , so long as it is equally poor across all protected attributes. Mistakes in predicting y are not penalized, and so could be patterned in a way that is harmful to some protected groups. For example, d could produce many false positive predictions of y for one group and many false negative predictions for another as long as the resulting distribution is balanced correctly [Barocas et al. \(2017\)](#).

Definition 2. *Equalized Odds* — A decision rule d satisfies equalized odds if the true positive rate and false positive rate do not vary with respect to A [Hardt et al. \(2016\)](#).

Equalized odds may be thought of as again positing that attribute y may not depend on A , but it goes further to say that errors in our prediction of y — specifically false positives—must be distributed uniformly across groups. We thus measure errors as dependencies between the false positive rate and A .

Equalized odds is often critiqued for struggling to deal with unequal base rates between groups. Consider the following example from criminal justice. We have a distribution rule which says to allocate a parole to a prisoner if they are very unlikely to recidivate. Due to a history of discriminatory practices and social marginalization, black prisoners have a base rate of recidivism

much higher than white defendants [Crime and Alliance \(2023\)](#). As a result, allocating a parole to a white prisoner has a base line lower likelihood of being a false positive. Therefore, when we perform post-processing of our data to balance false positive rates, we may actually *add* false positives to the white portion of the dataset, resulting in an increase in the number of white prisoners receiving parole.

Definition 3. *Counterfactual Fairness* — A decision rule d satisfies counterfactual fairness if protected attributes from A do not play a causal role in its output [Kusner et al. \(2018\)](#).

Counterfactual fairness posits a different criteria about y than demographic parity or equalized odds. Rather than mandating that y should be independent from features in A , counterfactual fairness mandates that attributes in A cannot be causes of y . We therefore measure errors in the prediction of y by detecting causal links between A and the prediction of y .

Counterfactual fairness is often critiqued based on the difficulty and potential subjectivity of detecting causal links between variables. Recent work on the social construction of demographic variables reveals that causal modeling may have an inherently normative basis [Hu \(forthcoming\)](#), and even if these issues are set aside, the computational expense of causal discovery can create issues of practicality.

This discussion of dominant algorithmic fairness measures and their shortcomings motivates further discussion of theories of distributive justice. To what extent do the features of y posited by these measures align with the rules of distribution dictated by theories of algorithmic justice? Is it valid to say that these measures enforce distributive justice in any way? And it is possible to address or understand their shortcomings in terms of the philosophy of distributive justice?

2.2 Theories of Distributive Justice

The role of a theory of distributive justice is to provide the rules of distribution that define fairness in society. Specification of these rules is exactly the process of defining a y in the formalism we have presented. Several conventional theories of distributive justice have been proposed in the literature, and we will discuss a few of them here. For a more exhaustive list of theories presented in this framework, see [Kuppler et al. \(2021\)](#)

Definition 4. *Egalitarianism* — Egalitarianism posits that all individuals should receive an equal share of resources [Rawls \(1971\)](#).

Equally restated in the formalism we have presented, egalitarianism posits that amount R of resource X should be allocated to agent a_n if and only if the doing so minimizes the overall inequality across the population. Thus in this case, y is the property of *lacking* good X relative to the population.

Note that the precise currency of egalitarianism is unclear. For example, allocating money to an individual who is lacking in food only indirectly impacts the stock of concern, but it is clear that doing so will still reduce the overall inequality of the population. Clearly in this case we could shift our currency to general wealth or utility, but the choice of currency is not immediately obvious, nor does it seem generally possible to define a currency which is globally applicable [Binns \(2018\)](#).

Definition 5. *Sufficientarianism* — *Sufficientarianism posits that all individuals should receive a share of resources sufficient to meet some threshold level of well-being* [Sen \(1979\)](#).

Sufficientarianism is a theory of distributive justice which posits that the distribution rule should be such that all agents receive an amount of resource X which is sufficient to meet some threshold level of well-being. Thus y is defined as the property of *needing* good X . Note that what constitutes a threshold level of well-being and what goods are required for it is not immediately clear, and that under conditions of scarcity it may be impossible to meet the threshold for all agents.

Definition 6. *Desert* — *Moral desert is the idea that individuals should receive resources in proportion to their moral worth as measured by some metric of merit* [Pojman \(1997\)](#).

Theories of desert therefore set y to be some form of moral merit, and the distribution rule is such that agents receive X if they deserve it according to their merit. Theories of desert have been critiqued for being highly subjective and difficult to measure. Any attempt to craft a metric for moral merit is likely to be highly controversial and may be subject to manipulation by those in power.

This formulation lays bare the issues with considering algorithmic fairness measures as enforcing distributive justice. In most cases it is unclear how the features of y posited by these measures align with the rules of distribution dictated by theories of distributive justice. For example, demographic parity may appear to enforce some form of egalitarianism by ensuring that the output distribution of the decision rule is equal across protected groups. However, this is a failure in two ways. Firstly, egalitarianism mandates that allocations be balanced across all individuals, not across groups. Secondly, our measurement of errors in the decision rule d is based solely on the distribution enforced by d , not on the actual distribution of resources in society. In cases with a large pre-existing disparity, enforcing parity might be thought of as preventing the widening of the gap, but not as fully enforcing egalitarian justice.

Similar complaints may be made about the other fairness measures presented here, and it is clear that the relationship between algorithmic fairness and distributive justice is not straightforward. This motivates further discussion of the relationship between these two fields, and the potential for a more cautious and nuanced approach to the application of algorithmic fairness measures.

3 Entitlement Justice

4 Entitlement Fairness

5 Conclusion

Aknowledgements

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