

CS480/680: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lec 21: Algorithmic Fairness

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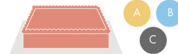
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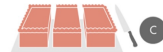
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CAKE CUTTING FOR THREE

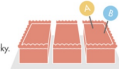
- ① Alice, Bob and Charlie want to share a cake so that none of them envies other pieces.



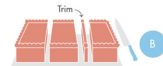
- ② Charlie cuts the cake into three pieces that are equally valuable from his perspective.



- ③ Alice and Bob identify their first choices. If they identify the same choice, things get tricky.



- ④ Bob trims his preferred piece to match his second most preferred piece.



- ⑤ Putting the trim to one side they choose in this order: Alice first*, Bob second and Charlie last.

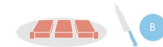
It is envy free

- ...for Alice, because she got first choice.
- ...for Bob, because his second choice was equally valuable.
- ...for Charlie, because the three original slices were equal to him.

*If Alice doesn't choose the trimmed piece, then Bob must take it. Alice and Bob then trade places for the rest of the process.



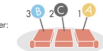
- ⑥ To divvy up the trimmed slice, first Bob cuts the trim into three pieces that are equally valuable from his perspective.



- ⑦ Now they choose a portion of trim in this order: Alice first, Charlie second and Bob last

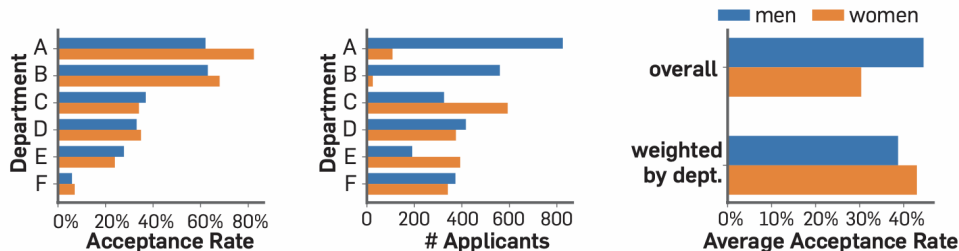
It is envy free

- ...for Alice, because she got her first choice.
- ...for Charlie, because he got to choose before Bob.
- ...for Bob, because the three pieces of trim were equal to him.



Simpson's Paradox: Berkeley Admission Statistics (1973 fall)

Figure 2. UC Berkeley admissions statistics for men and women. Left: Acceptance rates. Middle: Number of applicants. Right: Average acceptance rate, either overall or weighted by the total number of applicants (of both groups) for each department.



- Overall acceptance rate for men was higher (44%) than for women (35%)
- For almost all departments, women enjoyed a higher acceptance rate than men

COMPAS: Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions

- Developed by Northpointe in 1998, sold to Toronto-based Constellation Software in 2011
- Used in some US criminal justice systems
- Predicts a defendant's risk of committing a misdemeanor or felony *within 2 years*
 - proxy for lack of groundtruth (committing a crime)
- 137 features about an individual and the individual's past criminal record

Example Features in COMPAS

- Prior arrests and convictions
- Address of the defendant
- Whether the defendant a suspected gang member
- Whether the defendant ever violated parole
- If the defendant's parents separated
- If friends/acquaintances of the defendant were ever arrested
- Whether drugs are available in the defendants neighborhood
- How often the defendant has moved residences
- The defendants high school GPA
- How much money the defendant has
- How often the defendant feels bored or sad
- Age at the time of current offense
- Age at the time of first offense

One variable that doesn't appear is the defendant's race

White				Black			
		Actual				Actual	
Predicted		NR	R	Predicted		NR	R
	NR	999	408		NR	873	473
	R	282	414		R	641	1188
FN	0.50			FN	0.28		
FP	0.22			FP	0.42		

- Unequal base rates: $\frac{408+414}{408+414+282+999} \approx 39\%$ vs. $\frac{473+1188}{473+1188+873+641} \approx 52\%$
- Unequal odds: White higher False Negatives while Black higher False Positives
 - positive prediction (i.e., Recidivism) may be used by the judge against the defendant

A. W. Flores et al. "False Positives, False Negatives, and False Analyses: A Rejoinder". *Federal Probation*, vol. 80, no. 2 (2016), pp. 38–46.

J. Angwin et al. "Machine bias". 2016.

	All	White	Black
Low	32	29	35
Medium	55	53	56
High	75	73	75
Base Rate*	47	39	52
AUC	0.71	0.69	0.70

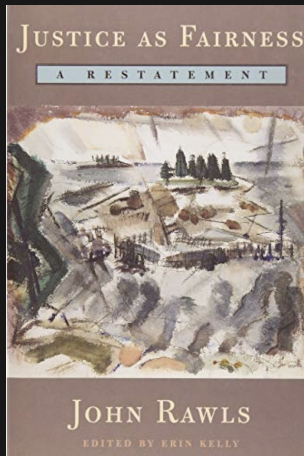
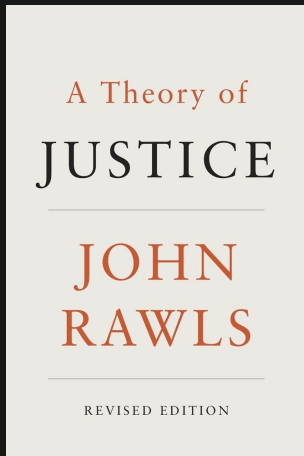
	All	White	Black
Low	11	9	13
Medium	26	22	27
High	45	38	47
Base Rate*	17	12	21
AUC	0.71	0.68	0.70

- $\Pr(\text{Recidivism} \mid \text{race, risk score})$ roughly calibrated

– left: any crime; right: violent crime only

- Accuracy parity: $\frac{414+999}{408+414+282+999} \approx 67\%$ vs. $\frac{873+1188}{473+1188+873+641} \approx 65\%$
- No demographic parity: $\frac{282+414}{408+414+282+999} \approx 33\%$ vs. $\frac{641+1188}{473+1188+873+641} \approx 58\%$

Each person possesses an inviolability founded on justice that even the welfare of society as a whole cannot override.



original position: people select what kind of society they would choose to live under if they did not know which social position they would personally occupy.

Setting

- Features for each individual: $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Binary labels: $Y \in \{0, 1\}$
 - $Y = 1$ being the preferred label, e.g., admission
- Sensitive attributes: $A \in \{a, b\}$
 - partition individuals into groups
- Prediction (e.g., by an algorithm or human): $\hat{Y} = \hat{Y}(X) \in [0, 1]$
- Disparate Treatment: prediction \hat{Y} depends on sensitive attribute A
 - often by law or moral: $A \notin X$ (Rawls' original position)
 - proxy: may still be able to predict A based on other features in X

Affirmative Action (AA)

- First introduced in US by President JFK in 1961: **government contractors** “take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed, and employees are treated during employment, without regard to their race, creed, color, or national origin.”
- By President LBJ in 1965: **government employers** to take “**affirmative action**” to “hire without regard to race, religion and national origin.”
- In 1965: gender was added to the list
- Grutter v. Bollinger (Supreme Court 2003) permitted educational institutions to consider race as a factor when admitting students
 - California, Michigan, and Washington banned preferential treatment

AA in Action

- Canada: the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms explicitly permits affirmative action but does not require preferential treatment
 - The Canadian Employment Equity Act requires employers in federally-regulated industries to give preferential treatment to Women, persons with disabilities, aboriginal peoples, and visible minorities
- UK: quotas are illegal
- China: lower requirement for minorities in national university entrance exam; quota; dedicated financial aid/scholarship
- India: reservation system for majority (60% college admission or government jobs reserved for 90% majority)

Fairness Definition 1: Statistical/Demographic Parity

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y})$$

- For deterministic classifiers, i.e., $\hat{Y} \in \{0, 1\}$, demographic parity means $\hat{Y} \perp\!\!\!\perp A$
- But, consider the following two scenarios:
 - scenario 1: For $A = a$, accept top 10%; for $A = b$, accept random 10%
 - scenario 2: $Y = \mathbb{I}[A = a]$; may disallow (almost) perfect classifier...

Estimated Canadian breast cancer statistics (2024)

Category	Women	Men
New cases	30,500	290
Deaths	5,500	60
5-year net survival (estimates for 2015 to 2017)	89%	76%

<https://cancer.ca/en/cancer-information/cancer-types/breast/statistics>

Disparate Impact

- Griggs v. Duke Power Co. (1971, US Supreme Court)
 - 1950s: Duke Power held policy restricting black employees to its “Labor” dept.
 - 1955: Added requirement of high school diploma for employment in any dept. but Labor, and offered 2/3 training tuition for employee w/o diploma
 - 1965: Added 2 employment tests (mechanical & IQ) to allow employees w/o diploma to transfer to any dept.
 - Blacks were 10 times less likely to pass
- Supreme court ruling: if such tests **disparately impact** minority groups, businesses must demonstrate that such tests are “reasonably related” to the job for which the test is required

The Fox and the Stork



80% Rule

$$\frac{\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a) \wedge \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b)}{\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a) \vee \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b)} \geq \tau = 80\%$$

- Recall that $Y = 1$ is the preferred label, e.g., hire
- Selection rate for the disadvantageous group (min) is at least 80% of that for the advantageous group (max)
- Advocated by the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1979)
- Completely ignores the true label Y (qualification); quota or preferential treatment

Fairness Definition 2: Equal Odds

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = y) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b, Y = y), \quad \forall y \in \{0, 1\}$$

- For a deterministic classifier, i.e., $\hat{Y} \in \{0, 1\}$, equal odds means $\hat{Y} \perp\!\!\!\perp A \mid Y$
- If true label $Y = 1$: (generalization of) equal true positives
- If true label $Y = 0$: (generalization of) equal false positives

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A) = \int \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A, Y = y) \Pr(Y = y \mid A) dy$$

- Equal odds implies demographic parity under equal base rates $\Pr(Y = y \mid A)$

Fairness Definition 3: Equal Opportunity

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = 1) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b, Y = 1)$$

- Recall $Y = 1$ is the preferred label, e.g., loan approval
- $Y = 1$: qualified applicants
- Among qualified applicants, equal true positives for different groups
- No requirement on unqualified applicants: maximal utility

Fairness Definition 4: Calibration

$$\Pr(Y = 1 \mid \hat{Y}, A = a) = \hat{Y} \in [0, 1], \quad \forall a$$

- For a deterministic classifier, i.e., $\hat{Y} \in \{0, 1\}$, calibrated = perfect
- Among all instances that we predict positive with $\hat{Y} = 80\%$ probability, indeed $\hat{Y} = 80\%$ of them have true label 1
- Calibration is often desirable, but it may have little to do with accuracy
 - consider the constant predictor $\hat{Y} = \mathbb{E}(Y)$: is it calibrated?
- True meaning: $f(\hat{Y})$ is not more accurate than \hat{Y} for any post-processing f

G. W. Brier. "Verification of Forecasts Expressed in Terms of Probability". *Monthly Weather Review*, vol. 78, no. 1 (1950), pp. 1–3,
M. H. DeGroot and S. E. Fienberg. "The comparison and evaluation of forecasters". *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series D (The Statistician)*, vol. 32, no. 1-2 (1983), pp. 12–22.

Inherent Tradeoff

Theorem: You can't have everything!

If a probabilistic classifier $\hat{Y} = \hat{Y}(X)$ satisfies

$$(\text{calibration}) \quad \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \hat{Y}, A = a) = \mathbb{E}(Y \mid \hat{Y}, A = b) = \hat{Y}$$

$$(\text{equal odds}) \quad \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = y) = \mathbb{E}(\hat{Y} \mid A = b, Y = y), \quad \forall y \in \{0, 1\},$$

then either \hat{Y} is a perfect classifier or the base rates match, i.e.,

$$\forall y \in \{0, 1\}, \quad \Pr(Y = y \mid A = a) = \Pr(Y = y \mid A = b).$$

- Apply to **any** probabilistic classifier, algorithm based or human based
- When base rates differ, demographic parity contradicts calibration or equal odds

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5-year net survival (estimates for 2015 to 2017)	89%	76%

<https://cancer.ca/en/cancer-information/cancer-types/breast/statistics>

- Base rates clearly differ
- So far, no classifier is perfectly accurate
- Thus, any existing classifier (algorithmic or not) can meet at most one of demographic parity, calibration and equal odds!

Apply the definition of **conditional expectation**:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = 0] &= \frac{\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mathbb{I}[Y = 0] \mid A = a]}{\Pr[Y = 0 \mid A = a]} \\&= \frac{\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y}(1 - \mathbb{I}[Y = 1]) \mid A = a]}{\Pr[Y = 0 \mid A = a]} \\&= \frac{\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mid A = a] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mathbb{I}[Y = 1] \mid A = a]}{\Pr[Y = 0 \mid A = a]} \\(\text{follows from calibration}) \quad &= \frac{\mathbb{E}[Y \mid A = a] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = 1] \cdot \Pr(Y = 1 \mid A = a)}{\Pr[Y = 0 \mid A = a]} \\&= \frac{\Pr[Y = 1 \mid A = a]}{\Pr[Y = 0 \mid A = a]} \cdot \left(1 - \mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mid A = a, Y = 1]\right)\end{aligned}$$

From equal odds: $\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \mid Y = 1] = 1$ implies $\hat{Y} \geq Y$; but from calibration: $\mathbb{E}[\hat{Y}] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$.

Fairness Definition 5: Individual Fairness

- Similar individuals should be treated similarly
- Transitivity can easily kill us: if a is similar to b , b is similar to c , ..., then we are forced to call a similar to z , even when they are very different

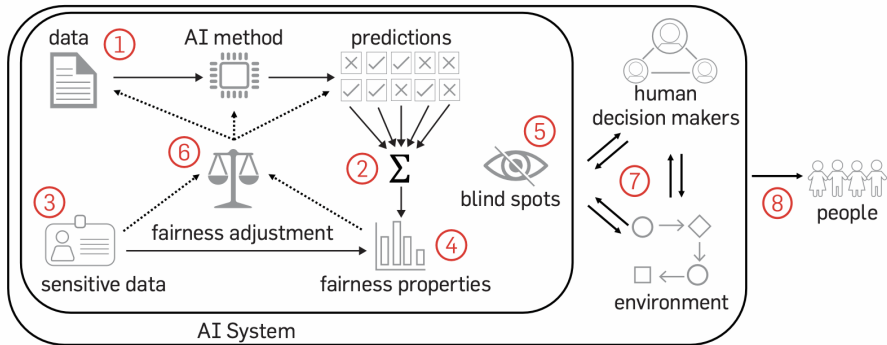
$$\text{dist}(\hat{Y}(X), \hat{Y}(Z)) \leq \text{dist}(X, Z)$$

- In other words, our predictor \hat{Y} needs to be Lipschitz continuous
- But, finding an agreeable distance function is difficult

Some Perils of Algorithmic Fairness

- Limited access to ground-truth label; often resort to questionable proxies
 - commit a crime \approx arrested by police; neither one implies the other
- Need to collect sensitive attributes, something explicitly banned by AA
 - Proposed European AI Act allows processing sensitive data for bias monitoring, detection and correction
- No universally agreed definition (probably never will)
- Limited power over the entire decision pipeline
 - one would be naive to think algorithmic fairness can solve social issues all by itself
- Open to abuse

Figure 1. A prototypical fair AI system. Each limitation affects a different component of the full decision process.



- decision process**
- 1** Lack of Ground Truth
 - 2** Categorization of Groups
 - 3** Need for Sensitive Data
 - 4** No Universal Fairness Definition
 - 5** Blind Spots
 - 6** Lack of Portability
 - 7** Limited Power over Full Decision Process
 - 8** Open to Abuse

Fairness and Machine Learning

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Limitations and Opportunities

Solon Barocas, Moritz Hardt, and Arvind Narayanan

michael kearns + aaron roth

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BRIEF HISTORY of EQUALITY THOMAS PIKETTY

Author of the *New York Times* Bestsellers
Capital and Ideology and *Capital in the Twenty-First Century*



Other Fairness Definitions

- Accuracy parity:

$$\Pr(\hat{Y} = Y \mid A = a) = \Pr(\hat{Y} = Y \mid A = b)$$

or more generally for a probabilistic classifier:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\hat{Y} \cdot Y + (1 - \hat{Y})(1 - Y) \mid A = a \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\hat{Y} \cdot Y + (1 - \hat{Y})(1 - Y) \mid A = b \right]$$

- More generally, we can compare the conditional distributions induced by different groups using any risk measure or divergence
- Causality/Counterfactual based

R. Williamson and A. Menon. “Fairness risk measures”. In: *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*. 2019, pp. 6786–6797.

N. Kilbertus et al. “Avoiding Discrimination through Causal Reasoning”. In: *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30*. 2017, pp. 656–666, M. J. Kusner et al. “Counterfactual Fairness”. In: *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30*. 2017, pp. 4066–4076.