

Ensuring Fairness with Transparent Auditing of Quantitative Bias in AI Systems

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Abstract—With the rapid advancement of AI, there is a growing trend to integrate AI into decision-making processes. However, AI systems may exhibit biases that lead decision makers to draw unfair conclusions. Notably, the COMPAS system used in the American justice system to evaluate recidivism was found to favor racial majority groups; specifically, it violates a fairness standard called equalized odds. Various measures have been proposed to assess AI fairness. We present a framework for auditing AI fairness, involving third-party auditors and AI system provider, and we have created a tool to facilitate systematic examination of AI systems. Inclusion of independent and trusted auditors is pivotal for objectivity and accountability; third parties are often further necessary for their specialized expertise in relevant domains. Auditors, equipped with our tool, can thoroughly review AI systems for bias and fairness violations. The tool is open-sourced and publicly available. Unlike traditional AI systems, we advocate a transparent white-box and statistics-based approach. It can be utilized by third party auditors, AI developers, or the general public for reference when judging the fairness criterion of AI systems.

Index Terms—AI, fairness, auditing

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the accelerating pace of artificial intelligence (AI) technologies have revolutionized numerous fields. In healthcare, AI-driven diagnostic systems streamline disease identification, while in finance, automated trading algorithms analyze market trends to execute optimal trades swiftly. This remarkable progress has reached diverse industries, sprouting out various applications for different purposes.

One of its most profound impact is how AI has transformed decision-making processes across sectors. By harnessing vast amounts of data and employing advanced algorithms, AI empowers organizations to make more informed and strategic decisions. From assessing job applicants to determining school admissions, AI-driven insights offer efficient and analytical advantages.

AI system, however, may be biased. Factors such as inherent biases in original data sets or flaws in algorithm designs could contribute to bias within AI systems. When left unchecked, the ramifications of such biases extend far beyond mere inaccuracies; it can lead to devastating consequences, such as amplifying systemic injustices, perpetuating group discrimination, and exacerbating societal inequalities.

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Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions (COMPAS) is a tool for predicting recidivism—the tendency of criminals to reoffend. It is used in the criminal justice system in multiple states in the United States. In 2016, it was discovered in an investigation by the journalists at ProPublica that the COMPAS system is, in fact, unfair towards minority and disadvantaged groups.

Cases such as COMPAS underscore the critical importance of rigorously examining the fairness of AI systems by third parties. Fairness is fundamentally a subjective social construct, heavily influenced by cultural context and deeply rooted in historical inequalities. However, there have been development in research leveraging statistical metrics to quantify fairness that provide transparent and objective insights.

By employing such mathematically rigorous methodologies, our research can offer a more deeper look into the fairness of AI systems, enabling third parties to make more informed and robust judgment. For example, it would reveal that the COMPAS system violates a fairness measure called equalized odds.

In addition to equalized odds, there are a number of fairness measures for AI systems. Our framework aims to help third parties apply these metrics and navigate complex datasets with ease, pinpointing instances of bias and discrimination.

With our tool, a third party such as ProPublica could clearly and easily demonstrates that COMPAS violates equalized odds according to their datasets. Our platform empowers organizations to conduct thorough assessments of AI fairness and uncover discrepancies in predictive models.

This functionality not only facilitates sound judgment but also fosters objectivity and transparency regarding AI systems, ultimately bolster the claim of fairness and justice in AI-enabled decision-making.

Our tool is written in Python and is offered as a Python package. It supports common datasets format such as csv. It is open-sourced and publicly available for downloads.

II. FAIRNESS MEASURES

Fairness is about making sure the disadvantaged and unprivileged groups of individuals are treated equitably. However, there have been several interpretations of it proposed in the past. To have a constructive discussion on fairness, we

must first have precise definitions of it. Pessach and Shmueli [1] formulated a number of fairness measures in an unified mathematical notation. We will base our framework on their formulation.

A. Preliminaries

For the following definition we will use Y to denote the ground truth of an outcome; \hat{Y} to denote the predicated result of an outcome; $Y = 1$ and $\hat{Y} = 1$ to denote them being accepted or positive. For example, let Y be recidivism. Then $Y = 1$ means the case of an individual actually recidivating and $\hat{Y} = 0$ means the predication of an individual recidivating is negative. In addition, we use V and \hat{V} when the truth and the prediction isn't binary. For example, we denote COMPAS score by \hat{V} , which ranges from 1 to 10.

We denote by S some protected attribute. Protected attributes are the characteristics of individuals that are, for example, legally or ethically, considered sensitive and warrant protection against discrimination and bias. We write $S = 1$ to represent the privileged group and $S \neq 1$ to represent the unprivileged group. For example, let S be Caucasian. Then $S = 1$ represents the case of an individual's race being Caucasian and $S \neq 1$ vice versa.

B. Disparate Impact

In 1971 [2], the US spreme court ruled that it is illegal for hiring decisions to have “disparate impact” by race, thus coining the term. It is taken as unintentional discrimination, as opposed to intentional discrimination, which is called “disparate treatment”.

Legal cases involving disparate impact often refer to the “80% Rule”, advocated by the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [3], where it requires the selection rate of a minority group is to be no less than 80% of that of a majority group. Formally, it is:

$$\frac{P[\hat{Y} = 1|S \neq 1]}{P[\hat{Y} = 1|S = 1]} \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

C. Demographic Parity

Demographic parity, also known as statistical parity, is similar to disparate impact but, instead of ratio, difference is taken. It is named so to suggest that each demographic group(such as race, gender, or age) should have equal representation or opportunity. Formally, it is:

$$|P[\hat{Y} = 1|S = 1] - P[\hat{Y} = 1|S \neq 1]| \leq \epsilon$$

D. Conditional Statistical Parity

Conditional statistical parity is similar to demographic parity, but, in addition to protected attributes, it further takes into account some “legitimate” attributes that are *legitimately* related to the case. For example, a legitimate attribute when considering future recidivism could be the number of prior crimes committed. Formally, it is:

$$|P[\hat{Y} = 1|S = 1, L = l] - P[\hat{Y} = 1|S \neq 1, L = l]| \leq \epsilon$$

where L to denotes the legitimate attributes.

E. Overall Accuracy Equality

Accuracy eqaulity is similar to demographic parity, but instead of the case of $\hat{Y} = 1$, it considers the case of $Y = \hat{Y}$; that is, the case where the prediction is accurate. Formally, it is:

$$|P[Y = \hat{Y}|S = 1] - P[Y = \hat{Y}|S \neq 1]| \leq \epsilon$$

F. Mean Difference

Mean difference considers the case of non-binary outcome, such as the score of COMPAS. It takes the expected value of the prediction. Formally, it is:

$$|E[\hat{Y}|S = 1] - E[\hat{Y}|S \neq 1]| \leq \epsilon$$

REFERENCES

- [1] D. Pessach and E. Shmueli, “A review on fairness in machine learning,” *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)*, vol. 55, no. 3, pp. 1–44, 2022.
- [2] Supreme Court of the United States, “Griggs v. duke power co.” 401 U.S. 424, March 8, 1971.
- [3] The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), “Uniform guidelines on employee selection procedures,” March 2, 1979.

Column 1	Column 2
disparate impact	$\frac{P[\hat{Y}=1 S \neq 1]}{P[\hat{Y}=1 S=1]} \geq 1 - \epsilon$
demographic parity	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1] \leq \epsilon$
conditional statistical parity	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1, L = l] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1, L = l] \leq \epsilon$
accuracy equality	$ P[Y = \hat{Y} S = 1] - P[Y = \hat{Y} S \neq 1] \leq \epsilon$
mean difference	$ E[\hat{Y} S = 1] - E[\hat{Y} S \neq 1] \leq \epsilon$
equalized odds	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1, Y = 0] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1, Y = 0] \leq \epsilon$
	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1, Y = 1] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1, Y = 1] \leq \epsilon$
equal opportunity	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1, Y = 1] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1, Y = 1] \leq \epsilon$
predictive equality	$ P[\hat{Y} = 1 S = 1, Y = 0] - P[\hat{Y} = 1 S \neq 1, Y = 0] \leq \epsilon$
conditional use accuracy equality	$ P[Y = 1 S = 1, \hat{Y} = 1] - P[Y = 1 S \neq 1, \hat{Y} = 1] \leq \epsilon$
	$ P[Y = 0 S = 1, \hat{Y} = 0] - P[Y = 0 S \neq 1, \hat{Y} = 0] \leq \epsilon$
predictive parity	$ P[Y = 1 S = 1, \hat{Y} = 1] - P[Y = 1 S \neq 1, \hat{Y} = 1] \leq \epsilon$
equal calibration	$ P[Y = 1 S = 1, \hat{V} = v] - P[Y = 1 S \neq 1, \hat{V} = v] \leq \epsilon$

TABLE I: Example Table