## Lecture 17: Fairness

Machine Learning, Summer Term 2019

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## Acknowledgement of the sources for these slides

- Draft text book: Fairness and machine learning: Limitations and Opportunities by Solon Barocas, Moritz Hardt and Arvind Narayanan
- URL of the book: https://fairmlbook.org/
- NIPS 2017 Tutorial by Solon Barocas and Moritz Hardt

- Motivation and Background
- 2 A Concrete Example
- 3 Two Definitions of Fairness
- 4 Wrapup

# Connection of Machine Learning and Fairness

- Machine Learning is being used for making very important decisions
- We need to make sure that these decisions are fair
  - What does it mean to be fair? This is a question for ethics and law:
    - Credit (Equal Credit Opprtunity Act)
    - Education (Civil Rights Act of 1964; Education Amendments of 1972)
    - Employment (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
    - Housing (Fair Housing Act)
    - Public Accomodation (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
  - These laws extend to marketing and advertising in these domains!
  - Machine learning allows for predictions and thus differentiation
- → Take objection to unjustified basis for differentiation
  - Practical irrelevance (e.g., bias in the training data)
  - Moral irrelevance

# Legally recognized protected classes

- Race (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- Color (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- Gender (Equal Pay Act of 1963; Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- Religion (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- National origin (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- Age (Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967)
- Pregnancy (Pregnancy Discrimination Act)
- Familias status (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
- Disability status (Rehabilitation Act of 1973)
- Genetic information (Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act)

Note: society is far from being fair; with ML we aim to do better!

- Opportunity to objectively assess and remove bias
- Opportunity to get rid of implicit (even unconscious) biases

## Issues to watch out for in machine learning

#### Skewed sample

- E.g., predictive policing
  - Future observations of crime confirm predictions
  - Riks of a feedback loop (less opportunities to observe crime that contradicts predictions)

#### Tainted examples

- Learn to predict hiring decisions
- Learn to predict job success (e.g., review scores)
- Learn to predict objective score (e.g., sales)

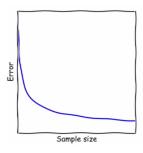
#### Limited features

- Features may be informative for the majority group, but not for a minority group
- Minority may even just be a minority in the training/validation data (example: skin cancer)
- Different models with same validation accuracy can differ substantially concerning fairness

# Issues to watch out for in machine learning

#### Proxies

- Many features are correlated with sensitive features
- With rich data, sensitive features are largely encoded across other features
- Sample size disparity
  - By definition, there is more data for majority groups
  - Routinely, more data leads to smaller errors

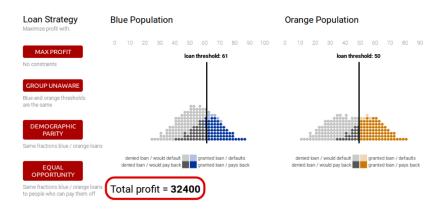


# Three different problems

- Discovering unobserved differences in performance
  - Skewed sample
  - Tained examples
- Coping with observed differences in performance
  - Limited features
  - Sample size disparity
- Understanding the causes of disparities in predicted outcome
  - Proxies

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## Example: decisions about granting a loan or not



#### URI:

https://research.google.com/bigpicture/attacking-discrimination-in-ml

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# Example: job advertisement for software engineers

- X features of an individual (here: browsing history)
- A sensitive attribute (here: gender)
- C = c(X, A) predictor (here: show ad or not)
- Y target variable (here: software engineer?)
- Notation:  $P_a(E) = P(E \mid A = a)$

### Two definitions of fairness

- Independence: C independent of A
- Separation: C independent of A conditional on Y

#### Recall notation:

- A sensitive attribute (example: gender)
- C = c(X, A) predictor (example: show ad or not)
- Y target variable (example: software engineer?)

## Independence

- Definition: C is independent of A
  - ullet For all groups a and b and all outcomes c of C,

$$P_a(C=c) = P_b(C=c)$$

- Other names: demographic parity, statistical parity
- Approximate versions

$$\frac{P_a(C=1)}{P_b(C=1)} \ge 1 - \epsilon$$
  $|P_a(C=1) - P_b(C=1)| \le \epsilon$ 

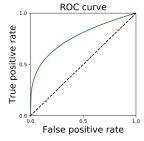
- Achieving independence
  - Post-processing
  - Training time constraint
  - Pre-processing, e.g., via representation learning
    - Find a representation Z = f(X, A), aiming for maxI(X; Z) and minI(A; Z)
    - $\bullet$  Then we base our classifier C only on Z

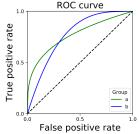
# Separation

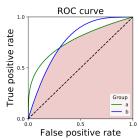
- Define a score r = R(A, X)
- ullet R independent of A conditional on Y
  - For all groups a and b, all outcomes r of R, and all outcomes y of Y:

$$P_a(R = r \mid Y = y) = P_b(R = r \mid Y = y)$$

- Again, you can define approximate versions like for independence
- Achieving independence: training constraint or post-processing by looking at (TPR, FPR) for all possible thresholds on score r







# Tradeoffs are Necessary

### Theorem: impossibility of both independence and separation

If neither A nor R are independent of Y, then you cannot get both separation and independence at once.

- Someone (probably not a computer scientist) has to decide what fairness criteria we want to fulfill in a particular application
- Impossibility only holds for exact independence/separation
  - We can still aim for good tradeoffs of their approximate versions

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# Summary by learning goals

Having heard this lecture, you can now ...

- List some features that are illegal to use in some cases
- Motivate the need for research on fairness in machine learning
- Discuss two notions of algorithmic fairness and their relation