

Foundations of machine learning

# Fairness and machine learning

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# Outline

- Targeted treatment assignment and supervised learning.
- Fairness as predictive parity and taste-based discrimination.
- Limitations of this notion of fairness.
- Alternative notions of fairness / discrimination.
- Social welfare as a unifying framework for many theories of justice.
- The causal impact of algorithms on inequality / social welfare.
- Case study: Predictive incarceration.

## Takeaways for this part of class

- Public debate and the computer science literature:  
**Fairness** of algorithms, understood as the absence of **discrimination**.
- We argue: Leading definitions of fairness have three limitations:
  1. They legitimize inequalities justified by “merit.”
  2. They are narrowly bracketed; only consider differences of treatment within the algorithm.
  3. They only consider between-group differences.
- Two alternative perspectives:
  1. What is the causal impact of the introduction of an algorithm on **inequality**?
  2. Who has the **power** to pick the objective function of an algorithm?

## Fairness in algorithmic decision making – Setup

- Binary treatment  $W$ , treatment return  $M$  (heterogeneous), treatment cost  $c$ .  
Decision maker's objective

$$\mu = E[W \cdot (M - c)].$$

- All expectations denote averages across individuals (not uncertainty).
- $M$  is unobserved, but predictable based on features  $X$ .  
For  $m(x) = E[M|X = x]$ , the optimal policy is

$$w^*(x) = \mathbf{1}(m(x) > c).$$

# Examples

- Bail setting for defendants based on predicted recidivism.
- Screening of job candidates based on predicted performance.
- Consumer credit based on predicted repayment.
- Screening of tenants for housing based on predicted payment risk.
- Admission to schools based on standardized tests.

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## Definitions of fairness

- Most definitions depend on **three ingredients**.
  1. Treatment  $W$  (job, credit, incarceration, school admission).
  2. A notion of merit  $M$  (marginal product, credit default, recidivism, test performance).
  3. Protected categories  $A$  (ethnicity, gender).
- I will focus initially on the following **definition of fairness**:

$$\pi = E[M|W = 1, A = 1] - E[M|W = 1, A = 0] = 0$$

*“Average merit, among the treated, does not vary across the groups  $a$ .”*

This is called “predictive parity” in machine learning,  
the “hit rate test” for “taste based discrimination” in economics.

- “Fairness in machine learning” literature: **Constrained optimization**.

$$w^*(\cdot) = \underset{w(\cdot)}{\operatorname{argmax}} E[w(X) \cdot (m(X) - c)] \quad \text{subject to} \quad \pi = 0.$$

# Fairness and $\mathcal{D}$ 's objective

## Observation

Suppose that  $W, M$  are binary (“classification”), and that

1.  $m(X) = M$  (perfect predictability), and
2.  $w^*(x) = \mathbf{1}(m(X) > c)$  (unconstrained maximization of  $\mathcal{D}$ 's objective  $\mu$ ).

Then  $w^*(x)$  satisfies predictive parity, i.e.,  $\pi = 0$ .

### In words:

- If  $\mathcal{D}$  is a firm that is maximizing profits and observes everything then their decisions are fair by assumption.
  - No matter how unequal the resulting outcomes within and across groups.
- Only deviations from profit-maximization are “unfair.”



## Three normative limitations of “fairness” as predictive parity

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2. They are **narrowly bracketed**.  
Inequality in  $W$  in the algorithm,  
instead of some outcomes  $Y$  in a wider population.
3. Fairness-based perspectives **focus on categories** (protected groups)  
and ignore within-group inequality.

## Alternative measures of fairness (1)

Measures that share the same limitations:

- Equality of true positives:

$$E[W|M = 1, A = 1] - E[W|M = 1, A = 0].$$

- Equality of false positives:

$$E[W|M = 0, A = 1] - E[W|M = 0, A = 0].$$

- Balance for the negative class:

$$E[M|W = 0, A = 1] - E[M|W = 0, A = 0]$$

(Like predictive parity, but for  $W = 0$ .)

## Alternative measures of fairness (2)

Measures which share only some of these limitations:

- Disparate impact and demographic parity:

$$\frac{E[W|A=1]}{E[W|A=0]}, \quad E[W|A=1] - E[W|A=0].$$

- Conditional statistical parity:

$$E[W|A=1, X' = x'] - E[W|A=0, X' = x']$$

for a subset of features  $X'$  considered “legitimate” sources of inequality.  
(Cf. Oaxaca-Blinder decompositions.)

- Individual fairness:

$$E[W|X = x_i] - E[W|X = x_j] \text{ for } d(i, j) \approx 0,$$

for a measure of distance  $d(i, j)$  between individuals.

## Practice problem

- Which of these measures of fairness do you find more or less appealing?
- Why? For which contexts or applications?

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# Social welfare

- The framework of fairness / bias / discrimination contrasts with perspectives focused on *consequences for social welfare*.
- Common presumption for most theories of justice:

Normative statements about society  
are based on statements about individual welfare

- Formally:
  - Individuals  $i = 1, \dots, n$
  - Individual  $i$ 's welfare  $Y_i$
  - Social welfare as function of individuals' welfare

$$SWF = F(Y_1, \dots, Y_n).$$



## Practice problem

- **Who is to be included** among  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ?
  - All citizens? All residents? All humans on earth?
  - Future generations? Animals?
- **How to measure individual welfare**  $Y_i$ ?
  - Opportunities or outcomes?
  - Utility? Resources? Capabilities?
- **How to aggregate** to *SWF*?

How much do we care about

  - Trevon vs. Emily, Sophie vs. José?
  - Millionaires vs. homeless people?
  - Sick vs. healthy people?
  - Groups that were victims of historic injustice?

# The impact on inequality or welfare as an alternative to fairness

- Outcomes are determined by the **potential outcome equation**

$$Y = W \cdot Y^1 + (1 - W) \cdot Y^0.$$

- The **realized outcome** distribution is given by

$$p_{Y,X}(y, x) = [p_{Y^0|X}(y, x) + w(x) \cdot (p_{Y^1|X}(y, x) - p_{Y^0|X}(y, x))] \cdot p_X(x).$$

- What is the impact of  $w(\cdot)$  on a **statistic**  $v$ ?

$$v = v(p_{Y,X}).$$

Examples: Variance, quantiles, between group inequality.

- Cf. Distributional decompositions in labor economics!

# When fairness and equality are in conflict

- Fairness is about **treating** people of the same “**merit**” independently of their **group** membership.
- Equality is about the (counterfactual / causal) **consequences** of an algorithm for the distribution of **welfare** of different **people**.

Examples when they are in conflict:

1. Increased surveillance / **better prediction** algorithms:  
Lead to treatments more aligned with “merit”  
Good for fairness, bad for equality.
2. Affirmative action / **compensatory interventions** for pre-existing inequalities:  
Bad for fairness, good for equality.

## Influence function approximation of the statistic $v$

$$v(p_{Y,X}) - v(p_{Y,X}^*) = E[IF(Y, X)] + o(\|p_{Y,X} - p_{Y,X}^*\|).$$

- $IF(Y, X)$  is the influence function of  $v(p_{Y,X})$ .

Formally: The Riesz representer of the Fréchet derivative of  $v$ .

- The expectation averages over the distribution  $p_{Y,X}$ .

# The impact of marginal policy changes on profits, fairness, and inequality

## Proposition

Consider a family of assignment policies  $w(x) = w^*(x) + \varepsilon \cdot dw(x)$ . Then

$$\partial_\varepsilon \mu = E[dw(X) \cdot l(X)], \quad \partial_\varepsilon \pi = E[dw(X) \cdot p(X)], \quad \partial_\varepsilon v = E[dw(X) \cdot n(X)],$$

# The impact of marginal policy changes on profits, fairness, and inequality

## Proposition

Consider a family of assignment policies  $w(x) = w^*(x) + \varepsilon \cdot dw(x)$ . Then

$$\partial_\varepsilon \mu = E[dw(X) \cdot I(X)], \quad \partial_\varepsilon \pi = E[dw(X) \cdot p(X)], \quad \partial_\varepsilon \nu = E[dw(X) \cdot n(X)],$$

where

$$I(X) = E[M|X = x] - c,$$

$$p(X) = E \left[ (M - E[M|W = 1, A = 1]) \cdot \frac{A}{E[WA]} \right. \\ \left. - (M - E[M|W = 1, A = 0]) \cdot \frac{(1 - A)}{E[W(1 - A)]} \middle| X = x \right],$$

$$n(x) = E [IF(Y^1, x) - IF(Y^0, x) | X = x].$$

# Uses of the proposition

## 1. Elucidate the **tension** between objectives.

- Profits vs. fairness vs. equality vs. welfare?
- Suppose  $\pi < 0$ ,  $n(x) > 0$  is positive, while  $p(x) < 0$ .  
Then increasing  $w(x)$  is good for welfare and bad for fairness.
- $\Rightarrow$  Characterizes which parts of the feature space drive the tension between alternative objectives.

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## 2. Solve for **optimal assignment** subject to constraints.

- E.g. maximize  $\mu$  subject to  $\pi = 0$ .
- Then  $w(x) = \mathbf{1}(l(x) > \lambda p(x))$ .



# Uses of the proposition 1, continued

## 3. Power and inverse welfare weights

- For a given  $w(\cdot)$ , what objective is implicitly maximized?
- What are the weights for different individuals that rationalize  $w(\cdot)$ ?

# Uses of the proposition 1, continued

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- For a given  $w(\cdot)$ , what objective is implicitly maximized?
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## 4. Algorithmic auditing.

- Similar to distributional decompositions in labor economics.
- Cf. Fortin and Lemieux (1997); Firpo et al. (2009).

# Power

- Both fairness and equality are about differences between people who are **being treated**.
- Elephant in the room:
  - Who is on the **other side** of the algorithm?
  - Who gets to be the decision maker  $\mathcal{D}$  – who gets to pick the objective function  $\mu$ ?
- Political economy perspective:
  - **Ownership of the means of prediction.**
  - Data and algorithms.

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## Case study

- Compas risk score data for recidivism.
- From Pro-Publica's reporting on algorithmic discrimination in sentencing.

Mapping our setup to these data:

- $A$ : race (Black or White),
- $W$ : risk score exceeding 4,
- $M$ : recidivism within two years,
- $Y$ : jail time,
- $X$ : race, sex, age, juvenile counts of misdemeanors, felonies, and other infractions, general prior counts, as well as charge degree.

## Counterfactual scenarios

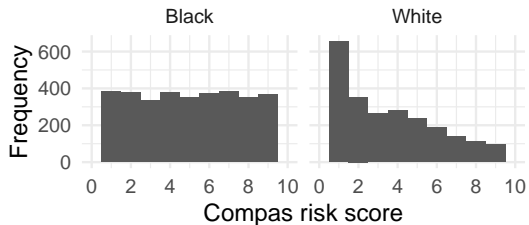
Compare three scenarios:

1. “Affirmative action:” Adjust risk scores  $\pm 1$ , depending on race.
2. Status quo.
3. Perfect predictability: Scores equal 10 or 1, depending on recidivism in 2 years.

For each: Impute counterfactual

- $W$ : Counterfactual score bigger than 4.
- $Y$ : Based on a causal-forest estimate of the impact on  $Y$  of risk scores, conditional on the covariates in  $X$ .
- This relies on the assumption of conditional exogeneity of risk-scores given  $X$ .  
Not credible, but useful for illustration.

## Compas risk scores



## Estimated effect of scores

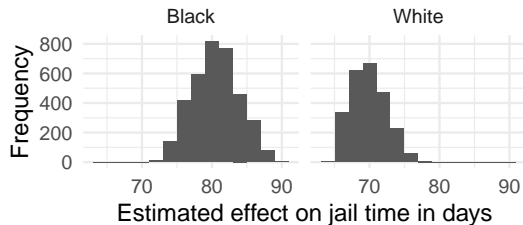


Table: Counterfactual scenarios, by group

Scenario	Black			White		
	(Score>4)	Recid (Score>4)	Jail time	(Score>4)	Recid (Score>4)	Jail time
Aff. Action	0.49	0.67	49.12	0.47	0.55	36.90
Status quo	0.59	0.64	52.97	0.35	0.60	29.47
Perfect predict.	0.52	1.00	65.86	0.40	1.00	42.85

Table: Counterfactual scenarios, outcomes for all

Scenario	Score>4	Jail time	IQR jail time	SD log jail time
Aff. Action	0.48	44.23	23.8	1.81
Status quo	0.49	43.56	25.0	1.89
Perfect predict.	0.48	56.65	59.9	2.10



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