

# AIM 2: Artificial Intelligence in Medicine II

Harvard - BMIF 203 and BMI 702, Spring 2025

Lecture 7: Explainability and interpretability in medical AI, Feature importance and Shapley values, Bias and fairness in biomedical AI, Discussion: Is explainability critical or overrated?



**HARVARD**  
MEDICAL SCHOOL



**Kempner**  
INSTITUTE

For the Study of Natural  
& Artificial Intelligence  
at Harvard University



**BROAD**  
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# Outline of today's class

- **What is trustworthy AI?**
- Explaining AI predictions
- Definitions of fairness in AI
- Framework for fair AI
- Algorithmic fairness criteria
  - Individual fairness
  - Group fairness

# Trustworthy ML

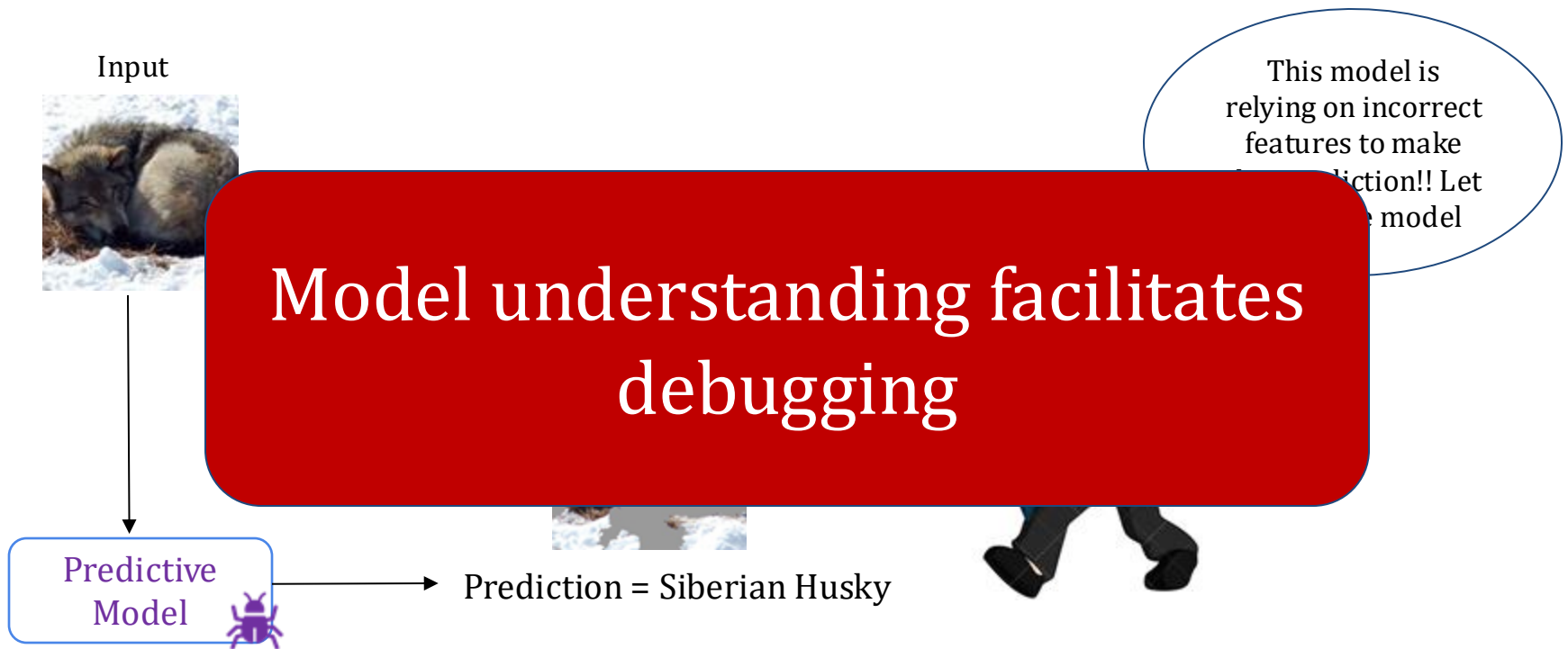
- ML models are increasingly being deployed in real-world applications
  - It is critical to ensure that these models are behaving responsibly and are trustworthy
- There has been growing interest to develop and deploy ML models and algorithms that are:
  - Not only accurate
  - But also **explainable, fair, privacy-preserving, causal, and robust**
- This broad area of research is commonly referred to as **trustworthy ML**

# Motivation

Model understanding is absolutely critical in several domains - particularly those involving **high stakes decisions**



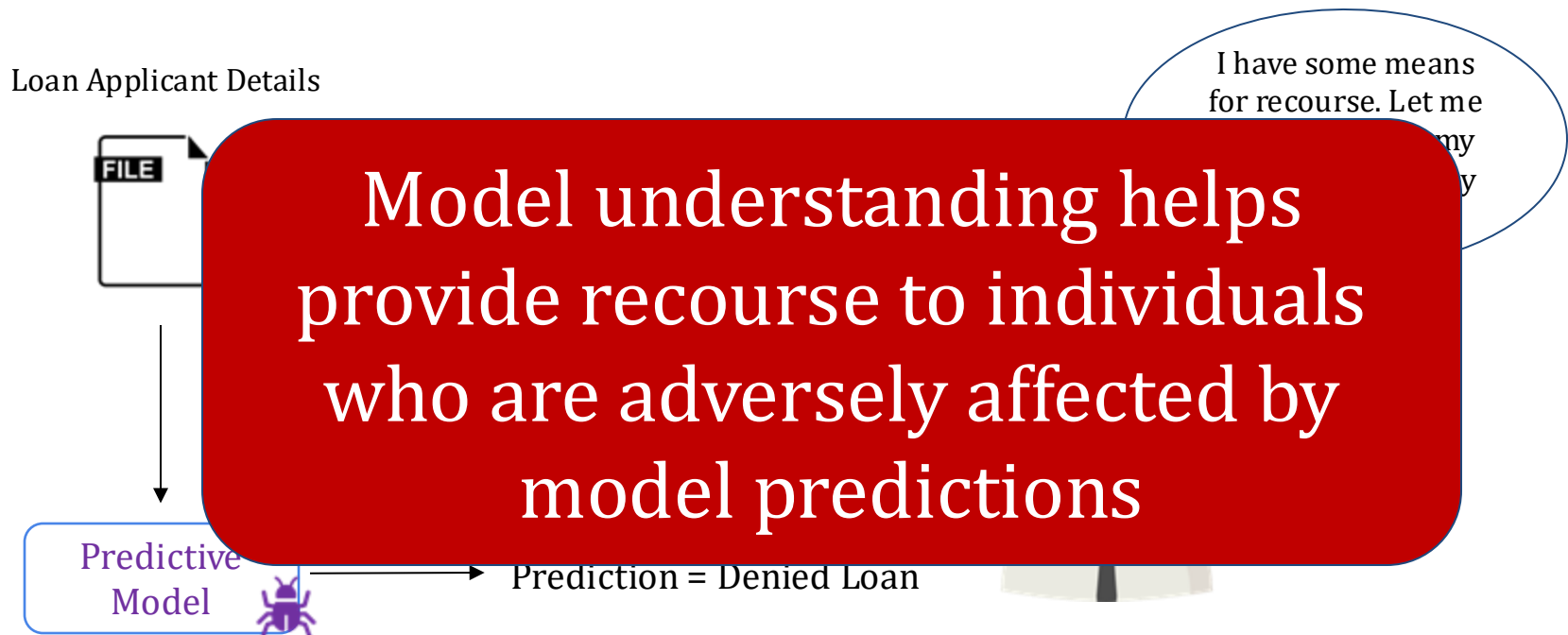
# Why model understanding?



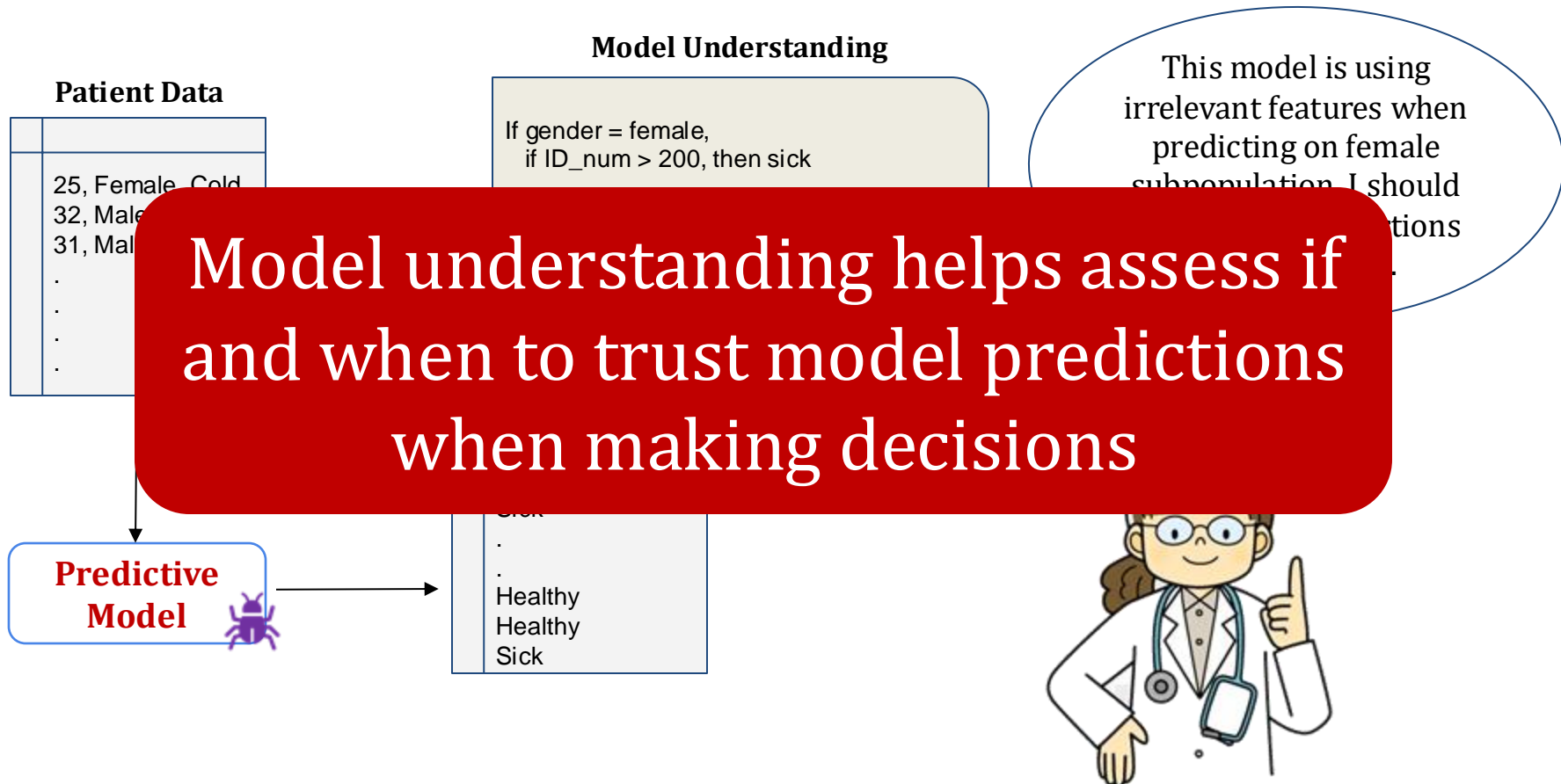
# Why model understanding?



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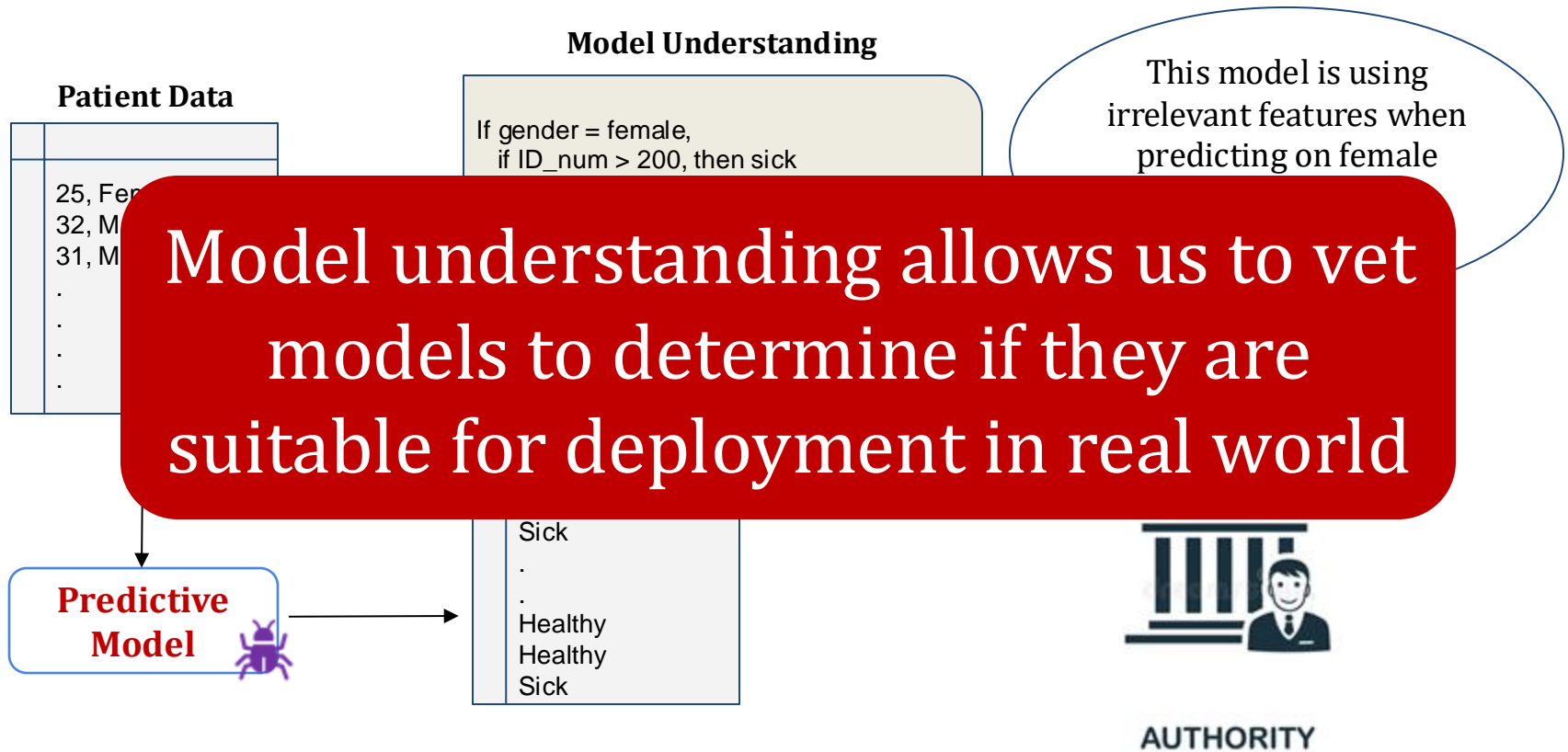


# Motivation: Why model understanding?





# Motivation: Why model understanding?



# Why should I care about understanding ML models?

## Utility

Debugging

Bias Detection

Recourse

If and when to trust model predictions

Vet models to assess suitability for deployment

## Stakeholders

End users (e.g., loan applicants)

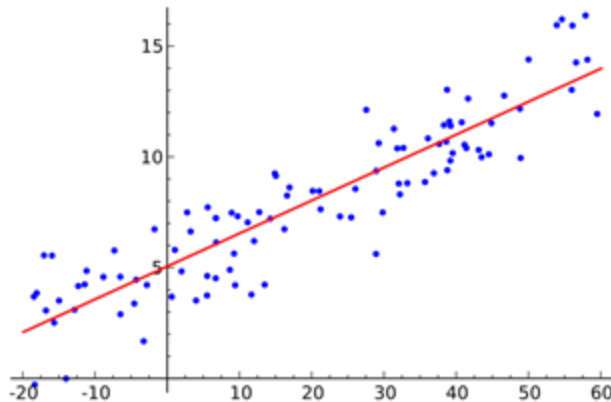
Decision makers (e.g., doctors, judges)

Regulatory agencies (e.g., FDA, European commission)

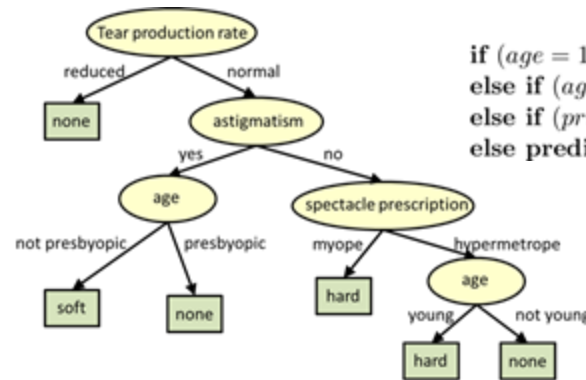
Researchers and engineers

# Achieving model understanding

**Goal:** Build inherently interpretable predictive models



Linear regression



if ( $age = 18 - 20$ ) and ( $sex = male$ ) then predict *yes*  
else if ( $age = 21 - 23$ ) and ( $priors = 2 - 3$ ) then predict *yes*  
else if ( $priors > 3$ ) then predict *yes*  
else predict *no*

Decision rules

Decision trees



Explanations using attention maps

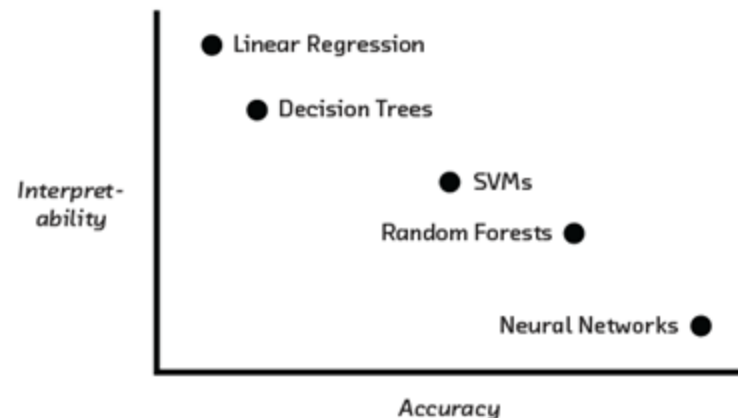
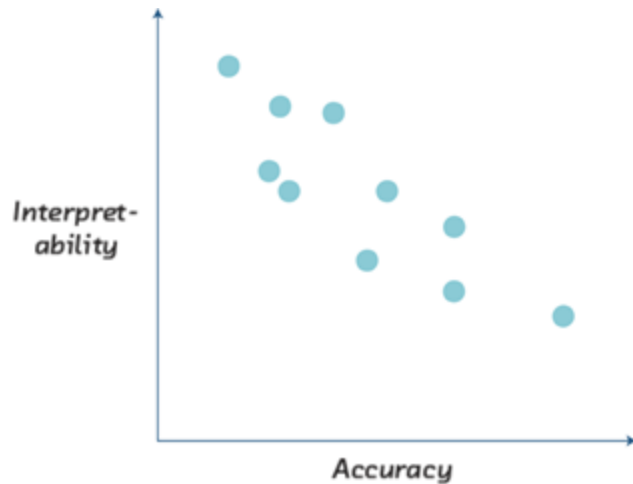
Saliency map of a black box (deep learning) model does not explain anything except where the model is looking: We have no idea why this image is labeled as either a dog or a musical instrument when considering only saliency. The explanations look essentially the same for both classes

Stop explaining black box machine learning models for high stakes decisions and use interpretable models instead, *Nature Machine Intelligence* 2019

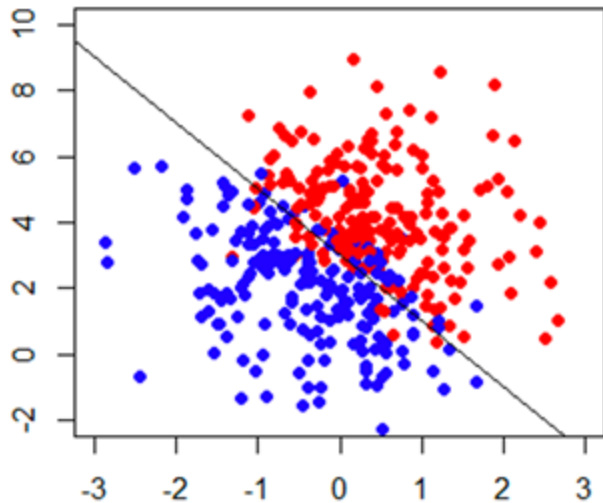
# Inherently interpretable models vs. post hoc explanations

Accuracy-interpretability trade offs may exist in certain settings

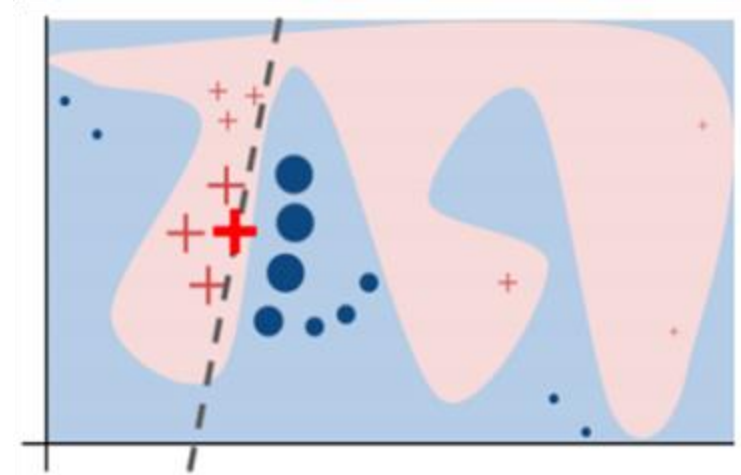
## Example



# Inherently interpretable models vs. post hoc explanations



Build interpretable and  
accurate models



Complex models might  
achieve higher accuracy

# Achieving model understanding

*Explain pre-built models in a post-hoc manner*

Interpretability/accuracy tradeoffs  
and proliferation of black box models  
force us to rely on post hoc  
“explanations” of ML models



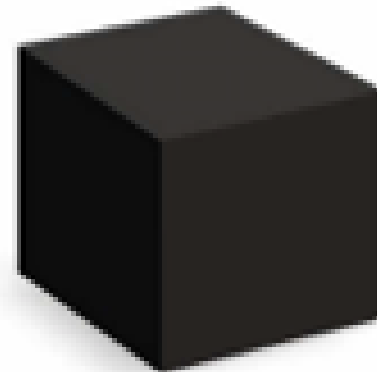
predict yes  
then predict yes



# Inherently interpretable models vs. post hoc explanations

- If you can build an interpretable model which is also adequately accurate for your setting, DO IT!
- Sometimes, you don't have enough data to build your model from scratch
- And, all you have is a (proprietary) black box!
- Post hoc explanations come to the rescue!

Next: Overview of post  
hoc explanations  
methods



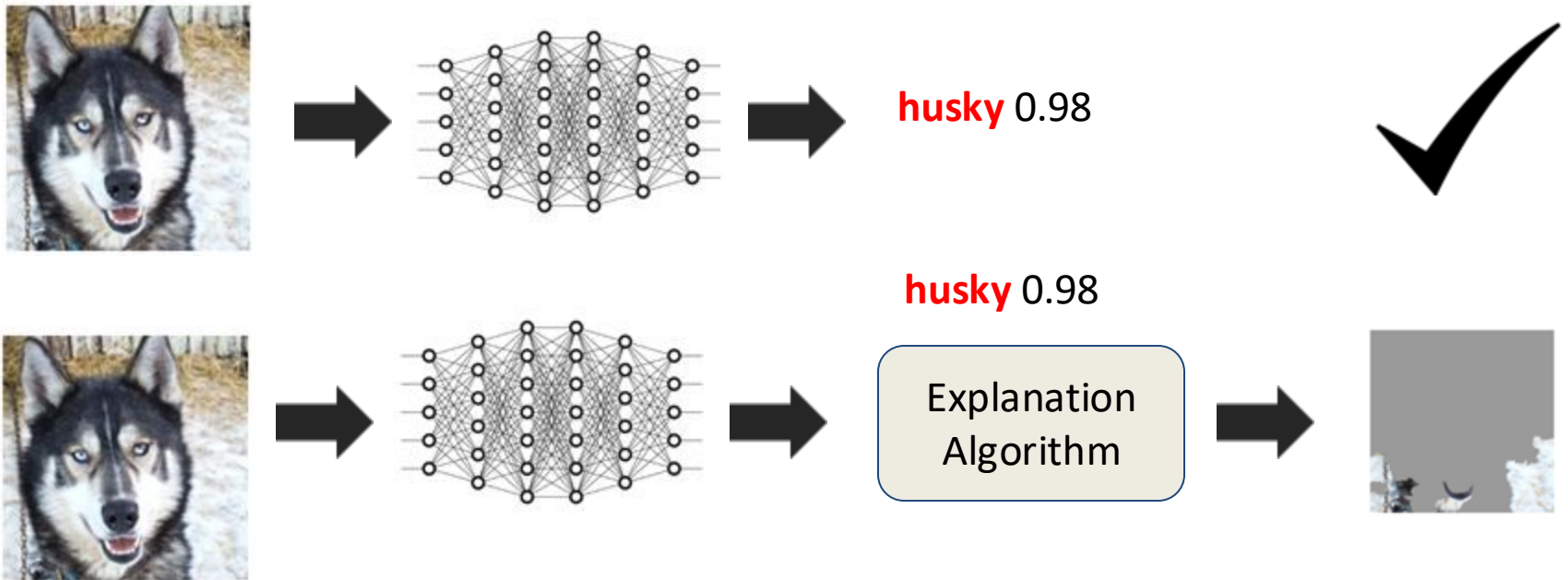
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  - Group fairness



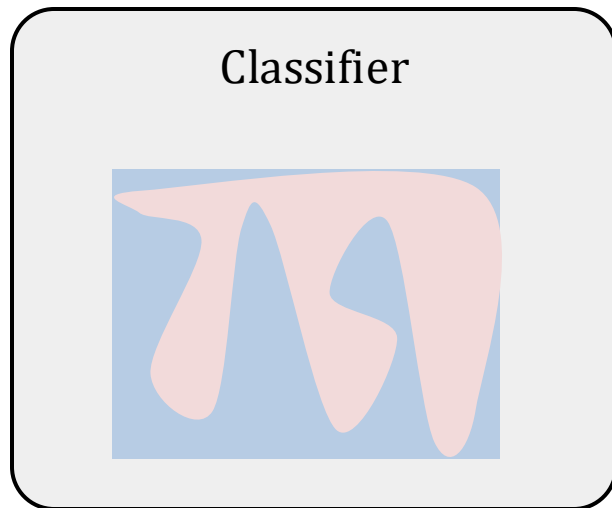
# Explainable AI

“Explainable AI refers to the set of approaches that provide an interpretable description of the behavior of a given (complex) model to end users.”



# What is an explanation?

- **Definition:** Interpretable description of the model behavior



Faithful

Explanation

Understandable

User



# Overview of explanation methods

## Local explanations

Explain individual predictions

Help unearth biases in the *local neighborhood* of a given instance

Help vet if individual predictions are being made for the right reasons

## Global explanations

Explain complete behavior of the model

Sheds light on *big picture biases* affecting larger subgroups

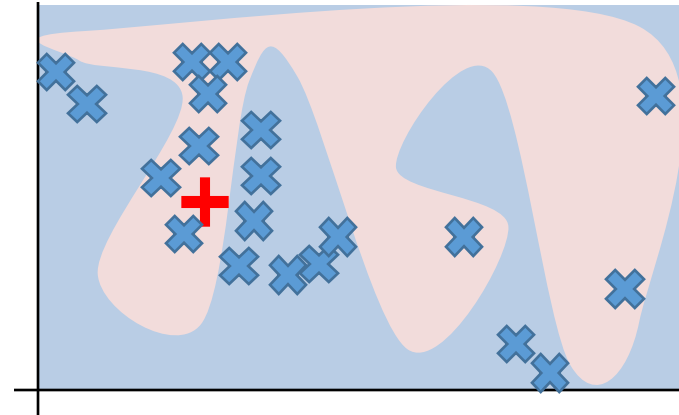
Help vet if the model, at a high level, is suitable for deployment

# Overview of explanation methods

- **Local explanation methods:**
  - Feature importance scoring
  - Integrated gradients
  - Prototype explanations
  - Counterfactuals
- **Global explanation methods:**
  - Collection of local explanations
  - Representation-based explanations
  - Model distillation

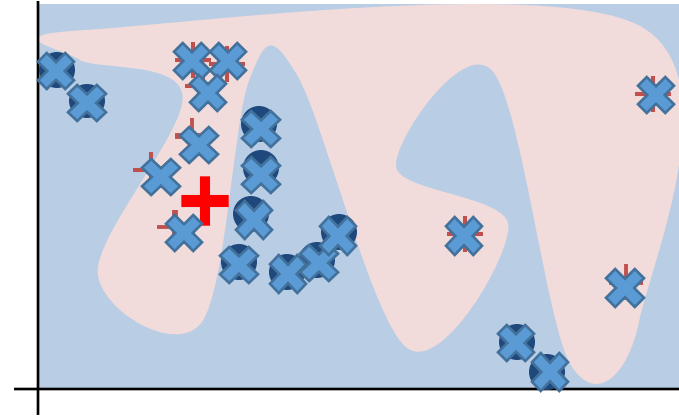
# LIME: Local interpretable model-agnostic explanations

1. Sample points around  $x_i$



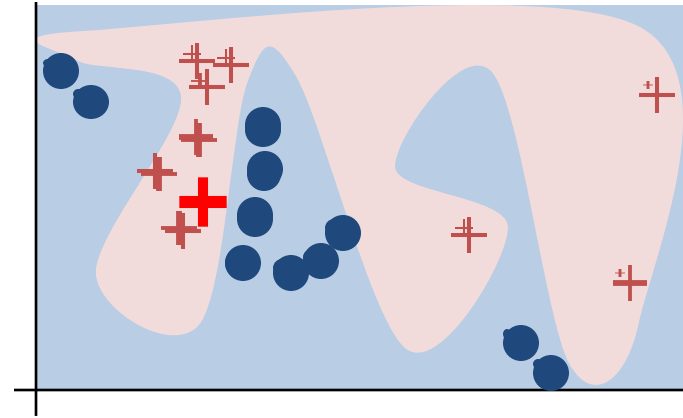
# LIME: Local interpretable model-agnostic explanations

1. Sample points around  $x_i$
2. Use model to predict labels for each sample



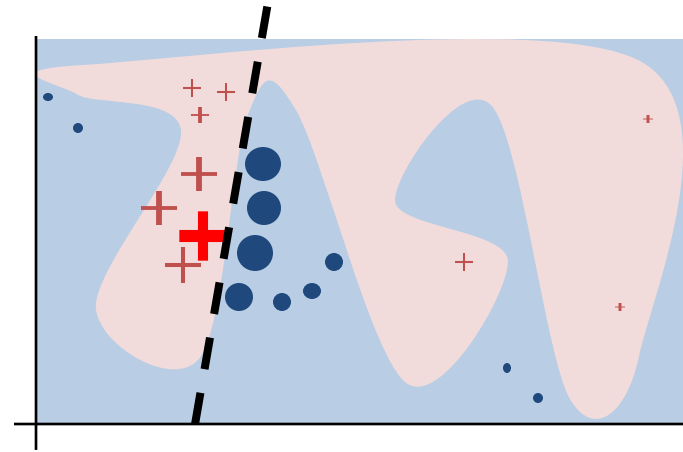
# LIME: Local interpretable model-agnostic explanations

1. Sample points around  $x_i$
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3. Weigh samples according to distance to  $x_i$



# LIME: Local interpretable model-agnostic explanations

1. Sample points around  $x_i$
2. Use model to predict labels for each sample
3. Weigh samples according to distance to  $x_i$
4. Learn simple linear model on weighted samples



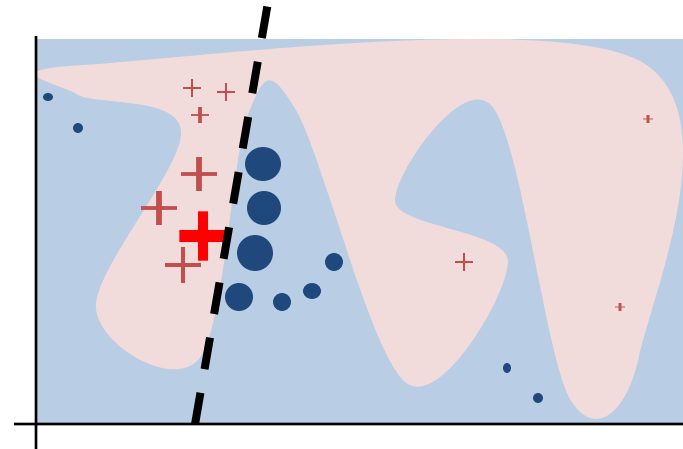


# LIME: Local interpretable model-agnostic explanations

1. Sample points around  $x_i$
2. Use model to predict labels for each sample
3. Weigh samples according to distance to  $x_i$
4. Learn simple linear model on weighted samples
5. Use simple linear model to explain  $x_i$

Another popular method which outputs feature importance scores: SHAP

SHAP values are based on game theory and assign an importance value to each feature in a model. Features with positive SHAP values positively impact the prediction, while those with negative values have a negative impact. The magnitude is a measure of how strong the effect is

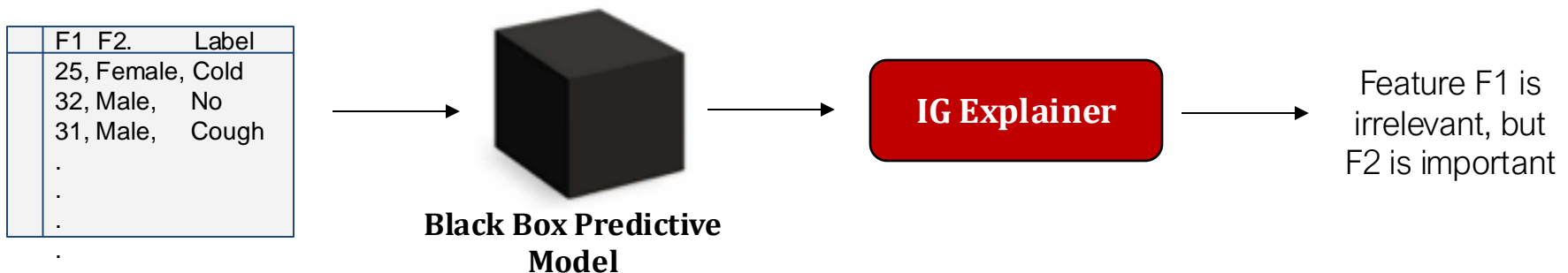


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# Integrated Gradients (IG)

- Integrated Gradients (IG) is an **explanation method** for deep neural networks
- It identifies important features that contribute most to the model's prediction



- Appealing properties of integrated gradients:
  - It can be applied to any differentiable model like models for images, text, or structured data
  - It requires no modification to the original ML model

# How does IG work?

- IG computes **gradients of the model's prediction w.r.t. input features**
- IG is built on two axioms which need to be satisfied:
  - Sensitivity and
  - Implementation invariance
- **Sensitivity:**
  - We establish a **baseline instance** as a starting point
  - We then build a sequence of instances which we interpolate from a baseline instance to the actual instance to calculate
- **Implementation invariance:**
  - Implementation invariance is satisfied when two **functionally equivalent** models have identical attributions for the same input image and the baseline image.
  - Two models are **functionally equivalent** when their outputs are equal for all inputs despite having very different implementations

# Calculating and visualizing IG

## ■ Setup:

- Let's consider an ML model for image classification
- We aim to use IG to explain the predicted image label



## ■ Step 1:

- Start from a baseline where the baseline can be a black image whose pixel values are all zero or an all-white image, or a random image
- Baseline input is one where the prediction is neutral and is central to any explanation method and visualizing pixel feature importance scores

# Calculating and visualizing IG

## ■ Step 2:

- Generate a linear interpolation between the baseline and the original image
- Interpolated images are small steps( $\alpha$ ) in the feature space between your baseline and input image and consistently increase with each interpolated image's intensity



# Calculating and visualizing IG

- **Step 3:** Calculate gradients to measure the relationship between changes to a feature and changes in the model's predictions
- The gradient informs which pixel has the strongest effect on the model's predicted class probabilities
  - Varying variable changes the output, and the variable will receive some attribution to help calculate the feature importances for the input image
  - Variable that does not affect the output gets no attribution
- **Step 4:** Compute the numerical approximation through **averaging gradients** (that's why the method's name is integrated gradients)

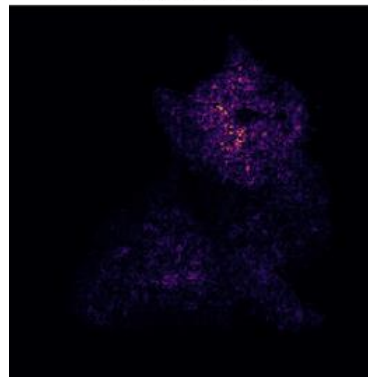
# Calculating and visualizing IG

## ■ Step 5:

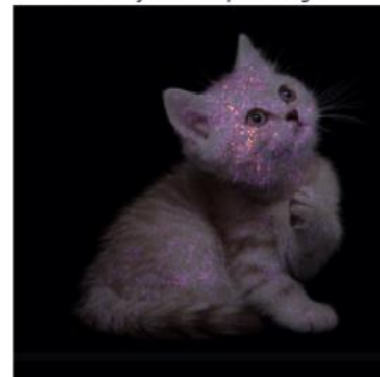
- Scale IG to the input image to ensure that the attribution values are accumulated across multiple interpolated images are all in the same units
- Represent the IG on the input image with the pixel importances

IG helps us explain what an ML model looks at to make a prediction by highlighting the feature importances. It does this by computing the gradient of the model's prediction output to its input features.

Attribution mask



Overlay IG on Input image





# Overview of explanation methods

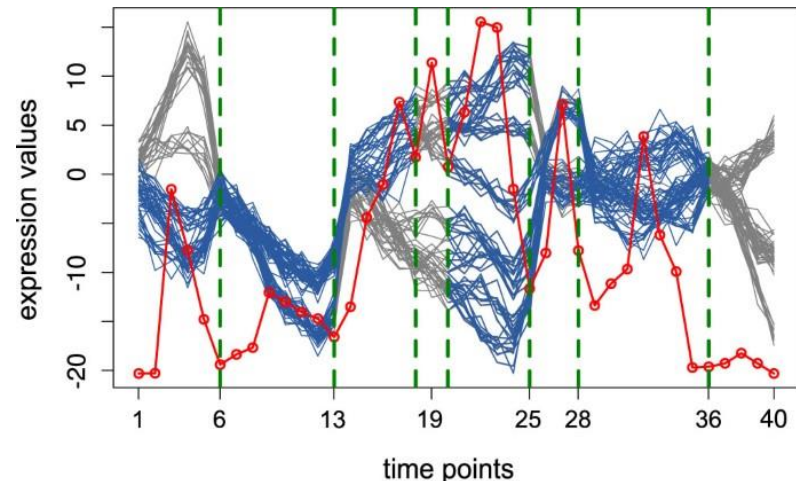
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# Prototype-based explanations

- Use examples (synthetic or natural) to explain individual predictions
- **Influence Functions (Koh & Liang 2017)**
  - Identify instances in the training set that are responsible for the prediction of a given test instance
- **Activation Maximization (Erhan et al. 2009)**
  - Identify examples (synthetic or natural) that strongly activate a function (neuron) of interest

# Prototypes for explaining time series models

- Time series are not easily visually interpretable
  - Noisy samples
  - Dense informative features, unlike imaging and text modalities
- **Temporal patterns**
  - Only show up when looking at time segments and long-term behaviors
- **Perturbations matter**
  - Setting a value to zero does not ignore that time point
  - Temporal dependencies cannot be ignored



Omranian et al., 2015

# Existing time series explainers are inadequate

## 1 Perturbations are continuous

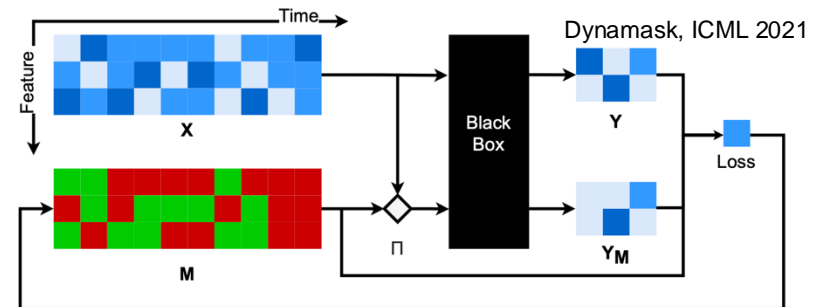
- Can deform shape of samples

## 2 Give only instance-based explanations

- Cannot relate patterns across samples

## 3 Fail to match performance of generic explainers

- Post-hoc methods suffer from a lack of faithfulness and stability

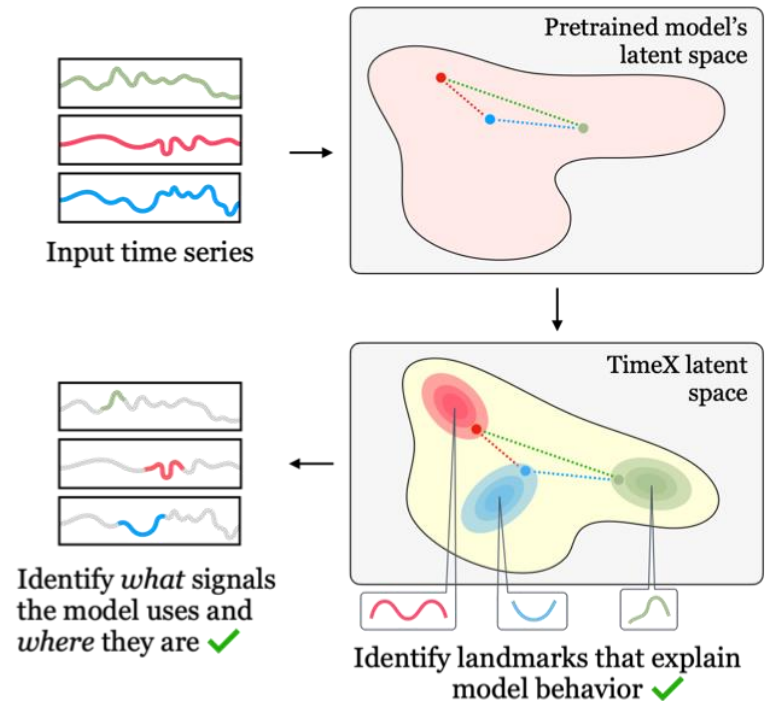


### Desiderata for time series explanations

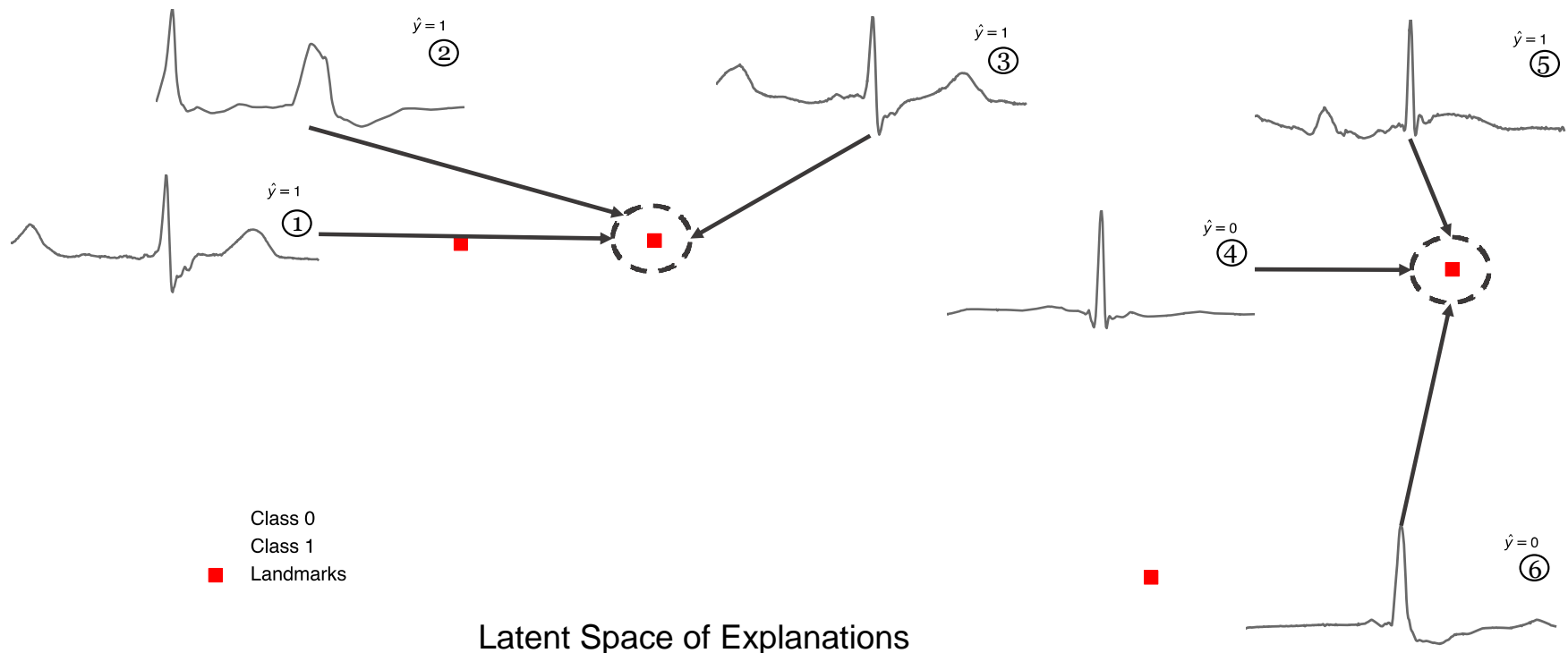
- Temporally connected and visually digestible
- Identify the location of predictive time series signals and underlying interpretable patterns
- Connect explanations across samples

# TimeX is a time-series consistency explainer

- Surrogate model to mimic the behavior of a pretrained time series model
- TimeX makes inferences on masked samples
- **Model behavior consistency**
  - Enforces faithfulness at the level of the latent space
  - Learns a flexible latent space of explanations



# Learned landmarks represent important patterns in physiological time series



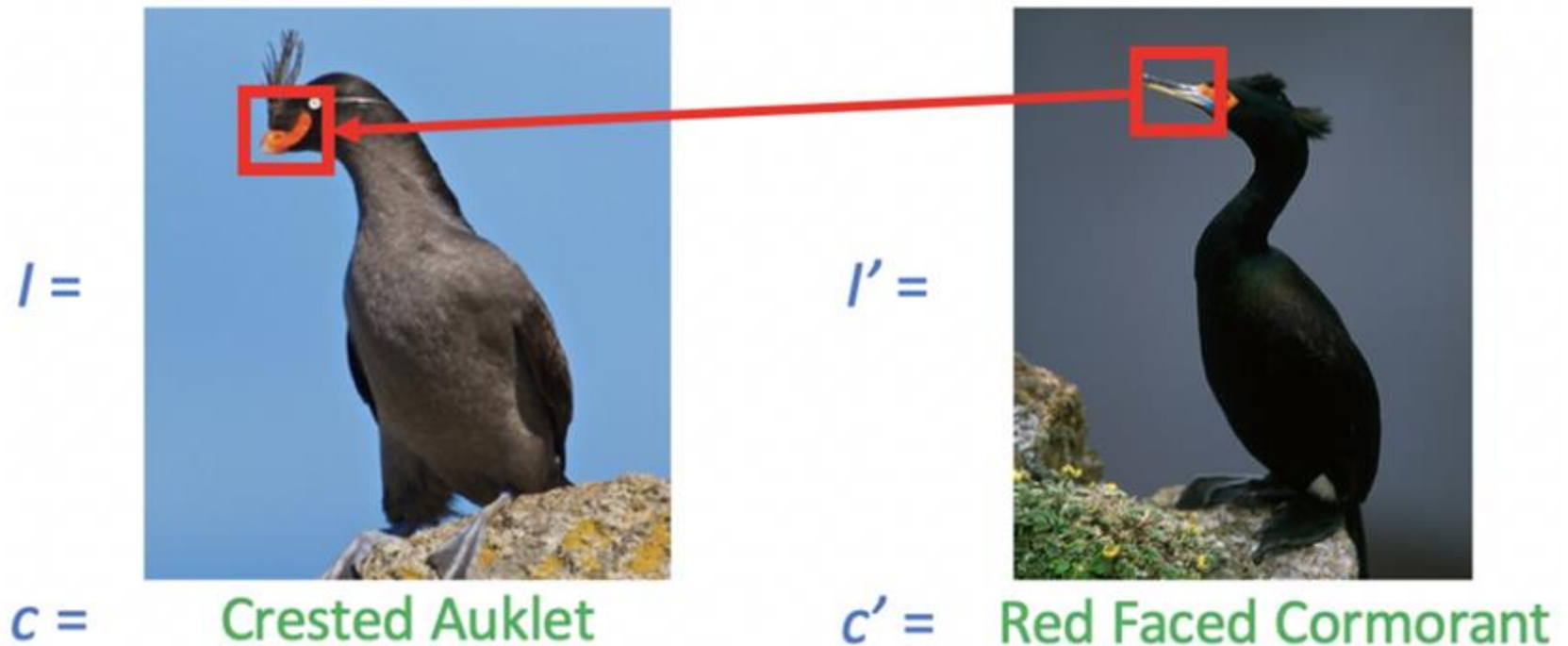
**Landmarks partition the latent space of explanations  
into interpretable temporal patterns**

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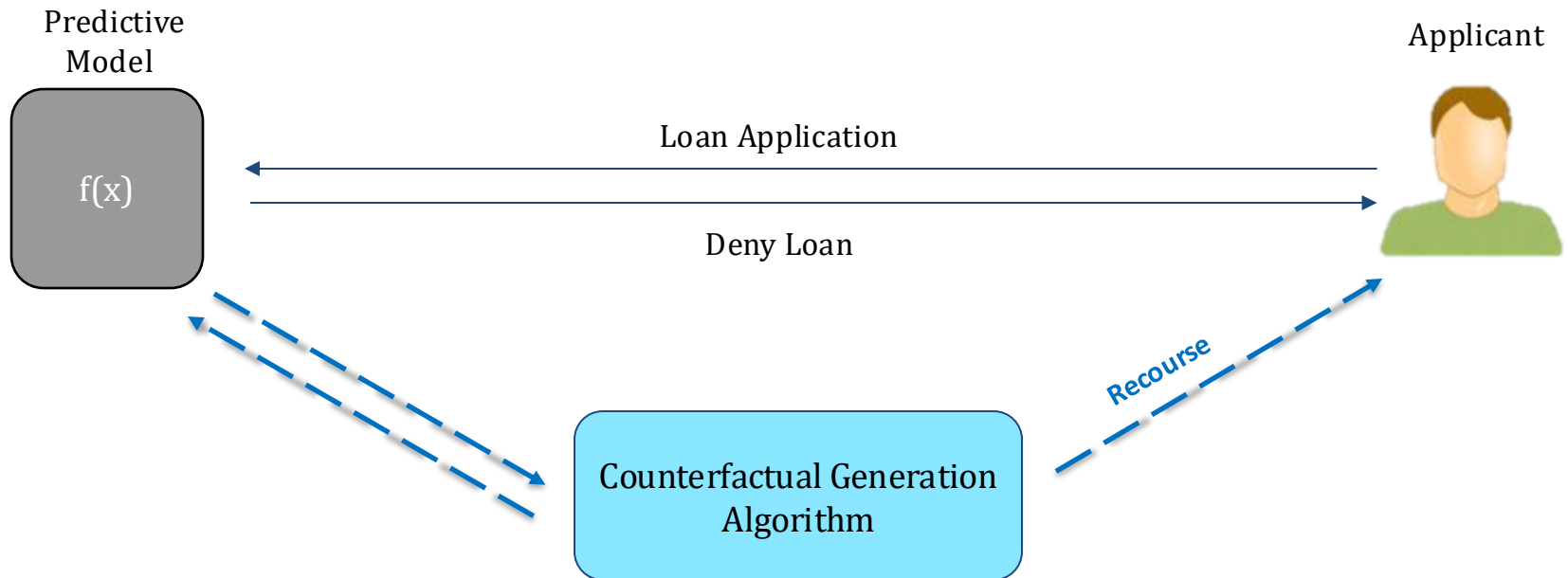
# Counterfactual explanations

What features need to be changed and by how much to flip a model's prediction?



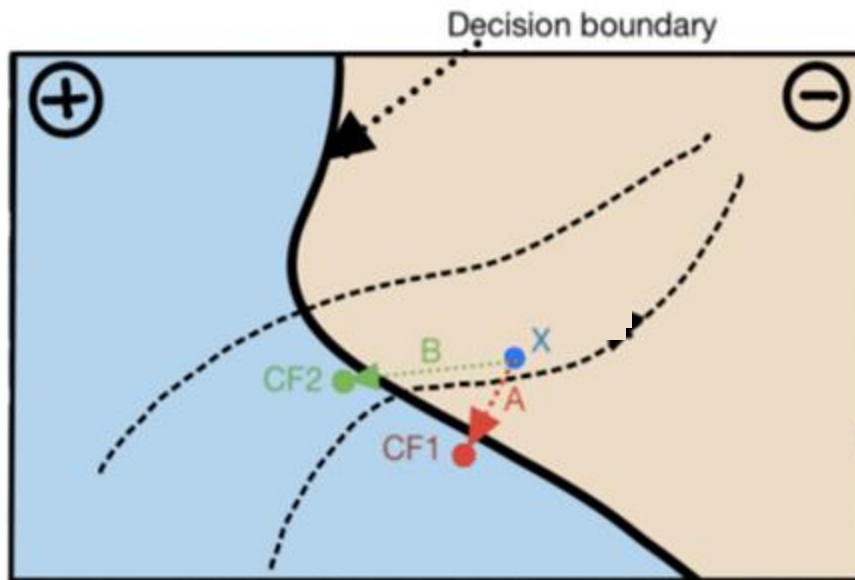


# Counterfactual explanations



**Recourse:** Increase your salary by 50K & pay your credit card bills on time for next 3 months

# Generating counterfactual explanations: Intuition



Proposed solutions differ on:

1. **How to choose** among candidate counterfactuals?
1. **How much access** is needed to the underlying predictive model?

# Quick Check

<https://forms.gle/r7B2PKemuzpG1uSC7>

## AIM 2: Artificial Intelligence in Medicine II

Harvard - BMIF 203 and BMI 702, Spring 2025

Lecture 7: Explainability and interpretability in medical AI, Feature importance and Shapley values, Bias and fairness in biomedical AI, Discussion: Is explainability critical or overrated?

Course website and slides: <https://zitniklab.hms.harvard.edu/AIM2>

marinka@hms.harvard.edu [Switch account](#)

Not shared

\* Indicates required question

First and last name \*

Your answer

Harvard email address \*

Your answer

Describe a scenario in which a predictive model is created using a healthcare or biomedical dataset and the LIME explainability method is used to analyze its behavior. What can be expected from the LIME explanations? \*

Your answer

Describe a scenario in which a predictive model is created using a healthcare or biomedical dataset and the Integrated Gradients explainability method is used to analyze its behavior. What can be expected from the Integrated Gradients explanations? \*

Your answer

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# Global explanations from local feature importances: SP-LIME

LIME explains a single prediction  
local behavior for a single instance

Can't examine all explanations  
Instead pick  $k$  explanations to show to the user

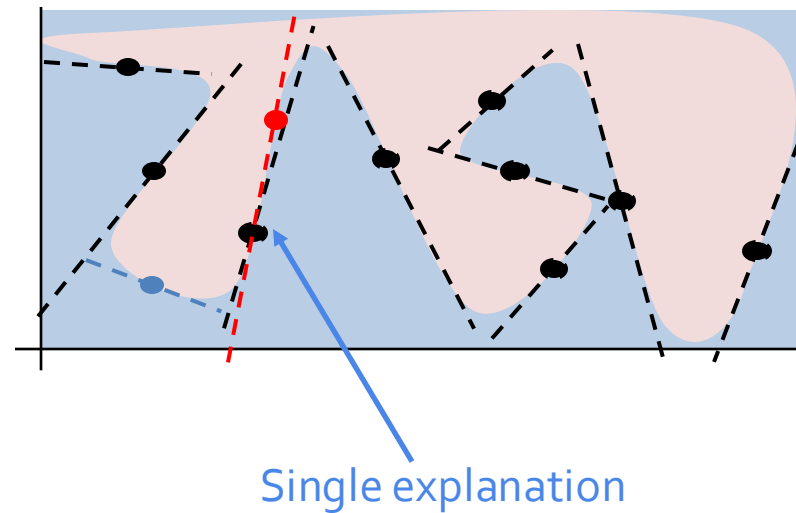
**Representative**

Should summarize the  
model's global behavior

**Diverse**

Should not be redundant  
in their descriptions

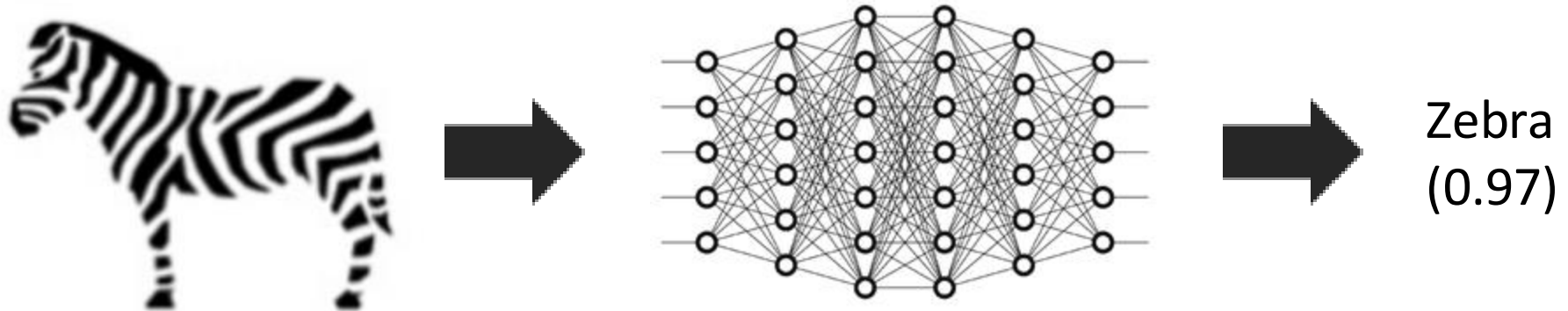
SP-LIME uses submodular optimization  
and *greedily* picks  $k$  explanations



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# Representation-based explanations



How important is the notion of “stripes” for this prediction?

# Representation-based explanations: TCAV approach

Examples of the concept “stripes”

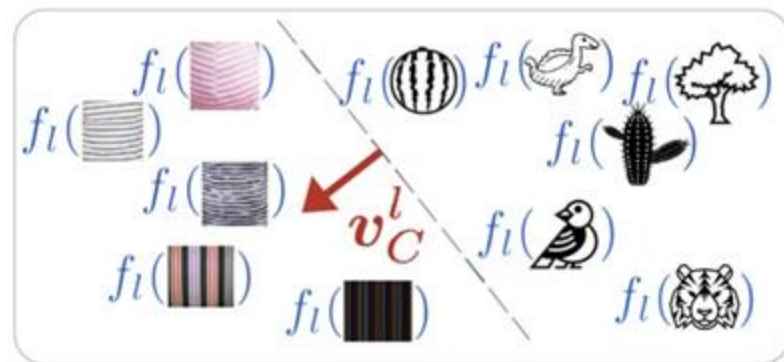
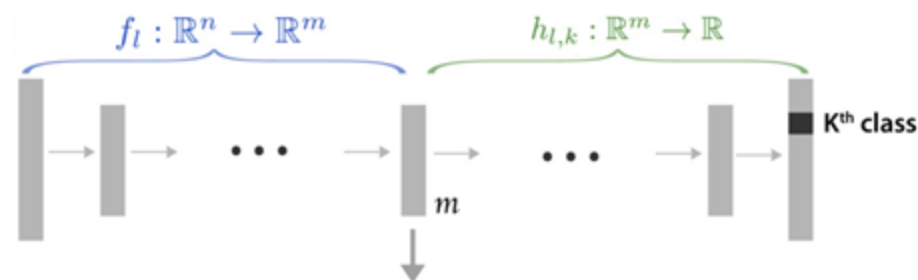


Random examples

Train a linear classifier to separate activations

The vector orthogonal to the decision boundary denotes the concept “stripes”

Compute gradient w.r.t. this vector to determine how important is the notion of stripes for a prediction



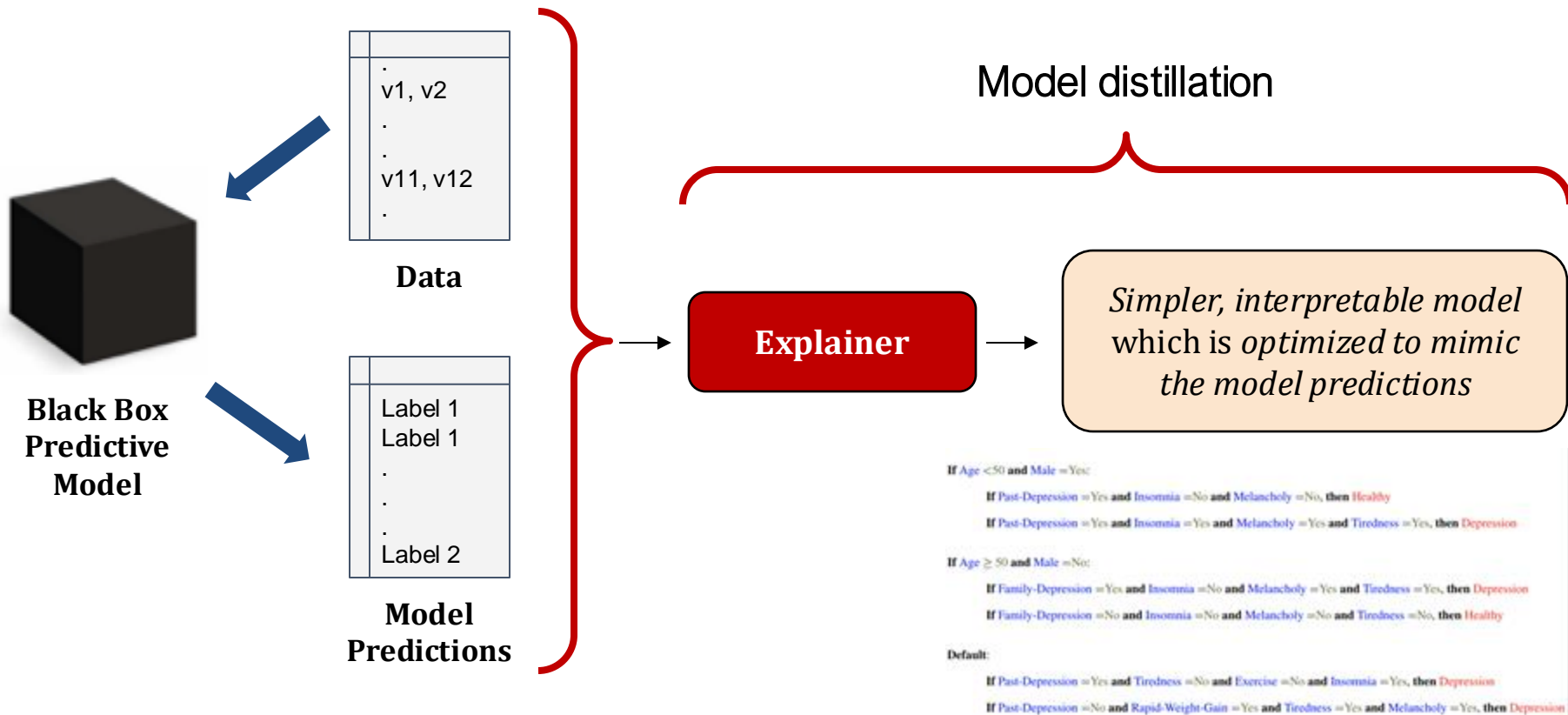
TCAV = testing with concept activation vectors



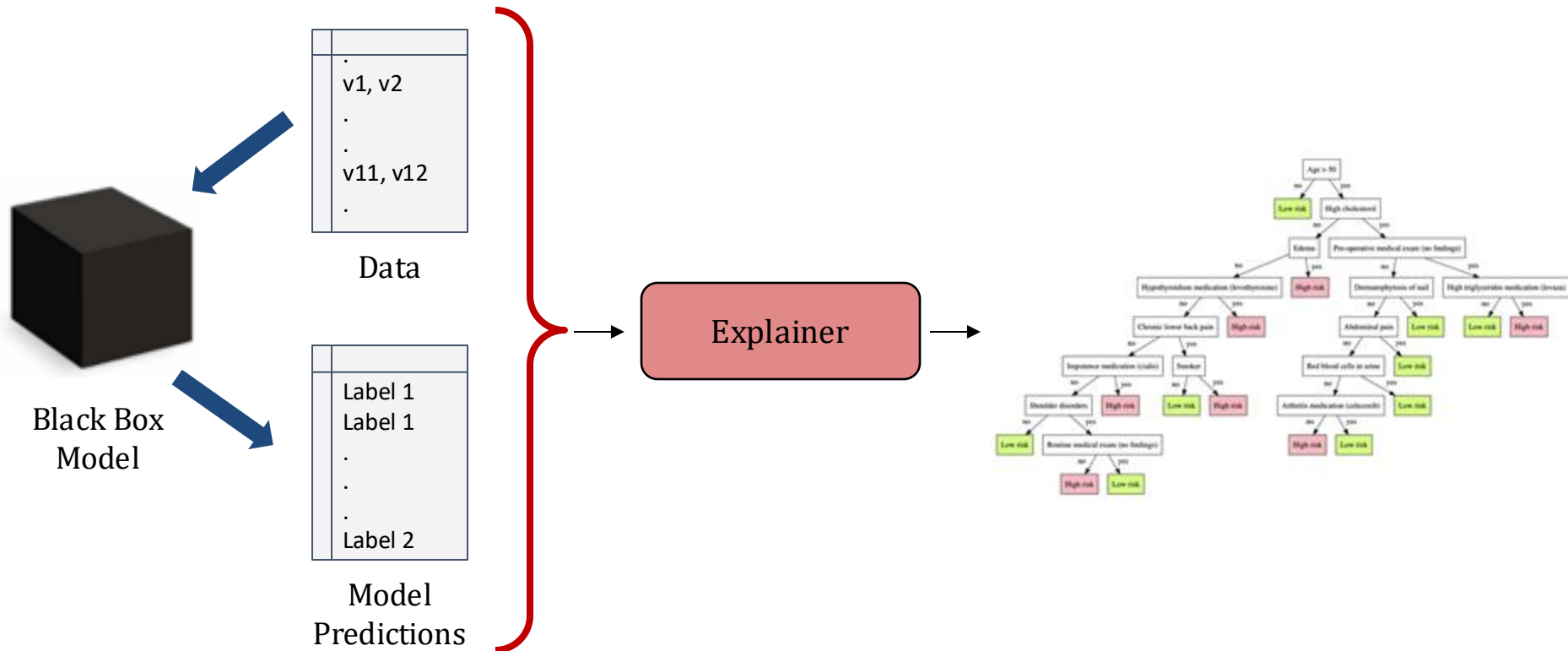
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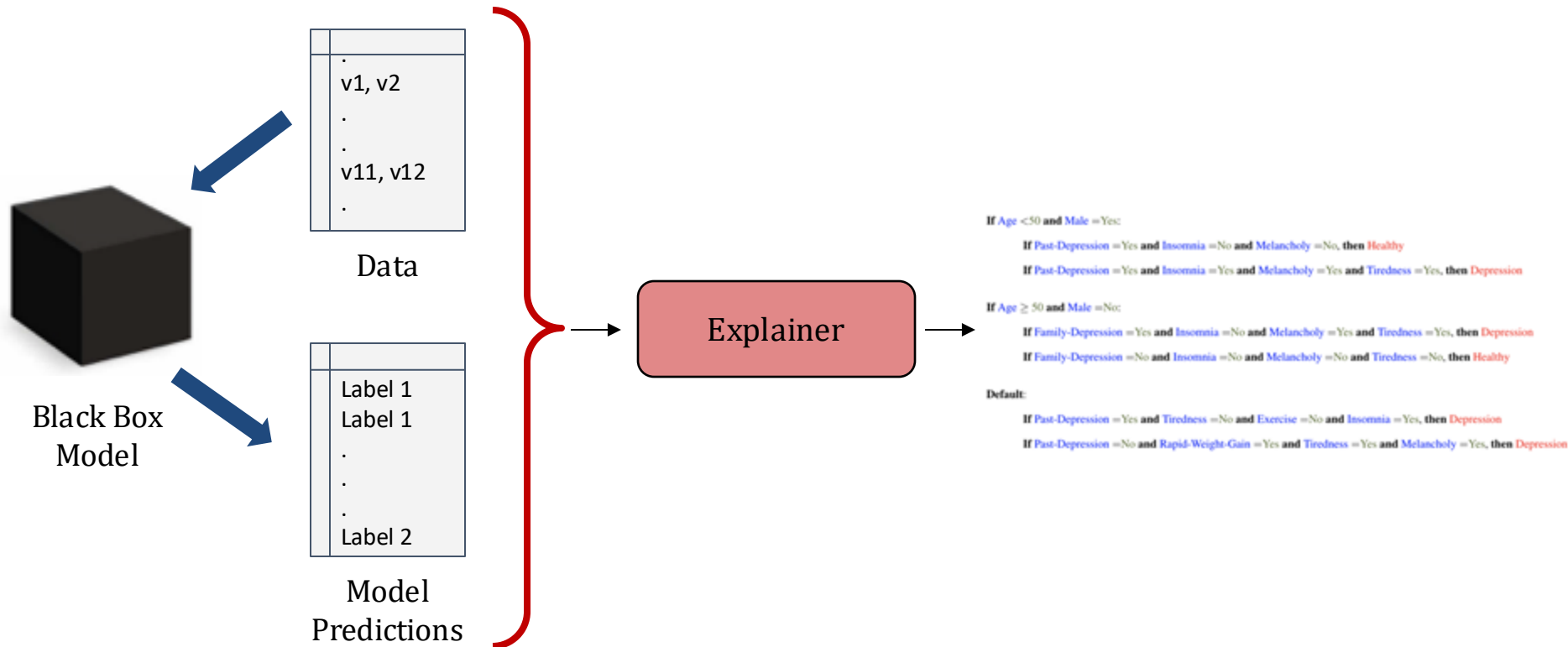
# Model distillation



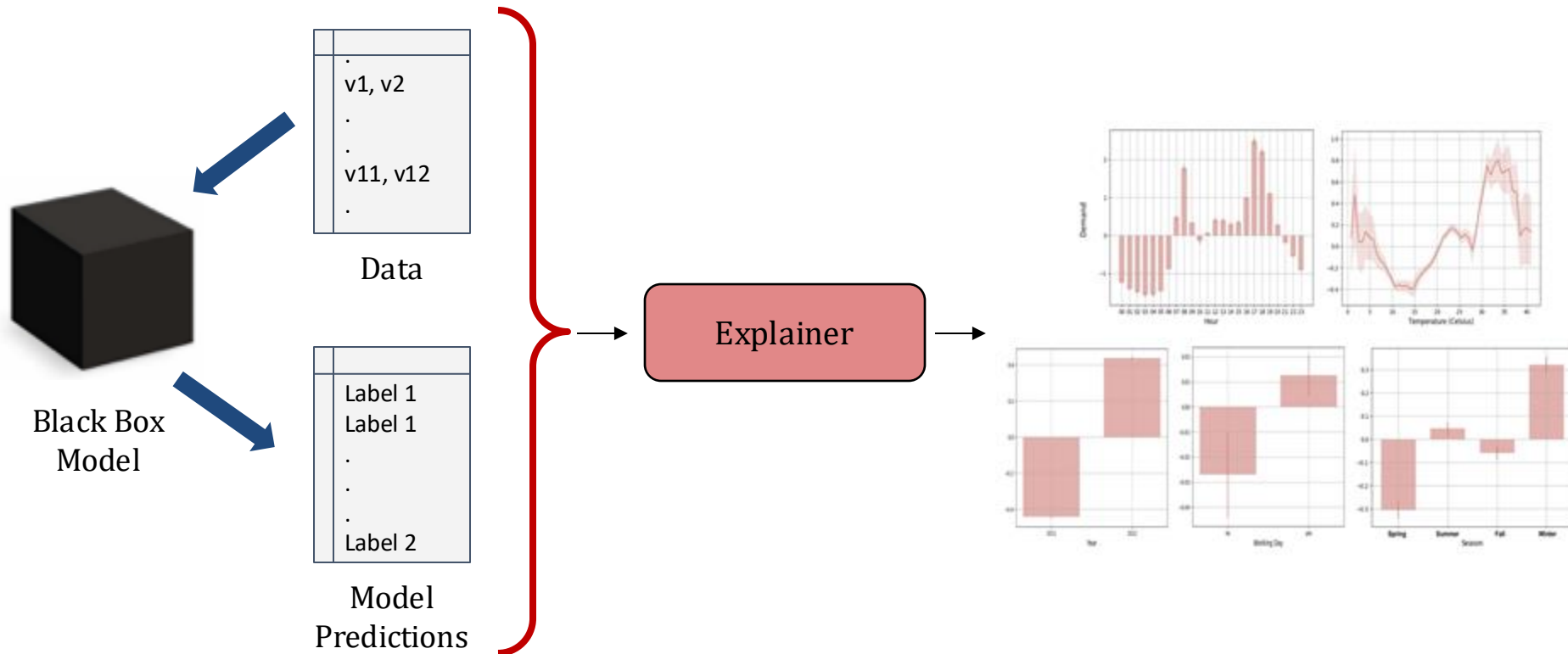
# Model distillation using decision trees



# Model distillation using decision sets



# Model distillation using generalized additive models



# Overview of explanation methods

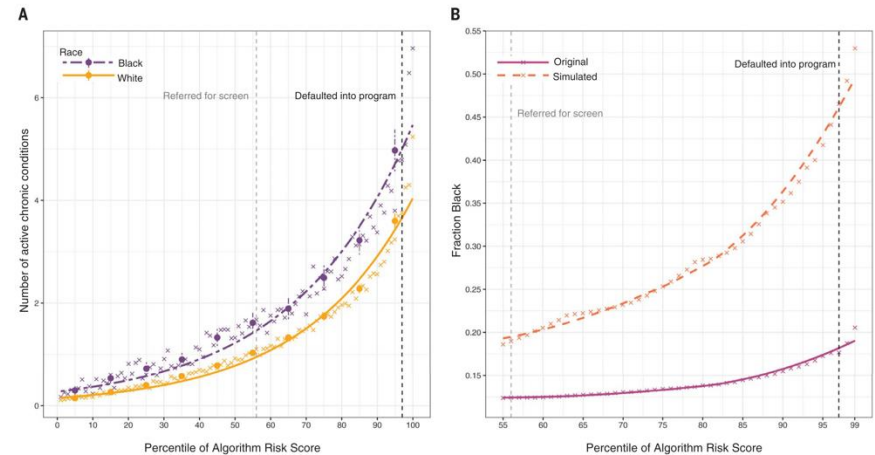
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# Adopting AI in high-stakes areas

- Healthcare
  - Genomic medicine
  - Public health policy
  - Child welfare
- 
- Criminal risk assessment
  - Surveillance
  - Financial lending
  - Hiring



replaced with less healthy Blacks below the threshold, until the marginal patient is equally healthy). The × symbols show risk percentiles by race; circles show risk deciles with 95% confidence intervals clustered by patient. The dashed vertical lines show the auto-identification threshold (the black line, which denotes the 97th percentile) and the screening threshold (the gray line, which denotes the 55th percentile).

Obermeyer et al. *Science* 2019





# Three problematic examples

## 1. High-risk Healthcare Management

- Commercial prediction models are used by large health systems to identify and help patients with complex health needs.
- These models can exhibit significant bias: At a given risk score, black patients are considerably sicker than white patients
- The bias arises because the algorithm predicts health care costs rather than illness

## 2. Criminal Risk Assessment Tools

- Defendants are assigned scores that predict the risk of re-committing crimes
- These scores inform decisions about bail, sentencing, and parole.
- Some tools have been biased against black defendants

## 3. Face Recognition Systems

- Surveillance and self-driving cars
- Systems can perform poorly for populations that are not well represented in training dataset



## The COMPAS debate

<https://www.propublica.org/article/machine-bias-risk-assessments-in-criminal-sentencing>

*Bernard Parker, left, was rated high risk; Dylan Fugett was rated low risk. (Josh Ritchie for ProPublica)*

# Machine Bias

There's software used across the country to predict future criminals. And it's biased against blacks.

*by Julia Angwin, Jeff Larson, Surya Mattu and Lauren Kirchner, ProPublica*

# COMPAS

- Correctional Offender Management Profiling for Alternative Sanctions
- Used in prisons across country: AZ, CO, DL, KY, LA, OK, VA, WA, WI
- “Evaluation of a defendant’s rehabilitation needs”
- Recidivism = likelihood of criminal to reoffend

# COMPAS (continued)

“Our analysis of Northpointe’s tool, called COMPAS, found that black defendants were far more likely than white defendants to be incorrectly judged to be at a higher risk of recidivism, while white defendants were more likely than black defendants to be incorrectly flagged as low risk.”

# What are protected classes?

- **Protected classes in the US:**
  - Race
  - Sex
  - Religion
  - National origin
  - Citizenship
  - Pregnancy
  - Disability status
  - Genetic information
- **Regulated domains in the US:**
  - Credit (Equal Credit Opportunity Act)
  - Education (Civil Rights Act of 1964; Education Amend. of 1972)
  - Employment (Civil Rights Act of 1964)
  - Housing (Fair Housing Act)

# Fairness in ML

- **It does not necessarily mean being malicious:** Bias can occur even when everyone, from data generators to engineers to clinical staff, has the best intentions
- **It is not one and done:** Just because an algorithm has no bias now does not mean it has no potential bias later
- **It is not new:** Researchers have raised concerns about it over the last 50 years
- It is defined in many ways, for example, **disparate treatment** or **impact of algorithm**
- It can be a **culmination of a flawed system**
  - Biases in data collection processes
  - Biases in algorithmic design
  - Bias in model implementation/deployment
- It is the **vigilance** of how technology can amplify/create bias

# How to define fairness in ML?

- Fairness through unawareness
- Group fairness
- Calibration
- Error rate balance
- Representational fairness
- Counterfactual fairness
- Individual fairness

# Fairness through unawareness

- **Idea:** Don't record protected attributes, and don't use them in your algorithm
  - Predict risk  $Y$  from features  $X$  and group  $S$  using  $P(\hat{Y} = Y|X)$  instead of  $P(\hat{Y} = Y|X, S)$
- **Pros:** Guaranteed to not be making a judgement on protected attribute
- **Cons:** Other proxies may still be included in a “race-blind” setting, e.g. zip code or conditions





# Group fairness

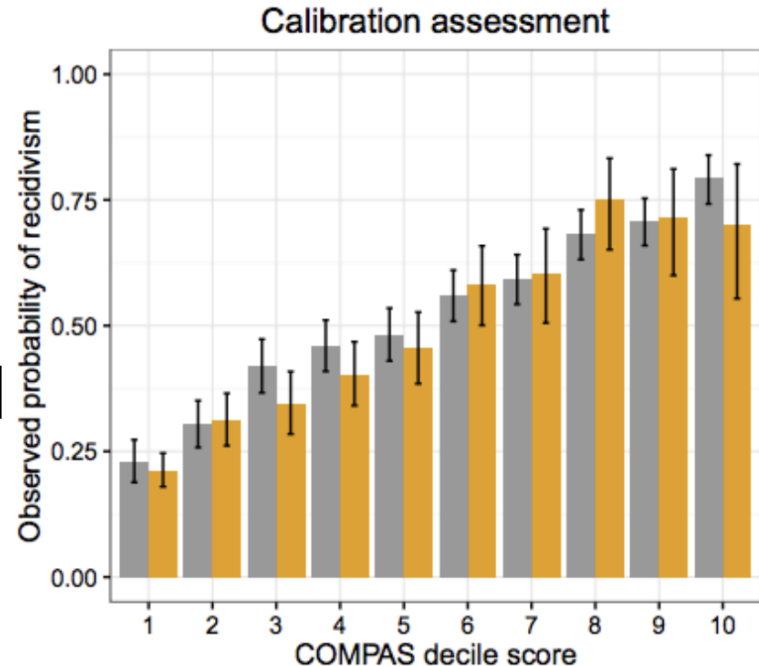
- **Idea:** Require prediction rate be the same across protected groups
  - E.g. “20% of the resources should go to the group that has 20% of population”
- Predict risk  $Y$  from features  $X$  and group  $S$  such that  $P(\hat{Y} = 1|S = 1) = P(\hat{Y} = 1|S = 0)$
- **Pros:** Literally treats each race equally
- **Cons:**
  - Too strong: Groups might have different base rates. Then, even a perfect classifier wouldn't qualify as “fair”
  - Too weak: Doesn't control error rate. Could be perfectly biased (correct for  $S = 0$  and wrong for  $S = 1$ ) and still satisfy

# Calibration

- **Idea:** Same positive predictive value across groups
- Predict  $Y$  from features  $X$  and group  $S$  with score  $R$ :

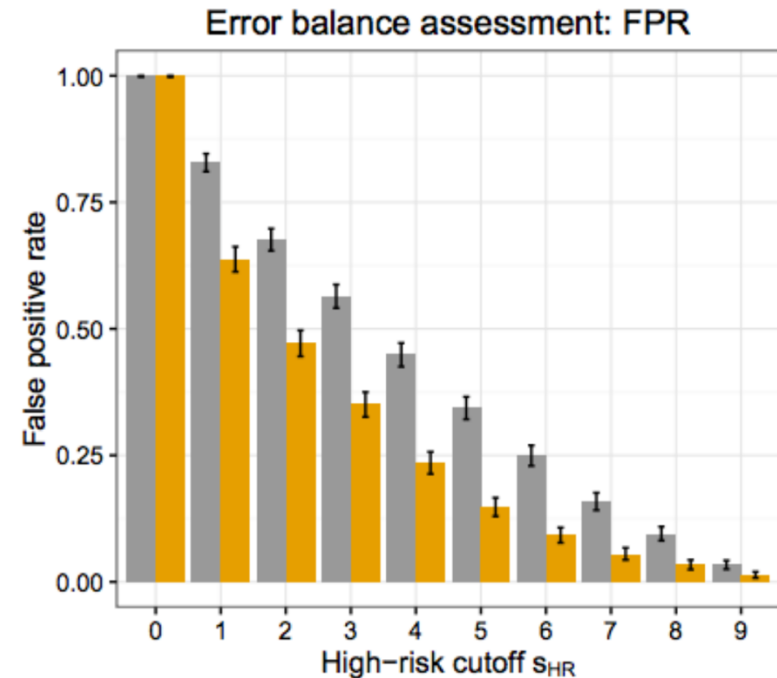
$$\frac{P(Y = 1 | R = r, A = 1)}{P(Y = 1 | R = r, A = 0)} =$$

- **Pros:** “Equally right across groups”
- **Cons:** Not compatible with error rate balance (next slide)



# Error rate balance

- **Idea:** Equal false positive rates (FPR) across groups  
$$P(\hat{Y} = 1 | Y = 0, S = 1)$$
$$= P(\hat{Y} = 1 | Y = 0, S = 0)$$
- **Pros:** “Equally wrong across groups”
- **Cons:** Incompatible with calibration and false negative rates (FNR), could dilute with easy cases



# Inherent Trade-Offs in the Fair Determination of Risk Scores

Jon Kleinberg \*

Sendhil Mullainathan †

Manish Raghavan ‡

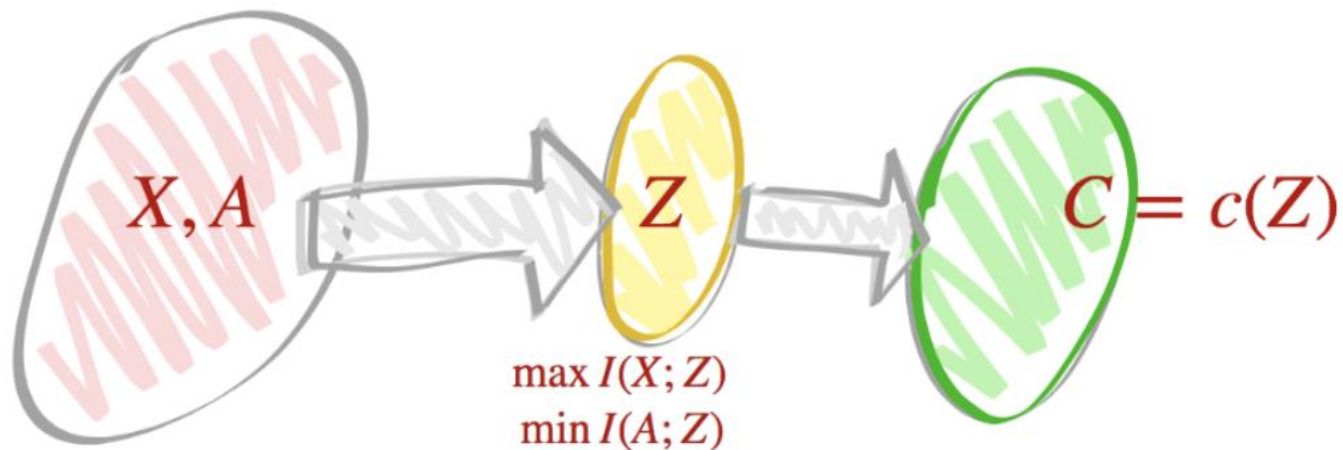
## Abstract

Recent discussion in the public sphere about algorithmic classification has involved tension between competing notions of what it means for a probabilistic classification to be fair to different groups. We formalize three fairness conditions that lie at the heart of these debates, and we prove that except in highly constrained special cases, there is no method that can satisfy these three conditions simultaneously. Moreover, even satisfying all three conditions approximately requires that the data lie in an approximate version of one of the constrained special cases identified by our theorem. These results suggest some of the ways in which key notions of fairness are incompatible with each other, and hence provide a framework for thinking about the trade-offs between them.

framework for thinking about the trade-offs between them.

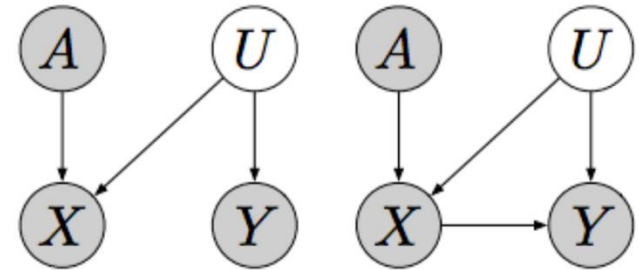
# Representational fairness

- **Idea:** Transform input feature vectors in “fair representations  $Z$  to minimize group information
- **Pros:** Reduce information given to model while still keeping important information
- **Cons:** Trade-off between accuracy and fairness



# Counterfactual fairness

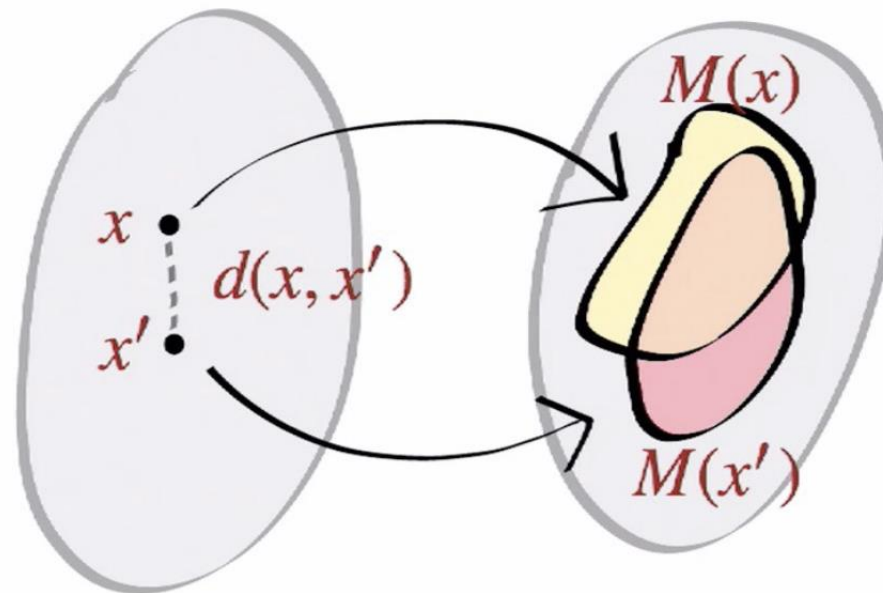
- **Idea:** Group  $A$  should not cause prediction  $\hat{Y}$
- **Pros:** Can model explicit dependencies between features
- **Cons:**
  - Dependency graphs may not represent real world
  - Inference assumes observed confounders



$$P(\hat{Y}_{A \leftarrow a}(U) = y \mid X = x, A = a) \\ = P(\hat{Y}_{A \leftarrow a'}(U) = y \mid X = x, A = a)$$

# Individual fairness

- **Idea:** Similar individuals should be treated similarly
- **Pros:** Can model heterogeneity within each group
- **Cons:** Notion of “similar” is hard to define mathematically, especially in high dimensions



# How to define “fairness” in ML?

■ ~~Fairness through unawareness~~

Not useful

■ Group fairness

■ Calibration

■ Error rate balance

Established  
strategies

■ Representational fairness

■ Counterfactual fairness

■ Individual fairness

Ongoing and  
cutting-edge research



# One fairness definition or one framework

## 21 Fairness Definitions and Their Politics. Arvind Narayanan.

ACM Conference on Fairness,  
Accountability, and Transparency  
Tutorial (2018)

S. Mitchell, E. Potash, and S. Barocas (2018)  
P. Gajane and M. Pechenizkiy (2018)  
S. Verma and J. Rubin (2018)

Differences/connections between  
fairness definitions are difficult to  
grasp.

We lack common language/framework.

*“Nobody has found a definition which is  
widely agreed as a good definition of  
fairness in the same way we have for, say,  
the security of a random number  
generator.”*

*“There are a number of definitions and  
research groups are not on the same  
page when it comes to the definition of  
fairness.”*

*“The search for one true definition  
is not a fruitful direction, as  
technical considerations cannot  
adjudicate moral debates.”*

# Outline of today's class

- **What is trustworthy AI?**
- **Explaining AI predictions**
- **Definitions of fairness in AI**
- **Framework for fair AI**
- **Algorithmic fairness criteria**
  - Individual fairness
  - Group fairness

## Data Regulator

Determines fairness criteria, determines data source(s), audits results



AUTHORITY

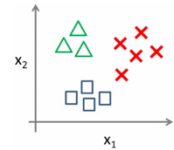
01

03

02

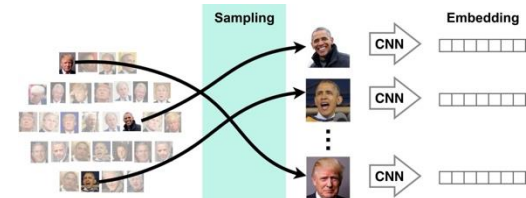
## Data User

Computes ML model given sanitized data



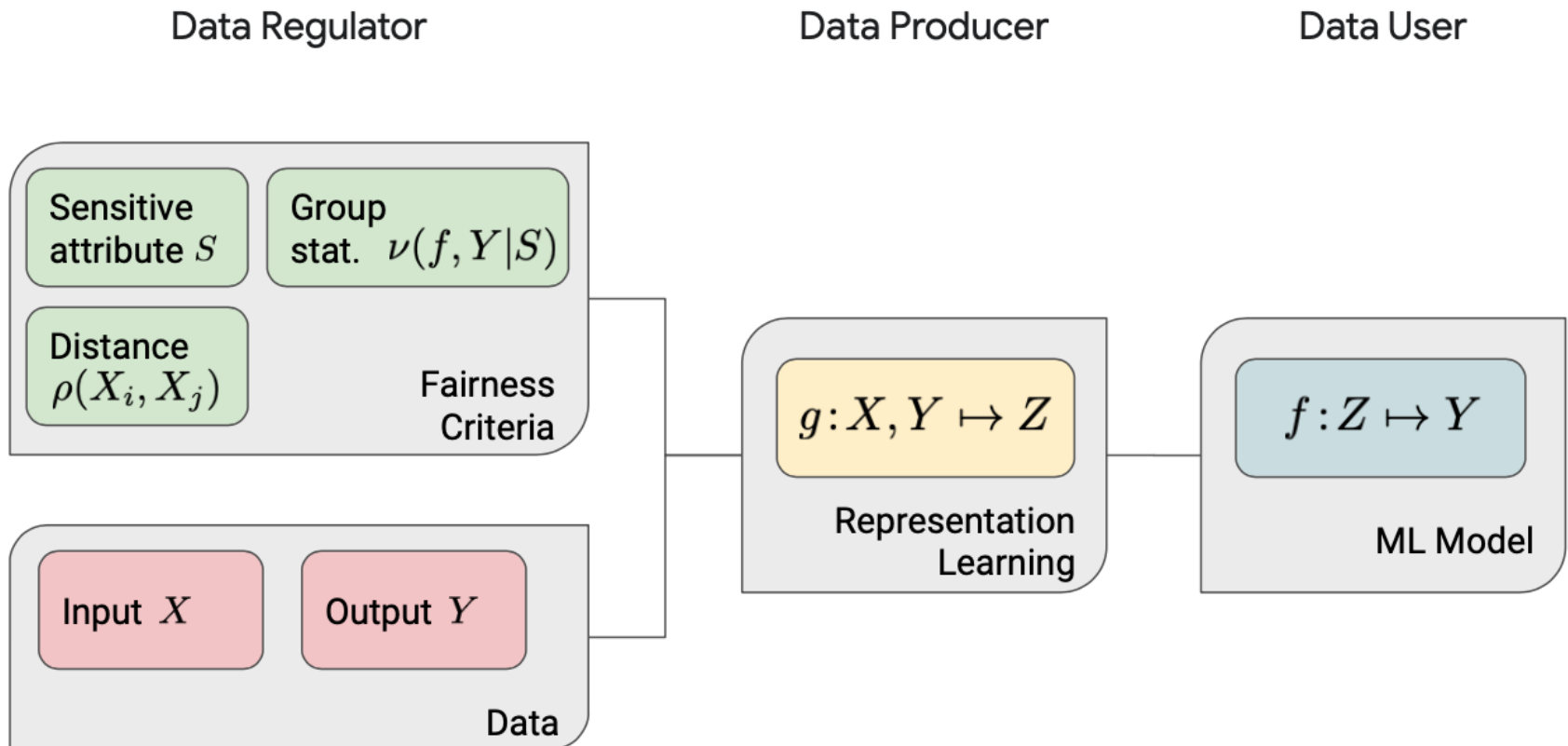
## Data Producer

Computes the fair representation given data regulator criteria



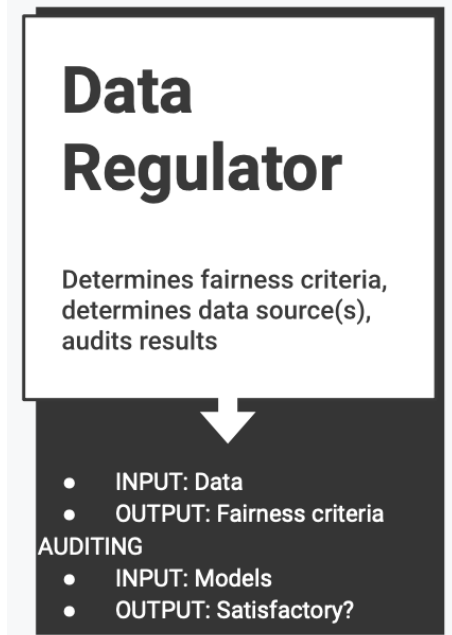
# Framework for fair AI/ML

- **Data regulator:** determines fairness measures, audits results
- **Data producer:** creates “fair” feature vectors (i.e., “fair” representations)
- **Data user:** agnostically trains an ML model using “fair” feature vectors



# Roles of different parties

- **Data regulator** determines which fairness criteria to use, and (optionally) audits the results
- When training:
  - Input: interaction with users/experts/judges/policy to determine fairness criteria
  - Output: fairness criteria
- When auditing the ML model:
  - Input (for auditing the **data producer**):
    - “Fair” representations
  - Input (for auditing the **data user**):
    - Data and model predictions
  - Output:
    - Are fairness criteria satisfied?



# How to achieve fairness?

- **Post-processing:** Post-process the model outputs  
Doherty et al. (2012), Feldman (2015), Hardt et al. (2016), Kusner et al. (2018), Jiang et al. (2019)
- **Pre-processing:** Pre-process the data to remove bias, or extract representations that do not contain sensitive information during training  
Kamiran and Calder (2012), Zemel et al. (2013), Feldman et al. (2015), Fish et al. (2015), Louizos et al. (2016), Lum and Johndrow (2016), Adler et al. (2016), Edwards and Storkey (2016)
- **In-processing:** Enforce fairness notions by imposing constraints into the optimization, or by using an adversary  
Goh et al. (2016), Corbett-Davies et al. (2017), Agarwal et al. (2018), Cotter et al. (2018), Komiyama et al. (2018), Narasimhan (2018), Wu et al. (2018), Zhang et al. (2018), Jiang et al. (2019)

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# Algorithmic fairness criteria

1) Individual Fairness



2) Group Fairness



# Individual fairness: Similar individuals should be treated similarly



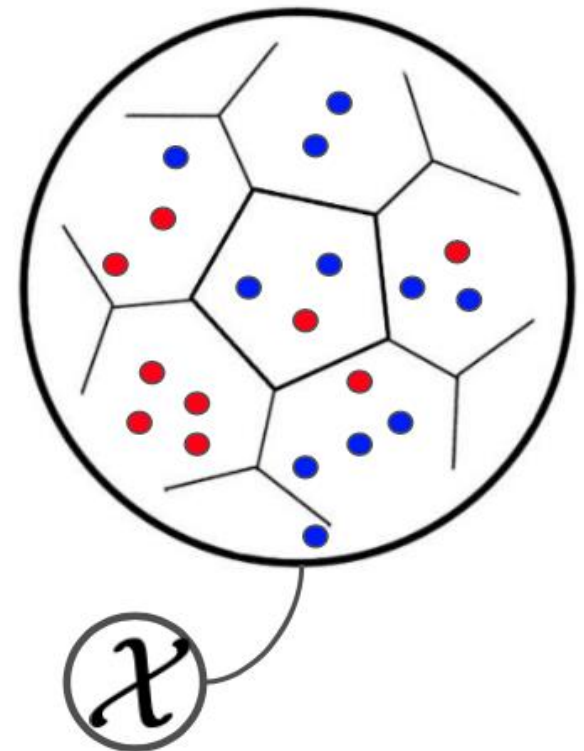
Problem: Pairs of **similar individuals playing the same sport** classified differently. The model is biased against individuals with certain characteristics

Shown are pairs of pictures (columns) sampled over the Internet along with their prediction by a ResNet-10.

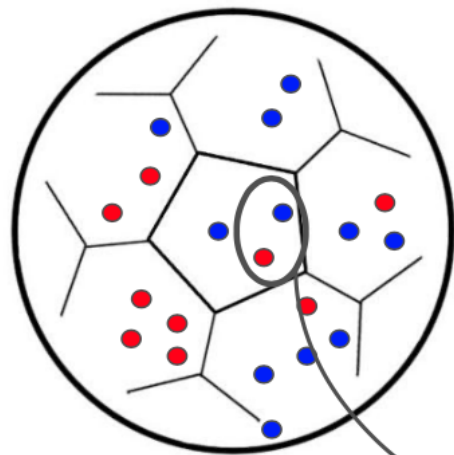
Explore biases of a neural net by analyzing the distance of a sample to the decision boundary using adversarial samples. The distance to the decision boundary is closely related to the magnitude of the perturbation necessary to make a sample cross it.

# Individual fairness: Similar individuals should be treated similarly

- **Data Regulator:** Which individuals are similar? equiv., which individuals should be treated similarly?
- One approach:
  - Define a **partition** of the space into disjoint cells such that similar individuals are in the same cell
  - Individuals in the **same cell** should be **treated similarly** even if they are apparently different (e.g., dots with different colored attributes)



# Individual fairness: Similar individuals should be treated similarly



**Data Regulator:** Which individuals are similar?  
quiv., which individuals should be treated similarly?

An algorithm  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{D}}$  is  $(B, \epsilon(\mathcal{D}))$ -individually fair if  $\mathcal{X}$  can be partitioned into  $B$  disjoint subsets denoted  $\{C_i\}_{i=1}^B$  such that  $\forall x_1 \in \mathcal{X}$ :

$$x_1, x_2 \in C_i \Rightarrow |l(\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{D}}, x_1) - l(\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{D}}, x_2)| \leq \epsilon(\mathcal{D})$$

**Remark:** Individual fairness implies **algorithmic robustness** (c.f. Xu & Mannor '11)

# Individual fairness: Pros and Cons

## ■ Advantages:

- Intuitive and easy to explain to data producers (and non-experts)
- Individual fairness implies generalization (c.f. Xu & Mannor, '12)
- Individual fairness implies statistical parity given regularity conditions (Dwork et al., '12)

## ■ Challenges:

- Regulator must provide a metric or a set of examples to be treated similarly
- Constructing a metric requires significant domain expertise and human insight
- Fairness of the representation heavily depends on the quality of the metric chosen by the regulator
- Optimizing and measuring individual fairness is generally more computationally expensive than other measures

# Algorithmic fairness criteria

 1) Individual Fairness

 2) Group Fairness

# Group fairness: Similar classifier statistics across groups

- **Regulator:** Which statistic  $\nu(f, Y|S)$  should be equalized across groups  $S$ ?

- Typical **fairness measure** is a of the ML model performance:
  - Eq. of opportunity (Hardt et al., '16)

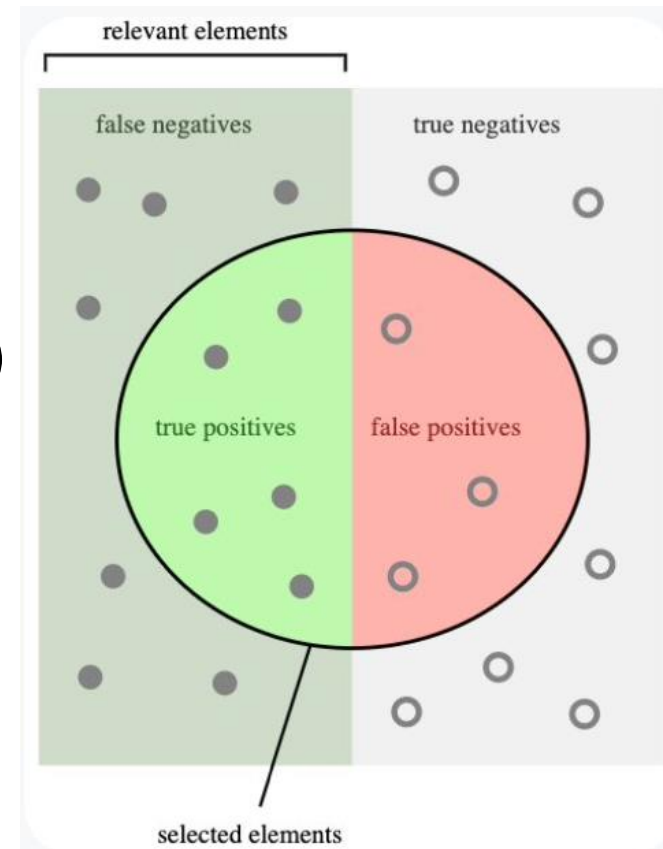
$$TP_S = P(Y = 1, f = 1|S)$$

- Equalized odds (Hardt et al., '16)

$$\{TP_S; FP_S\}$$

- Statistical parity (Dwork et al., '12)

$$TP_S + FP_S = P(f(Z) = 1|S)$$



# Details #1: Statistical Parity

- Statistical parity is a popular measure of group fairness
- **Setup:**
  - Population is a set  $X$
  - Subset  $S \subset X$  that is a “protected” subset of the population
- **Example:**
  - $X$  is people
  - $S$  is people who dye their hair blue
  - We are afraid that banks give fewer loans to the blues because of hair-colorism, despite blue-haired people being just as creditworthy as the general population on average

# Details #2: Statistical parity

- **Assumption:** There is some distribution  $D$  over  $X$  which represents the probability that any individual will be drawn for evaluation
- Example:
  - Some people will have no reason to apply for a loan (maybe they're filthy rich, or don't like homes, cars, or expensive colleges)
  - $D$  takes that into account
  - Generally, we impose no restrictions on  $D$ , and the definition of fairness will work no matter what  $D$  is



# Details #3: Statistical parity

- Classifier  $f: X \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  gives labels to  $X$ 
  - When given a person  $x$  as input  $f(x) = 1$  if  $x$  gets a loan and 0 otherwise

- **Statistical imparity** of  $f$  on  $S$  with respect to  $X, D$ :

$$\text{imparity}_f(X, S, D) = \underbrace{P(f(x) = 1 | x \in S^c)}_{\substack{\text{Probability that a random} \\ \text{individual from the complement} \\ S^c \text{ is labeled } 1}} - \underbrace{P(f(x) = 1 | x \in S)}_{\substack{\text{Probability that a random} \\ \text{individual drawn from } S \\ \text{is labeled } 1}}$$

- This is the statistical equivalent of **adverse impact**
  - It measures the difference that the majority and protected classes get a particular outcome

# Details #4: Statistical parity

- Statistical disparity measures the difference that the majority and protected classes get a certain outcome
- When the difference is small, the classifier has **statistical parity**, it conforms to this notion of fairness
- **Definition:** ML model  $f: X \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  achieves statistical parity on  $D$  with respect to  $S$  up to bias  $\epsilon$  if  $|\text{disparity}_f(X, S, D)| < \epsilon$
- If  $f$  achieves statistical parity, it treats the general population statistically similarly as the protected class
  - If 30% of normal-hair-colored people get loans, statistical parity requires roughly 30% of blue also get loans

# Group fairness: Pros and Cons

## ■ Advantages:

- Efficient to compute, measure and enforce for data producer and regulator
- Often easier to explain to policy-makers (as in terms of population behavior)

## ■ Challenges:

- Data regulator must determine which classifier statistic(s) to equalize
- Fairness of the representation depends on the quality of the fairness metric chosen by the regulator
- Group fairness can lead to (more) violated individual fairness, e.g., intersectionality
- It can lead to fairness gerrymandering (Kearns et. al., '18), and other issues (McNamara et. al., '19)

# Algorithmic fairness criteria

✓ 1) Individual Fairness

✓ 2) Group Fairness

# Data regulator: Measures (un-)fairness

- Regulator must choose how to measure (un-)fairness:
  - For individual fairness: must choose the distance metric
  - For group fairness: must choose the classifier statistic to equalize
- However, remember that there are **no magic metrics**:
  - **Measurement 101**: all measures have **blind spots**
  - *“When a measure becomes a target, it ceases to be a good measure”*
- For ML, we generally specify all measures apriori and optimize them
  - However, **all** metrics will have **failure cases**, i.e., unusual situations with non-ideal behavior
- One productive approach is to select measures that best capture tradeoffs relevant to the context

# Quick Check

<https://forms.gle/PwhV3CEN74aywbE68>

## AIM 2: Artificial Intelligence in Medicine

Harvard - BMIF 203 and BMI 702, Spring 2025

Lecture 7: Explainability and interpretability in medical AI, Feature importance and Shapley values, Bias and fairness in biomedical AI, Discussion: Is explainability critical or overrated?

Course website and slides: <https://zitniklab.hms.harvard.edu/AIM2>

[Sign in to Google](#) to save your progress. [Learn more](#)

\* Indicates required question

First and last name \*

Your answer

Harvard email address \*

Your answer

Using the framework for fair AI, describe a biomedical AI application and explain the roles of data regulators, data users, and data producers. Which individuals in a clinic, research lab, biomedical institution or health system would take on these roles? \*

Your answer

Give a biomedical example where you think that ensuring **individual fairness** is necessary. \*

Your answer

Give a biomedical example where you think that ensuring **group fairness** is necessary. \*

Your answer

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