

# CSC 411: Introduction to Machine Learning

## CSC 411 Lecture 23: Algorithmic Fairness

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- Thursday, Apr. 25, from 9am–12pm BN3.
- Covers all lectures except the final week (Lectures 23 and 24).
- Similar difficulty to midterm.
- Practice exams will be posted.

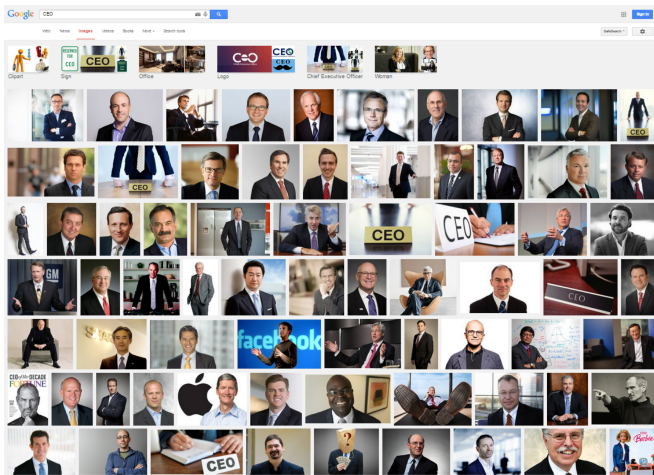
- As ML starts to be applied to critical applications involving humans, the field is wrestling with the societal impacts
  - **Security:** what if an attacker tries to poison the training data, fool the system with malicious inputs, “steal” the model, etc.?
  - **Privacy:** avoid leaking (much) information about the data the system was trained on (e.g. medical diagnosis)
  - **Fairness:** ensure that the system doesn't somehow disadvantage particular individuals or groups
  - **Transparency:** be able to understand why one decision was made rather than another
  - **Accountability:** an outside auditor should be able to verify that the system is functioning as intended
- If some of these definitions sound vague, that's because formalizing them is half the challenge!

## FAIRNESS IN AUTOMATED DECISIONS



Credit: Richard Zemel

## SUBTLER BIAS



# Overview: Fairness

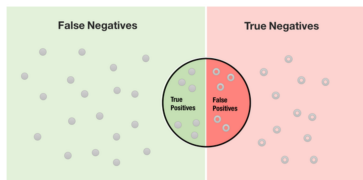
- This lecture: algorithmic fairness
- Goal: identify and mitigate bias in ML-based decision making, in all aspects of the pipeline
- Sources of bias/discrimination
  - Data
    - Imbalanced/impoverished data
    - Labeled data imbalance
    - Labeled data incorrect / noisy
  - Model
    - ML prediction error imbalanced
    - Compound injustices (Hellman)

Credit: Richard Zemel

- Notation
  - $X$ : input to classifier
  - $S$ : sensitive feature (age, gender, race, etc.)
  - $Z$ : latent representation
  - $Y$ : prediction
  - $T$ : true label
- We use capital letters to emphasize that these are random variables.

# Fairness Criteria

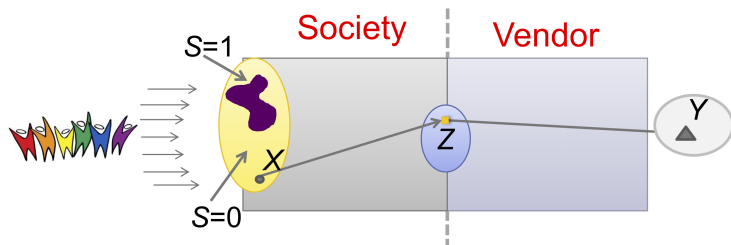
- Most common way to define fair classification is to require some invariance with respect to the sensitive attribute
  - Demographic parity:  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp S$
  - Equalized odds:  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp S | T$
  - Equal opportunity:  $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp S | T = t$ , for some  $t$
  - Equal (weak) calibration:  $T \perp\!\!\!\perp S | Y$
  - Equal (strong) calibration:  $T \perp\!\!\!\perp S | Y$  and  $Y = \Pr(T = 1)$
  - Fair subgroup accuracy:  $\mathbb{1}[T = Y] \perp\!\!\!\perp S$
- $\perp\!\!\!\perp$  denotes stochastic independence
- Many of these definitions are incompatible!





# Learning Fair Representations

- Idea: separate the responsibilities of the (trusted) society and (untrusted) vendor



- Goal: find a representation  $Z$  that removes any information about the sensitive attribute
- Then the vendor can do whatever they want!

Image Credit: Richard Zemel

# Learning Fair Representations

- A naïve attempt: simply don't use the sensitive feature.
  - Problem: the algorithm implicitly learn to predict the sensitive feature from other features (e.g. race from zip code)
- Another idea: limit the algorithm to a small set of features you're pretty sure are safe and task-relevant
  - This is the conservative approach, and commonly used for both human and machine decision making
  - But removing features hurts the classification accuracy. Maybe we can make more accurate decisions if we include more features and somehow enforce fairness algorithmically?
- Can we learn fair representations, which can make accurate classifications without implicitly using the sensitive attribute?

Desiderata for the representation:

- Retain information about  $X \Rightarrow$  high mutual information between  $X$  and  $Z$
- Obfuscate  $S \Rightarrow$  low mutual information between  $S$  and  $Z$
- Allow high classification accuracy  $\Rightarrow$  high mutual information between  $T$  and  $Z$

# Learning Fair Representations

First approach: Zemel et al., 2013, “Learning fair representations”

- Let  $Z$  be a discrete representation (like K-means)
- Determine  $Z$  stochastically based on distance to a prototype for the cluster (like the cluster center in K-means)

$$\Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}) \propto \exp(-d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_k)),$$

where  $d$  is some distance function (e.g. Euclidean distance)

- Use the Bayes classifier  $y = \Pr(T = 1 | Z)$
- Need to fit the prototypes  $\mathbf{v}_k$

# Learning Fair Representations

- Retain information about  $X$ : penalize reconstruction error

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{reconst}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)}\|^2$$

- Predict accurately: cross-entropy loss

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N -t^{(i)} \log y^{(i)} - (1 - t^{(i)}) \log(1 - y^{(i)})$$

- Obfuscate  $S$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{discrim}} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \left| \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=0} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=1} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right|,$$

where we assume for simplicity  $S \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $N_0$  is the count for  $s = 0$ .

# Learning Fair Representations

- Obfuscate  $S$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{discrim}} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \left| \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=0} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=1} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right|,$$

- Is this about individual-level or group-level fairness?
- If discrimination loss is 0, we satisfy demographic parity

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(Y = 1 | s^{(i)} = 1) &= \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=1} \sum_{k=1}^K \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \Pr(Y = 1 | Z = k) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \left[ \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=1} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right] \Pr(Y = 1 | Z = k) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \left[ \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i:s^{(i)}=0} \Pr(Z = k | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) \right] \Pr(Y = 1 | Z = k) \\ &= \Pr(Y = 1 | s^{(i)} = 0) \end{aligned}$$

## Datasets

### 1. German Credit

**Task:** classify individual as good or bad credit risk

**Sensitive feature:** Age

### 2. Adult Income

**Size:** 45,222 instances, 14 attributes

**Task:** predict whether or not annual income > 50K

**Sensitive feature:** Gender

### 3. Heritage Health

**Size:** 147,473 instances, 139 attributes

**Task:** predict whether patient spends any nights in hospital

**Sensitive feature:** Age

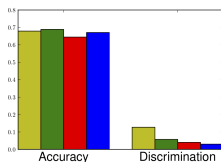
# Learning Fair Representations

## Metrics

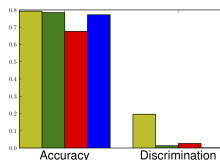
- Classification accuracy
- Discrimination

$$\left| \frac{\sum_{i:s(i)=1}^N y^{(i)}}{N_1} - \frac{\sum_{i:s(i)=0}^N y^{(i)}}{N_0} \right|$$

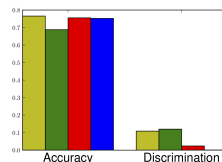
German



Adult



Health



Yellow = unrestricted; Blue = theirs

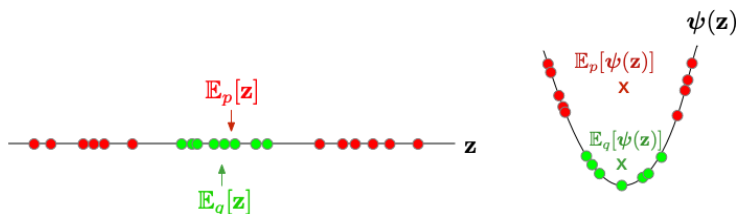


- Discrete  $Z$  based on prototypes is very limiting. Can we learn a more flexible representation?
- Louizos et al., 2015, “The variational fair autoencoder”
- The variational autoencoder (VAE) is a kind of autoencoder that represents a probabilistic model, and can be trained with a variational objective similar to the one we used for E-M.
  - For this lecture, just think of it as an autoencoder.
  - How can we learn an autoencoder such that the code vector  $\mathbf{z}$  loses information about  $s$ ?

# Fair VAE: Maximum Mean Discrepancy

- Our previous non-discrimination criterion only makes sense for discrete  $Z$ .
- New criterion: ensure that  $p(Z | s)$  is indistinguishable for different values of  $s$ .
- **Maximum mean discrepancy (MMD)** is a quantitative measure of distance between two distributions. Pick a feature map  $\psi$ .

$$\text{MMD}(p; q) = \left\| \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim p}[\psi(\mathbf{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q}[\psi(\mathbf{z})] \right\|^2$$



# Fair VAE: Maximum Mean Discrepancy

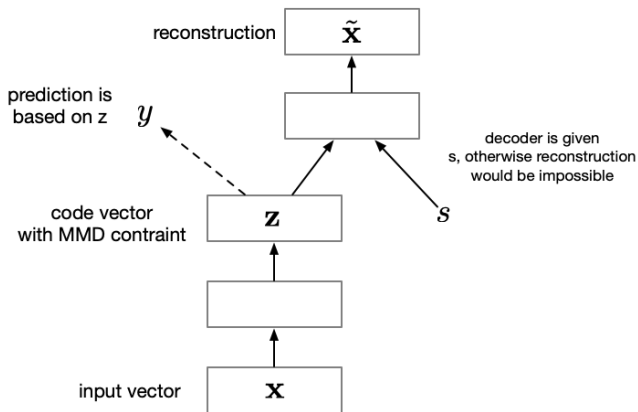
- MMD can be kernelized by expressing it in terms of  $k(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{z}') = \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{z})^\top \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{z}')$ .
- Let  $\{\mathbf{z}_i\}_{i=1}^{N_0}$  and  $\{\mathbf{z}'_i\}_{i=1}^{N_1}$  be sets of samples from  $p$  and  $q$ . The empirical MMD is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{i=1}^{N_0} \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{z}_i) - \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{z}'_i) \right\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N_0^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_0} \sum_{j=1}^{N_0} k(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}_j) + \frac{1}{N_1^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N_1} k(\mathbf{z}'_i, \mathbf{z}'_j) - 2 \frac{1}{N_0 N_1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_0} \sum_{j=1}^{N_1} k(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}'_j) \end{aligned}$$

- You can show that for certain kernels (e.g. RBF), the MMD is 0 iff  $p = q$ . So MMD is a very powerful distance metric.

# Fair VAE

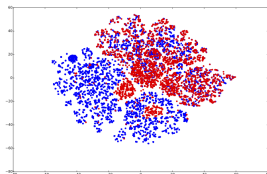
Train a VAE, with the constraint that the MMD between  $p(\mathbf{z} | s = 0)$  and  $p(\mathbf{z} | s = 1)$  is small.



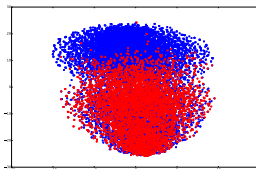
# Fair VAE: tSNE embeddings

- tSNE is an unsupervised learning algorithm for visualizing high-dimensional datasets. It tries to embed points in low dimensions in a way that preserves distances as accurately as possible.
- Here are tSNE embeddings of different distributions, color-coded by the sensitive feature:

Original inputs



VAE latent space



Fair VAE latent space

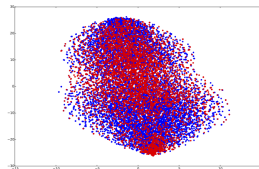


Figure Credit: Louizos et al., 2015

# Individual Fairness

- The work on fair representations was geared towards group fairness
- Another notion of fairness is individual level: ensuring that similar individuals are treated similarly by the algorithm
  - This depends heavily on the notion of “similar”.
- One way to define similarity is in terms of the “true label”  $T$  (e.g. whether this individual is in fact likely to repay their loan)
  - Can you think of a problem with this definition?
  - The label may itself be biased
    - if based on human judgments
    - if, e.g., societal biases make it harder for one group to pay off their loans
  - We’ll ignore this issue in our analysis. But keep in mind that you’d need to carefully consider the assumptions when applying one of these methods!

# Equal Opportunity

- Now we'll turn to Hardt et al., 2016, "Equality of opportunity in supervised learning".
- Assume we make a binary prediction by computing a real-valued score  $R = f(X, S)$ , and then thresholding this score to obtain the prediction  $Y$ .
- As before, assume  $S \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- Motivating example: predict whether an individual is likely to repay their loan
- Two notions of individual fairness:

- **Equalized odds**: equal true positive and false positive rates

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | S = 0, T = t) = \Pr(Y = 1 | S = 1, T = t) \quad \text{for } t \in \{0, 1\}$$

- **Equal opportunity**: equal true positive rates

$$\Pr(Y = 1 | S = 0, T = 1) = \Pr(Y = 1 | S = 1, T = 1)$$

# Equal Opportunity

- Consider **derived predictors**, which are a function of the real-valued score  $R$  and the sensitive feature  $S$ .
  - I.e., we don't need to check the original input  $X$ . This simplifies the analysis.
- Define a loss function  $\mathcal{L}(Y, T)$ . Since  $Y$  and  $T$  are binary, there are 4 values to specify.
- They show that:
  - Without a constraint, the optimal predictor is obtained from thresholding  $R$ .
  - With an equal opportunity constraints, the optimal predictor is obtained by thresholding  $R$ , but with a different threshold for different values of  $S$ .
  - Satisfying equalized odds is overconstrained, and may require randomizing  $Y$ .



# Equal Opportunity

- Case study: FICO scores
- Aim to predict whether an individual has less than an 18% rate of default (which is the threshold for profitability)

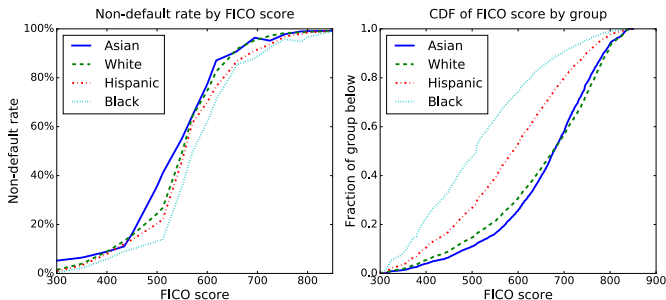


Figure: Hardt et al., 2016

# Equal Opportunity

- The “race-blind” solution applies the same threshold for all the groups.
- Problem: non-defaulting black applicants are much less likely to be approved than non-defaulting white applicants.
  - Fraction of non-defaulting applicants in each group = fraction of area under curve which is shaded

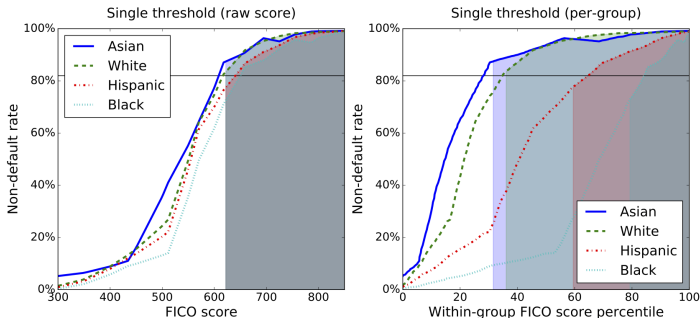


Figure: Hardt et al., 2016

# Equal Opportunity

- Can obtain equal opportunity, equalized odds, demographic parity by setting group-specific thresholds (except equalized odds requires randomizing).

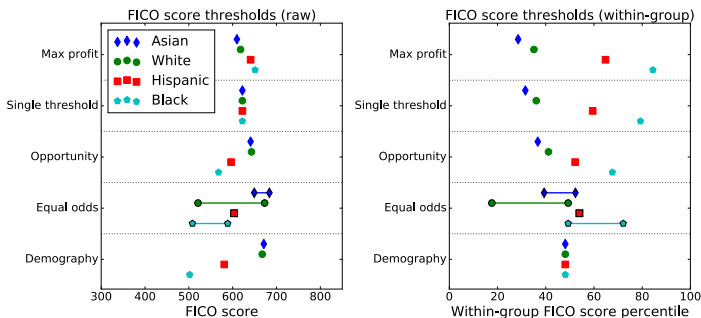


Figure: Hardt et al., 2016

# Equal Opportunity

- Different notions of fairness often come into conflict. E.g., demographic parity conflicts with equal opportunity (left).
- Some notions of fairness are harder to achieve than others, in terms of lost profit (right).
- Choosing the right criterion requires careful consideration of the causal relationships between the variables.

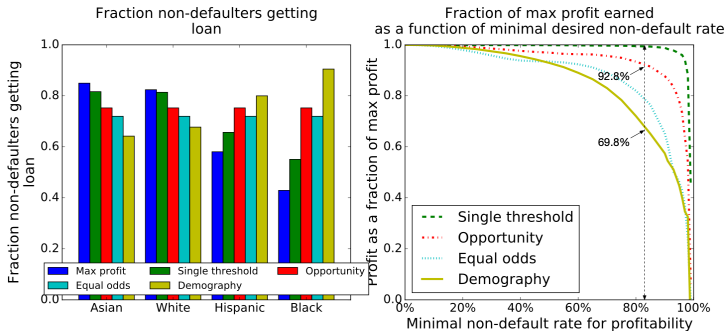


Figure: Hardt et al., 2016

- Fairness is a challenging issue to address
  - Not something you can just measure on a validation set
  - Philosophers and lawyers have been trying to define it for thousands of years
  - Different notions are incompatible. Need to carefully consider the particular problem.
    - individual vs. group
- Explosion of interest in ML over the last few years
- New conference on Fairness, Accountability, and Transparency (FAT\*)
- New textbook: <https://fairmlbook.org/>