Contributions in VL-XAI to Address and Democratize Software Fairness



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COMPAS

- COMPAS is an ML algorithm used by some courts in the US to predict recidivism of condemned people
- A study showed that, given two people with the same features but different ethnicity, the system was giving higher probability of recidivism to non-white people



Machine Bias

There's software used across the country to predict future criminals. And it's biased against blacks. by hele Anovin. Mt Larson. Surp Mettu and Lawren Eichner. ProPublice

Jalia Angwin, Jeff Larson, Surya Mattu and Lauren Kirchner, ProPabli May 23, 2016

O IN A SPRING AFTERNOON IN 2014, Brisha Borden was running unlocket kids blue Huffy bicycle and a silver Razor scooter. Borden and a friend grabbed the bike and scooter and tried to tide them down the street in the Fort Lauderdale suburb of Coral Springs.

Just as the 18-year-old girls were realizing they were too big for the tiny conveyances which belonged to a 6-year-old boy — a woman came running after them saying. "That's my kid's stuff." Borden and her friend immediately dropped the bike and scotter and walked away:

But it was too late — a neighbor who witnessed the heist had already called the police. Borden and her friend were arrested and charged with burglary and petty theft for the items, which were valued at a total of \$80. 3

COMPAS

- COMPAS is an ML algorithm used by some courts in the US to predict recidivism of condemned people
- A study showed that, given two people with the same features but different ethnicity, the system was giving higher probability of recidivism to non-white people

The system was biased against nonwhite people



Machine Bias

There's software used across the country to predict future criminals. And it's biased against blacks. by Julie Anguin, Mt Larron, Suryn Mattu and Lauren Kirchner, ProPublica

O N A SPRING AFTERNOON IN 2014, Brisha Borden was running late to pick up her god-sister from school when she spotted an unlocked kid's blue Huffy bicycle and a silver Razor scooter. Borden and a friend grabbed the bike and scooter and tried to ride them down the street in the Fort Lauderdale suburb of Coral Springs.

Just as the 18-year-old girls were realizing they were too big for the tiny conveyances which belonged to a 6-year-old boy — a woman came running after them saying. "That's my kid's stuff." Borden and her friend immediately dropped the bike and scooter and walked away:

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Let's Define Bias and Fairness

- BIAS: systematic favoritism or discrimination in models' predictions towards individuals based on some sensitive features (like gender, race, and others)
- FAIRNESS: absence of favoritism or discrimination in models' predictions



N. Mehrabi, F. Morstatter, N. Saxena, K. Lerman, and A. Galstyan, 'A Survey on Bias and Fairness in Machine Learning', ACM Comput. Surv., vol. 54, no. 6, pp. 1–35, Jul. 2021, doi: <u>10.1145/3457607</u>.



115:5

A Survey on Bias and Fairness in Machine Learning

(1) Measurement Bias. Measurement, or reporting, bias arises from how we choose, utilize, and measure particular features [140]. An example of this type of bias was observed in the recidivism risk prediction tool COMPAS, where prior arrests and friend/family arrests were used as proxy variables to measure level of "riskiness" or "crime"—which on its own can be viewed as mismeasured proxies. This is partly due to the fact that minority communities are controlled and policed more frequently, so they have higher arrest rates. However, one should not conclude that because people coming from minority groups have higher arrest rates, therefore they are more dangerous, as there is a difference in how these groups are assessed and controlled [140].

- (2) Omitted Variable Bias. Omitted variable bias⁴ occurs when one or more important variables are left out of the model [38, 110, 127]. An example for this case would be when someone designs a model to predict, with relatively high accuracy, the annual percentage rate at which customers will stop subscribing to a service, but soon observes that the majority of users are canceling their subscription without receiving any warning from the designed model. Now imagine that the reason for canceling the subscriptions is appearance of a new strong competitor in the market that offers the same solution, but for half the price. The appearance of the competitor was something that the model was not ready for; therefore, it is considered to be an omitted variable.
- (3) **Representation Bias**. *Representation bias arises from how we sample from a population during data collection process* [140]. Non-representative samples lack the diversity of the population, with missing subgroups and other anomalies. Lack of geographical diversity in datasets like ImageNet (as shown in Figures 3 and 4) results in demonstrable bias towards Western cultures.

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(1) Measurement Bias. Measurement, or reporting, bias arises from how we choose, utilize, and measure particular features [140]. An example of this type of bias was observed in the recidivism risk prediction tool COMPAS, where prior arrests and friend/family arrests were used as provy variables to measure level of "riskiness" or "crime"—which on its own can be

3.1.2 Algorithm to User. Algorithms modulate user behavior. Any biases in algorithms might introduce biases in user behavior. In this section, we talk about biases that are as a result of algorithmic outcomes and affect user behavior as a consequence.

- (1) Algorithmic Bias. Algorithmic bias is when the bias is not present in the input data and is added purely by the algorithm [9]. The algorithmic design choices, such as use of certain optimization functions, regularizations, choices in applying regression models on the data as a whole or considering subgroups, and the general use of statistically biased estimators in algorithms [44], can all contribute to biased algorithmic decisions that can bias the outcome of the algorithms.
- (2) User Interaction Bias. User Interaction bias is a type of bias that can not only be observant on the Web but also get triggered from two sources—the user interface and through the user itself by imposing his/her self-selected biased behavior and interaction [9]. This type of bias can be influenced by other types and subtypes, such as presentation and ranking biases.
 - (a) Presentation Bias. Presentation bias is a result of how information is presented [9]. For example, on the Web users can only click on content that they see, so the seen content gets clicks, while everything else gets no click. And it could be the case that the user does not see all the information on the Web [9].
 - (b) **Ranking Bias.** The idea that top-ranked results are the most relevant and important will result in attraction of more clicks than others. This bias affects search engines [9] and crowdsourcing applications [92].
- (3) **Popularity Bias**. Items that are more popular tend to be exposed more. However, popularity metrics are subject to manipulation—for example, by fake reviews or social bots [113]. As an

A Survey on Bias and Fairness in Machine Learning

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3.1.2 Algorithm to User. A introduce biases in user behavithmic outcomes and affect

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 - (a) **Presentation Bias** example, on the We gets clicks, while e does not see all the

- to the fact that only 5% of Fortune 500 CEOs were women—which would cause the search results to be biased towards male CEOs [140]. These search results were of course reflecting the reality, but whether or not the search algorithms should reflect this reality is an issue worth considering.
- (2) Population Bias. Population bias arises when statistics, demographics, representatives, and user characteristics are different in the user population of the platform from the original target population [116]. Population bias creates non-representative data. An example of this type of bias can arise from different user demographics on different social platforms, such as women being more likely to use Pinterest, Facebook, Instagram, while men being more active in online forums like Reddit or Twitter. More such examples and statistics related to social media use among young adults according to gender, race, ethnicity, and parental educational background can be found in Reference [64].
- (3) Self-selection Bias. Self-selection bias⁴ is a subtype of the selection or sampling bias in which subjects of the research select themselves. An example of this type of bias can be observed in an opinion poll to measure enthusiasm for a political candidate, where the most enthusiastic supporters are more likely to complete the poll.
- (4) Social Bias. Social bias happens when others' actions affect our judgment [9]. An example of this type of bias can be a case where we want to rate or review an item with a low score, but when influenced by other high ratings, we change our scoring thinking that perhaps we are being too harsh [9, 147].
- (5) Behavioral Bias. Behavioral bias arises from different user behavior across platforms, contexts, or different datasets [116]. An example of this type of bias can be observed in Reference [104], where authors show how differences in emoji representations among platforms can result in
- (b) Ranking Bias. The

result in attraction of more clicks than others. This bias affects search engines [9] and crowdsourcing applications [92].

(3) **Popularity Bias**. Items that are more popular tend to be exposed more. However, popularity metrics are subject to manipulation—for example, by fake reviews or social bots [113]. As an

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|---|--|---|---|
| rithmic outco | s in user bena | population [116]. Population bias creates non-representative data. An example | such as |
| (1) Algori added | A Survey on Bi | as and Fairness in Machine Learning 115:9 | to social cational |
| as a wł algorit of the a (2) User I i <i>the We</i> <i>by imp</i> influen (a) Pr e exa get do | different errors. (6) Tempor [116]. Ar start usir the even (7) Content <i>and synt</i> bias can gender a across ar | reactions and behavior from people and sometimes even leading to communication al Bias. Temporal bias arises from differences in populations and behaviors over time a example can be observed in Twitter where people talking about a particular topic ag a hashtag at some point to capture attention, then continue the discussion about t without using the hashtag [116, 142]. Production Bias. Content Production bias arises from structural, lexical, semantic, actic differences in the contents generated by users [116]. An example of this type of be seen in Reference [114] where the differences in use of language across different and age groups is discussed. The differences in use of language can also be seen and within countries and populations. | in which erved in nusiastic ample of core, but s we are <i>contexts</i> , ce [104], result in |
| (b) Ra rest cro (3) Populs metrics | Existing wor solely under da enon [36], thes situation. This between the al rization of bias of the loop wh definitions are address them a | rk tries to categorize these bias definitions into groups, such as definitions falling ata or user interaction. However, due to the existence of the feedback loop phenom- e definitions are intertwined, and we need a categorization that closely models this feedback loop is not only existent between the data and the algorithm, but also gorithms and user interaction [29]. Inspired by these papers, we modeled catego- s definitions, as shown in Figure 1, and grouped these definitions on the arrows ere we thought they were most effective. We emphasize the fact again that these intertwined, and one should consider how they affect each other in this cycle and coordinaly. | |

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(1) Measurement Bia to the fact that only 5% of Fortune 500 CEOs were women-which would cause the search measure particular results to be biased towards male CEOs [140]. These search results were of course reflecting cidivism risk predi the reality, but whether or not the search algorithms should reflect this reality is an issue used as provy varia worth considering. (2) Population Bias. Population bias arises when statistics, demographics, representatives, and 3.1.2 Algorithm to User. user characteristics are different in the user population of the platform from the original target introduce biases in user beha population [116]. Population bias creates non-representative data. An example of this type rithmic outco such as re active (1) Algori to social A Survey on Bias and Fairness in Machine Learning 115:9 added cational optimi different reactions and behavior from people and sometimes even leading to communication as a wh in which errors. algorit erved in (6) **Temporal Bias.** Temporal bias arises from differences in populations and behaviors over time of the a husiastic [116]. An example can be observed in Twitter where people talking about a particular topic (2) User I start using a hashtag at some point to capture attention, then continue the discussion about the We ample of the event without using the hashtag [116, 142]. core, but by imp (7) Content Production Bias. Content Production bias arises from structural, lexical, semantic, s we are influen and syntactic differences in the contents generated by users [116]. An example of this type of (a) Pre bias can be seen in Reference [114] where the differences in use of language across different contexts, exa gender and age groups is discussed. The differences in use of language can also be seen ce [104], get across and within countries and populations. result in doe Existing work tries to categorize these bias definitions into groups, such as definitions falling (b) **Ra** solely under data or user interaction. However, due to the existence of the feedback loop phenomrest enon [36], these definitions are intertwined, and we need a categorization that closely models this cro situation. This feedback loop is not only existent between the data and the algorithm, but also (3) Popula between the algorithms and user interaction [29]. Inspired by these papers, we modeled categometrics rization of bias definitions, as shown in Figure 1, and grouped these definitions on the arrows of the loop where we thought they were most effective. We emphasize the fact again that these definitions are intertwined, and one should consider how they affect each other in this cycle and address them accordingly.



At least 23 different definitions of bias in the literature

Generic metrics

| <pre>metrics.num_samples (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of samples. |
|---|--|
| <pre>metrics.num_pos_neg (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of positive and negative samples. |
| metrics.specificity_score (y_true, y_pred, *) | Compute the specificity or true negative rate. |
| <pre>metrics.sensitivity_score (y_true, y_pred[,])</pre> | Alias of sklearn.metrics.recall_score() for binary classes only. |
| <pre>metrics.base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the base rate, $Pr(Y = 	ext{pos_label}) = rac{P}{P+N}.$ |
| metrics.selection_rate (y_true, y_pred, *[,]) | Compute the selection rate, $Pr(\hat{Y} = 	ext{pos_label}) = rac{TP+FP}{P+N}$. |
| <pre>metrics.smoothed_base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the smoothed base rate, $rac{P+lpha}{P+N+ R_Y lpha}.$ |
| metrics.smoothed_selection_rate (y_true,) | Compute the smoothed selection rate, $rac{TP+FP+lpha}{P+N+ R_Y lpha}.$ |
| $\tt metrics.generalized_fpr (y_true, probas_pred, *)$ | Return the ratio of generalized false positives to negative examples in the dataset, $GFPR=\frac{GFP}{N}.$ |
| metrics.generalized_fnr (y_true, probas_pred, *) | Return the ratio of generalized false negatives to positive examples in the dataset, $GFNR=\frac{GFN}{P}.$ |
| | |

Generic metrics

metrics.consistency score (X, y[, n neighbors])

| <pre>metrics.num_samples (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of samples. | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| <pre>metrics.num_pos_neg (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of positive and negative samples. | | |
| metrics.specificity_score (y_true, y_pred, *) | Compute the specificity or true negative rate. | | |
| ${\tt metrics.sensitivity_score} \ (y_true, y_pred[, \ldots])$ | Alias of sklearn.metrics.recall_score() for binary classes only. | | |
| <pre>metrics.base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the base rate, $Pr(Y = 	ext{pos_label}) = rac{P}{P+N}.$ | | |
| <pre>metrics.selection_rate (y_true, y_pred, *[,])</pre> | Compute the selection rate, $Pr(\hat{Y} = \text{pos_label}) = rac{TP+FP}{P+N}.$ | | |
| <pre>metrics.smoothed_base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the smoothed base rate, $rac{P+lpha}{P+N+ R_Y lpha}.$ | | |
| metrics.smoothed_selection_rate (y_true,) | Compute the smoothed selection rate, $\frac{TP+FP+\alpha}{P+N+ R_{Y} \alpha}.$ | | |
| $\tt metrics.generalized_fpr (y_true, probas_pred, *)$ | Return the ratio of generalized false positives to negative examples in the dataset, $GFPR=\frac{GFP}{N}.$ | | |
| <pre>metrics.generalized_fnr (y_true, probas_pred, *)</pre> | Return the ratio of generalized false negatives to positive examples in the detect $CEND = - GFN$ | | |
| Individual fairness metrics | | | |
| metrics.generalized_entropy_index (b[, alpha]) | Generalized entropy index measures inequality over a population. | | |
| metrics.generalized_entropy_error (y_true, y_pred) | Compute the generalized entropy. | | |
| metrics.theil_index (b) | The Theil index is the <code>generalized_entropy_index()</code> with $lpha=1.$ | | |
| metrics.coefficient_of_variation (b) | The coefficient of variation is the square root of two times the generalized entropy index() with $\alpha = 2$. | | |

Compute the consistency score.

14

Generic metrics

| <pre>metrics.num_samples (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of samples. |
|---|--|
| <pre>metrics.num_pos_neg (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the number of positive and negative sample |
| metrics.specificity_score (y_true, y_pred, *) | Compute the specificity or true negative rate. |
| <pre>metrics.sensitivity_score (y_true, y_pred[,])</pre> | Alias of sklearn.metrics.recall_score() for binary class |
| <pre>metrics.base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the base rate, $Pr(Y = 	ext{pos_label}) = rac{P}{P+P}$ |
| <pre>metrics.selection_rate (y_true, y_pred, *[,])</pre> | Compute the selection rate, $Pr(\hat{Y}=	ext{pos_label})=$ |
| <pre>metrics.smoothed_base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the smoothed base rate, $rac{P+lpha}{P+N+ R_Y lpha}.$ |
| metrics.smoothed_selection_rate (y_true,) | Compute the smoothed selection rate, $\frac{TP+FP+\alpha}{P+N+ R_Y \alpha}$. |
| $\tt metrics.generalized_fpr (y_true, probas_pred, *)$ | Return the ratio of generalized false positives to negative dataset, $GFPR=\frac{GFP}{N}.$ |
| <pre>metrics.generalized_fnr (y_true, probas_pred, *)</pre> | Return the ratio of generalized false negatives to positive detect $CEND = GFN$ |
| The dissidue of follows and second studies | |

Individual fairness metrics

| <pre>metrics.generalized_entropy_index (b[, alpha])</pre> | Generalized entropy index measures inequality over a |
|---|--|
| <pre>metrics.generalized_entropy_error (y_true, y_pred)</pre> | Compute the generalized entropy. |
| metrics.theil_index (b) | The Theil index is the generalized_entropy_index() with |
| ${\tt metrics.coefficient_of_variation} \ (b)$ | The coefficient of variation is the square root of two tigeneralized_entropy_index() with $\alpha=2$. |
| <pre>metrics.consistency_score (X, y[, n_neighbors])</pre> | Compute the consistency score. |

Group tairness metrics

| metrics.statistical_parity_difference (y_true) | Difference in selection rates. |
|---|---|
| <pre>metrics.mean_difference (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Alias of statistical_parity_difference() . |
| metrics.disparate_impact_ratio (y_true[,]) | Ratio of selection rates. |
| metrics.equal_opportunity_difference (y_true,) | A relaxed version of equality of opportunity. |
| <pre>metrics.average_odds_difference (y_true,)</pre> | A relaxed version of equality of odds. |
| <pre>metrics.average_odds_error (y_true, y_pred, *)</pre> | A relaxed version of equality of odds. |
| <pre>metrics.class_imbalance (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the class imbalance, $\frac{N_u - N_p}{N_u + N_p}$. |
| <pre>metrics.kl_divergence (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Compute the Kullback-Leibler divergence, $KL(P_p P_u) = \sum_y P_p(y) \log \Bigl(rac{P_p(y)}{P_u(y)} \Bigr)$ |
| metrics.conditional_demographic_disparity (y_true) | Conditional demographic disparity, $CDD = rac{1}{\sum_i N_i} \sum_i N_i \cdot DD_i$ |
| <pre>metrics.smoothed_edf (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Smoothed empirical differential fairness (EDF). |
| metrics.df_bias_amplification (y_true, y_pred, *) | Differential fairness bias amplification. |
| $\verb metrics.between_group_generalized_entropy_error () $ | Compute the between-group generalized entropy. |
| metrics.mdss_bias_scan (y_true, probas_pred) | DEPRECATED: Change to new interface - aif360.sklearn.detectors.mdss_detector.bias_scan by version 0.5.0. |
| <pre>metrics.mdss_bias_score (y_true, probas_pred)</pre> | Compute the bias score for a prespecified group of records using a given scoring function. |

Generic metrics

| <pre>metrics.num_samples (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> |
|---|
| <pre>metrics.num_pos_neg (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> |
| metrics.specificity_score (y_true, y_pred, *) |
| <pre>metrics.sensitivity_score (y_true, y_pred[,])</pre> |
| <pre>metrics.base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> |
| <pre>metrics.selection_rate (y_true, y_pred, *[,])</pre> |
| <pre>metrics.smoothed_base_rate (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> |
| $\tt metrics.smoothed_selection_rate \ (y_true,)$ |
| $\tt metrics.generalized_fpr \ (y_true, probas_pred, \ *)$ |
| metrics generalized for (v true probas pred *) |

Individual fairness metrics

| $\tt metrics.generalized_entropy_index~(b[, alpha])$ | Generalized entropy index measures inequality over a |
|---|---|
| <pre>metrics.generalized_entropy_error (y_true, y_pred)</pre> | Compute the generalized entropy. |
| metrics.theil_index (b) | The Theil index is the generalized_entropy_index() with |
| <pre>metrics.coefficient_of_variation (b)</pre> | The coefficient of variation is the square root of two tigeneralized_entropy_index() with $\alpha=2.$ |
| <pre>metrics.consistency_score (X, y[, n_neighbors])</pre> | Compute the consistency score. |

Group tairness metrics

| metrics.statistical_parity_difference (y_true) |
|---|
| <pre>metrics.mean_difference (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> |
| metrics.disparate_impact_ratio (y_true[,]) |
| ${\tt metrics.equal_opportunity_difference} \ (y_true,)$ |
| <pre>metrics.average_odds_difference (y_true,)</pre> |

metrics.mdss_bias_score (y_true, probas_pred)

Con At least 29 different m **Con AIF360 library**

Reti the dataset, $GFPR = \frac{GFP}{N}$.

Compute the number of samples.

Compute the number of positive and negative samples

Alias of sklearn.metrics.recall_score() for binary classe Compute the base rate, $Pr(Y = \text{pos_label}) = \frac{P}{P+N}$

Compute the selection rate, $Pr(\hat{Y} = \text{pos label}) =$

Compute the specificity or true negative rate.

Return the ratio of generalized false negatives to positi the detect CEND _ GFN

| .mean_difference (y_true[, y_pred,]) | Alias of statistical_parity_difference() . |
|---|---|
| .disparate_impact_ratio (y_true[,]) | Ratio of selection rates. |
| .equal_opportunity_difference (y_true,) | A relaxed version of equality of opportunity. |
| average odds difference (V true,) | A relaxed version of equality of odds. |

| etrics available in the | Compute the class imbalance, $rac{N_u-N_p}{N_u+N_p}.$ |
|-------------------------|--|
| | Compute the Kullback-Leibler divergence. |

 $KL(P_p||P_u) = \sum_y P_p(y) \log\left(\frac{P_p(y)}{P_u(y)}\right)$ Conditional demographic disparity, $CDD = rac{1}{\sum_i N_i} \sum_i N_i \cdot DD_i$ metrics.conditional_demographic_disparity (y_true)

A relaxed version of equality of odds.

Difference in selection rates.

| <pre>metrics.smoothed_edf (y_true[, y_pred,])</pre> | Smoothed empirical differential fairness (EDF). |
|---|---|
| metrics.df_bias_amplification (y_true, y_pred, *) | Differential fairness bias amplification. |
| metrics.between_group_generalized_entropy_error () | Compute the between-group generalized entropy. |
| metrics.mdss_bias_scan (y_true, probas_pred) | DEPRECATED: Change to new interface - aif360.sklearn.detectors.mdss_detector.bias_scan by version 0.5.0. |
| | |

Compute the bias score for a prespecified group of records using a given scoring function.

| if360.algorithms.preprocessing | |
|--|---|
| algorithms.preprocessing.DisparateImpactRemover ([]) | Disparate impact remover is a preprocessing technique that edits feature values increase group fairness while preserving rank-ordering within groups $[1]_{-}$. |
| algorithms.preprocessing.LFR ([, k, Ax,]) | Learning fair representations is a pre-processing technique that finds a latent representation which encodes the data well but obfuscates information about protected attributes [2]. |
| algorithms.preprocessing.OptimPreproc $([,])$ | Optimized preprocessing is a preprocessing technique that learns a probabilistic transformation that edits the features and labels in the data with group fairness, individual distortion, and data fidelity constraints and objectives [3]. |
| algorithms.preprocessing.Reweighing (\dots) | Reweighing is a preprocessing technique that Weights the examples in each (group, label) combination differently to ensure fairness before classification [4] |

| aif360.algorithms.preprocessing | | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|--|--|
| algorithms.preprocessing.DisparateImpactRemover ([]) | Disparate impact remover is feature values increase group | aif360.algorithms.inprocessing | | | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.LFR ([, k, Ax,]) | ordering within groups [1] Learning fair representations finds a latent representation obfuscates information abou | algorithms.inprocessing.AdversarialDebiasing $()$ | Adversarial debiasing is an in-processing technique that learns a classifier to maximize prediction accuracy and simultaneously reduce an adversary's ability to determine the protected attribute from the predictions [5] | | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.OptimPreproc ([,]) | Optimized preprocessing is a a probabilistic transformation the data with group fairness, fidelity constraints and objec | algorithms.inprocessing.ARTClassifier () | Wraps an instance of an $\ensuremath{art.classifiers.classifier}$ to extend $\ensuremath{Transformer}$. | | |
| | | algorithms.inprocessing.GerryFairClassifier $([])$ | Model is an algorithm for learning classifiers that are fair with respect to rich subgroups. | | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.Reweighing (\ldots) | Reweighing is a preprocessin examples in each (group, labe fairness before classification | algorithms.inprocessing.MetaFairClassifier $([])$ | The meta algorithm here takes the fairness metric as part of the input and returns a classifier optimized w.r.t. | | |
| | | algorithms.inprocessing.PrejudiceRemover ([]) | Prejudice remover is an in-processing technique that adds a discrimination-aware regularization term to the learning objective [6] | | |
| | | ${\tt algorithms.inprocessing.ExponentiatedGradientReduction} \ ()$ | Exponentiated gradient reduction for fair classification. | | |
| | | $\verb+algorithms.inprocessing.GridSearchReduction ()$ | Grid search reduction for fair classification or regression. | | |

| aif360.algorithms.preprocessing | | | | | |
|--|--|---|------------|--|--|
| algorithms.preprocessing.DisparateImpactRemover ([]) | Disparate impact remover is feature values increase group ordering within groups [1] | aif360.algorithms.inpro | ocessing | | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.LFR ([, k, Ax,]) | Learning fair representations finds a latent representation obfuscates information abou | algorithms.inprocessing.AdversarialDebiasing () | | Adversarial debiasing is an in-processing technique that learns a classifier to maximize prediction accuracy and simultaneously reduce an adversary's ability to determine the protected attribute from the predictions [5] | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.OptimPreproc ([]) | Optimized preprocessing is a a probabilistic transformation | algorithms.inprocessing.ARTClassifier () | | Wraps an instance of an art.classifiers.Classifier to extend Transformer . | |
| azBoi zrimorki chi occozzi@rokizzmi i chi oc (iiif) iii]) | the data with group fairness, fidelity constraints and objec | algorithms.inprocessing.GerryFairClassifier $([])$ | | Model is an algorithm for learning classifiers that are fair with respect to rich subgroups. | |
| aif360.algorithms.postprocessing | | | lfier ([]) | The meta algorithm here takes the fairness metric as part of the input and returns a classifier optimized w.r.t. | |
| algorithms.postprocessing.CalibratedEqOddsPostprocessing (| Calibrated equalized odd processing technique tha () classifier score outputs to | bdds postprocessing is a post- that optimizes over calibrated ver ([]) Prejudice remover is an in-processing technique that adds a discrimination-aware regularization term to the learning objective [6]. | | | |
| | change output labels with [7] | change output labels with an equalized odds objective [7] | | Exponentiated gradient reduction for fair classification. | |
| algorithms.postprocessing.EqOddsPostprocessing () | Equalized odds postproce technique that solves a li with which to change out odds [8]_ [9] | Equalized odds postprocessing is a post-processing technique that solves a linear program to find probabilities with which to change output labels to optimize equalized odds [8]_ [9] | | Grid search reduction for fair classification or regression. | |
| algorithms.postprocessing.RejectOptionClassification (\dots) | Reject option classification that gives favorable outcomes to band around the decision uncertainty [10] | on is a postprocessing technique omes to unpriviliged groups and priviliged groups in a confidence a boundary with the highest | | | |

| aif360.algorithms.preprocessing | r | | | | |
|--|---|--|----------------------------------|--|--|
| $\verb+algorithms.preprocessing.DisparateImpactRemover ([])$ | Disparate impact remover is feature values increase group ordering within groups [1] | sparate impact remover is ature values increase group | | | |
| algorithms.preprocessing.LFR ([, k, Ax,]) | Learning fair representations finds a latent representation obfuscates information abou | algorithms.inprocessing.AdversarialDebiasing () | | Adversarial debiasing is an in-processing technique that learns a classifier to maximize prediction accuracy and simultaneously reduce an adversary's ability to determine the protected attribute from the predictions [5] | |
| algorithms preprocessing OptimPreproc ([]) | Optimized preprocessing is a a probabilistic transformation | algorithms.inprocessing.ARTClassifier () | | Wraps an instance of an $\ensuremath{art.classifiers.classifier}$ to extend $\ensuremath{Transformer}$. | |
| מגפטי בנוחוז אי פא טכפגבואַ טירבוחי פא טכ (יינן, ייין) | 14 bias mitig | ation methods a | re availab | le in | prithm for learning classifiers that are fair rich subgroups. |
| if360.algorithms.postprocessing | the AIF360 re available from | pository but n n the literature! | nany more | are | thm here takes the fairness metric as part of turns a classifier optimized w.r.t. |
| algorithms.postprocessing.CalibratedEqOddsPostprocessing | processing technique the classifier score outputs t change output labels wit | at optimizes over calibrated to find probabilities with which to th an equalized odds objective | yer ([]) SradientReduction () | objective [6]_ | aware regularization term to the learning d gradient reduction for fair classification. |
| algorithms.postprocessing.EqOddsPostprocessing () | Equalized odds postproc technique that solves a l with which to change ou odds [8]_ [9] | Equalized odds postprocessing is a post-processing technique that solves a linear program to find probabilities with which to change output labels to optimize equalized odds [8]_ [9] | | Grid search reduction for fair classification or regression. | |
| algorithms.postprocessing.RejectOptionClassification (\dots) | Reject option classificati that gives favorable outo unfavorable outcomes to band around the decisio uncertainty [10] | ion is a postprocessing technique comes to unpriviliged groups and o priviliged groups in a confidence n boundary with the highest | | | |

Our Contributions





Challenge 1 (CH1)

Developing approaches for bias mitigation both in binary and multi-class classification settings.

Challenge 2 (CH2)

Democratizing the development of fair learning-based systems to actors with different expertise.

Challenge 1: Bias in Multi-Class Classification

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- Most of the bias mitigation approaches focus on binary classification
 However, many multi-class classification approaches have been proposed in sensitive domains

Computing, Artificial Intelligence and Information Technology

A data-driven software tool for enabling cooperative information sharing among police departments

Will I Pass the Bar Exam: Predicting Student Success Using LSAT Scores and Law School Performance

Nuclear feature extraction for breast tumor diagnosis

Contribution 1: Debiaser for Multiple Variables

- DEMV is a pre-processing approach to improve fairness in binary and multi-class classification tasks
- Overcomes all the other state-ofthe-art multi-class bias mitigation algorithms in the literature
- Algorithm available on SoBigData RI and PIP



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23 Definitions of Bias







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Contribution 2: MANILA



- We propose MANILA, a web-based application to design, implement and execute fairness evaluations
- Uses the Extended Feature Model (ExtFM) formalism to model the evaluation workflow as a Software Product Line



Thank you for your attention!

UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DELL'AQUILA



DISIM Dipartimento di Ingegneria e Scienze dell'Informazione e Matematica