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Introduction

I see my work as a rigorous interdisciplinary challenge to the machine learning status quo. I find myself equal parts enthralled by the accomplishments of modern machine learning and disturbed by the harm caused by industrial "AI systems." As the real-world impact of ML continues to grow, I increasingly see fairness as the most important topic in ML. I have always been drawn to statistical learning theory to rigorously study learning and quantify overfitting, and this perspective informs my study of the complex sociotechnical issues we face today. Many real-world fairness issues are due to basic errors (e.g., overrepresentation of white males in image datasets [32] is distribution shift), but as academics we have not made issues of fairness in ML easy to understand, and deep questions remain regarding what fairness even means and how fairness interacts with learning. I see fairness often manifests in discriminatory ways given small minority group samples. Of my study of such phenomena [10], an anonymous reviewer writes, "The paper connects underlying welfare-theoretic notions to a novel notion of PAC-learnability... On a meta-level, I think the paper serves as a nice example of how to do 'interdisciplinary' work in a non-facile way."

I will primarily discuss my work in fair machine learning, but my research interests span statistical methods in learning and data science [12, 14, 17, 18, 19, 35], as well as sampling-based approximation algorithms [2, 5, 6, 22, 38, 46], and various topics in computational economics [15, 16, 20, 21, 47, 48].

A Theory of Fair Machine Learning

The modern zeitgeist around fair machine learning centers imposing statistical parity constraints [27, 45] (equalized odds, equality of opportunity, outcome, etc.). While such approaches seem intuitively fair, they suffer from computational intractability [29], mutual incompatibility [33], and can actually worsen outcomes for all groups [29, 30, 31]. I also criticize these approaches on a statistical level: If we enforce fairness constraints on the training set, they are not guaranteed on the underlying distribution (i.e., we "overfit to fairness"). Moreover, if we "overconstrain" the model during training to account for this, then for any sample size, with arbitrarily high probability, (1) there may not exist any training-feasible model, and (2) the optimal training-feasible model may be greatly outperformed by a true-feasible model that is not training-feasible. Addressing these issues is quite challenging [44, 49], and can require unbounded sample complexity.

Axiomatic Theory The wellbeing of society overall and of disadvantaged or minority groups is well-studied in welfare economics [23, 24, 28, 39] and moral philosophy [4, 37, 40], and prescriptive requirements for fair systems are often encoded in law [34, 42], so I ask, "Why did we as computer scientists need to redefine fairness?" To briefly summarize centuries of thought, utilitarian welfare measures overall wellbeing as the sum or average utility across a population [4, 36], Rawlsian or egalitarian welfare measures the minimum utility [40, 41], and prioritarian concepts lie somewhere in between [3, 37]. Utilitarianism is criticized for not incentivizing equitable redistribution, and egalitarianism is criticized for ignoring all but the most disadvantaged groups in society. In contrast, prioritarianism encompasses various justice criteria that prioritize the wellbeing of the impoverished, without ignoring others, making tradeoffs between them in various ways. The Pigou-Dalton transfer principle [23, 39] and the Debreu-Gorman axioms [24, 28] lead all welfare functions to concord with sums of logarithms or powers of utilities, i.e., for g groups and utility vectors $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^g_+$, for some $p \in \mathbb{R}$, all fairness concepts $M(\mathbf{s})$ define a partial order over utility vectors that agrees with

$$\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \operatorname{sgn}(p) \sum_{i=1}^{g} \boldsymbol{s}_{i}^{p} , \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \sum_{i=1}^{g} \ln(\boldsymbol{s}_{i}) .$$
(1)

This lays the foundation for my work, but the *mathematical context* of ML and estimation raises a few issues.

1) Existing analysis is almost entirely based on welfare and utility, whereas ML often considers loss. Simple transformations (e.g., negation) are insufficient, as we require nonnegative s in (1).

2) While directly applicable to *individual level fairness*, the theory does not gracefully handle *heterogeneous group sizes*. This is important to many *discrimination issues* facing minority groups in ML, such as differential performance of facial recognition or medical ML systems.

3) The scale of welfare functions, and thus the difficulty of approximation or estimation, varies with p. Similarly, depending on p, (1) can be very sensitive to small changes to s, which complicates optimization and estimation. Moreover, since (1) is only specified *up to an ordering*, are approximations even meaningful?

While one could introduce *ad hoc* objectives to address these issues, I wanted a "natural" characterization of fair ML. I thus sought to show that the assumptions I carried as a computer scientist with learning and estimation in mind could be expressed as *simple axioms* from which a class of fair objectives arises.

The economics and philosophy literatures primarily treat *utility* and *wellbeing*, but in ML we often center loss (disutility) instead of utility. I show [8] that the theory of *suffering-focused ethics* can produce a family of "malfare functions" that quantify *societal suffering* (rather than wellbeing). Given nonnegative utility, we seek to maximize a quasiconcave welfare function W(s) with $p \leq 1$ in (1), but given nonnegative disutility, we instead minimize a quasiconvex malfare function M(s) with $p \geq 1$ in (1).

I argue that in machine learning, we usually want models to generalize to unseen individuals, thus we should target group-level fairness guarantees. However, the classical symmetry axiom $(M(s) = M(\pi(s)) \forall$ permutations π) would require all groups be treated equally, regardless of size. I thus introduced group weightings \boldsymbol{w} (probability vectors, where \boldsymbol{w}_i is the population frequency of group i), alongside the weighted symmetry $(M(s; \boldsymbol{w}) = M(\pi(s); \pi(\boldsymbol{w})) \forall$ permutations π) and weighted decomposability axioms (if \boldsymbol{w} and \boldsymbol{w}' differ only on groups with equal (dis)utility, then $M(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{w}) = M(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{w}')$) to treat variably-sized groups.

To address issues of *sensitivity* of fairness concepts to small (dis)utility changes, and ensure their *units* match those of (dis)utility (as in utilitarian and egalitarian welfare), I introduced the *multiplicative linearity* axiom ($M(\alpha s; \boldsymbol{w}) = \alpha M(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{w})$) and the *unit scale* axiom ($M(\mathbf{1}; \boldsymbol{w}) = 1$). These axioms are natural almost to the point of triviality, but they are sufficient to characterize the *cardinal value* of fairness concepts, whereas (1) specifies them *only up to a partial ordering*. These novel axioms, when combined with the Debreu-Gorman axioms, characterize the *weighted power-mean family*, i.e., the class of all fairness concepts takes the form

$$\mathbf{M}_{p}(\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{w}) = \sqrt[p]{\sum_{i=1}^{g} \boldsymbol{w}_{i} \boldsymbol{s}_{i}^{p}} \text{ for } p \neq 0 , \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{M}_{0}(\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{w}) = \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{g} \boldsymbol{w}_{i} \ln(\boldsymbol{s}_{i})\right) .$$

$$(2)$$

From these axioms alone stems the *monotonicity property*, i.e., for all $p \leq q$, we have

$$\min_{i \in 1, \dots, g} \boldsymbol{s}_i = \mathrm{M}_{-\infty}(\boldsymbol{s}) \leq \mathrm{M}_p(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{w}) \leq \mathrm{M}_q(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{w}) \leq \mathrm{M}_\infty(\boldsymbol{s}) = \max_{i \in 1, \dots, g} \boldsymbol{s}_i$$

Thus power-mean justice criteria are sandwiched between the *egalitarian* minimum $(p = -\infty)$ utility or maximum $(p = \infty)$ disutility and the *utilitarian* arithmetic mean (p = 1) (dis)utility. In some sense, powermeans nonlinearly interpolate between these extremes, where moving towards egalitarianism magnifies the impact of inequality, thus increasing malfare or decreasing welfare. Since *units* in power-means (2) agree with (dis)utility (e.g., $M_2(s; w)$ is measured in *dollars*, not square dollars), we can reasonably interpret errors (differences in $M_p(\cdot; w)$) linearly, which is crucial to approximation and estimation.

Philosophical Implications to Fair ML During this foray into interdisciplinary literature, I tried to keep my results grounded in contemporary fair ML research. Weighted risk minimization is essentially the default approach to ML, and the now-standard response to ML bias is to train on more balanced data. While a reasonable first step, this perspective is *inherently utilitarian*, and thus *does not* incentivize equitable redistribution of harm. Minimax fair learning [1, 25, 43] takes the Rawlsian approach of minimizing the maximum group risk, but is thus susceptible to minority rule, and insensitive to all but the most-disadvantaged groups. By extending welfare theory to develop a novel theory of fair ML, I unearthed a spectrum of objectives that empower modelers to express and optimize their own fairness concepts. In particular, the empirical malfare minimization objective, given loss function ℓ and m_i labeled pairs (x_i, y_i) for each group *i*, is

$$\underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{M}_p\left(i \mapsto \frac{1}{\boldsymbol{m}_i} \sum_{j=1}^{\boldsymbol{m}_i} \ell\left(h_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i,j}), \boldsymbol{y}_{i,j}\right); \boldsymbol{w}\right) \quad , \quad \text{where } i \mapsto f(i) \doteq \left\langle f(1), f(2), \dots, f(g) \right\rangle \; ,$$

for some \boldsymbol{w} -weighted p-power-mean. This generalizes weighted risk minimization (p = 1) and minimax fair learning $(p = \infty)$, while contextualizing and addressing shortcomings of both approaches for $p \in (1, \infty)$.

This welfare-centric approach centers *fairness* and *societal impact*, which forces modelers to consider not their own goals, but rather the impact of their model on others. In contrast, *fairness constraints* amend existing ML objectives, and can be tuned to be of secondary importance (industry incentivizes *profit optimization*, considering *fairness* only insofar as profits or reputation are harmed). I see this radical perspective on ML objectives as invaluable in the discussion of regulation, rights, and responsibilities surrounding AI systems.

Applications I first applied this theory during my doctoral studies to develop a concept of fair-PAC (FPAC) learning. I ask, "Given a concept class \mathcal{H} and g per-group probability distributions $\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_g$, is it possible to ε (approximately) δ (probably) recover the optimal h^* with finite sample complexity for any power-mean malfare function? Is the sample complexity of fair learning polynomial?" I answer [8] affirmatively, and moreover show that, statistically speaking, for finite-class classification, PAC and FPAC learnability are equivalent. As for computational complexity, I find that standard conditions for efficient convex optimization (e.g., SVM, GLM, etc.) also suffice for malfare objectives. These results stem from Lipschitz-continuity of power-mean malfare functions (i.e., $p \geq 1$). I show [10] that power-mean welfare functions are Lipschitz continuous iff p < 0, but only Hölder continuous for $p \in (0, 1)$. I then generalize FPAC learning to optimization of arbitrary families of malfare or welfare functions, and show that, for power-mean welfare, sample complexity may depend exponentially on min $(\frac{1}{n}, 1/\min_{i \in 1,...,g} w_i)$.

In practice, data distributions greatly impact learnability, and in fair ML, each group can have their own data distribution and sample size. Moreover, in the real world, most ML is profit-driven, data are actively collected at a cost, and fairness is a tertiary reputational concern. I thus ask [9], "How can we optimally allocate sampling effort to efficiently accomplish our goals?" I show that the fairness concept, model class, and data distributions interact in complicated ways, but progressive-sampling algorithms can actively sample based on estimated greedy improvement to optimize a given fair objective with near-optimal sample complexity. Subsequent work [13] with Lizzie Kumar and Suresh Venkatasubramanian shows that fair training has a regularizing effect on minority group performance, yielding sharper generalization bounds for such groups.

Feeling as though I've only scratched the surface, I endeavor to explore these ideas in the broader ML and algorithmic fairness context. In [11], Michael Littman, Kavosh Asadi, and I study *fair reinforcement learning*, where each group *i* provides *noisy reward feedback* $R_i(s, a)$ to an agent, who optimizes the welfare of per-group value functions (i.e., expected γ -geometrically discounted reward). In our parlance, we seek

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{\pi} \mathcal{M}_{p} \left(i \mapsto \underset{\pi,s}{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R_{i}(s_{t}, \pi(s_{t})) \, \middle| \, s_{0} \right]; \boldsymbol{w} \right) \quad .$$

$$(3)$$

We give an algorithm that, with high probability, takes polynomially many exploration actions before always producing ε -optimal policies. Cardinal welfare theory also sees applications beyond ML. During my postdoctoral studies, I collaborated with Yair Zick and Vignesh Viswanathan to analyze such objectives in fair allocation settings. We show sufficient conditions for efficient optimization in restricted classes of submodular valuation functions [20, 21]. I have also studied estimating power-means and other properties at all strategy profiles in empirical game theory [15], with applications to price-of-anarchy and mechanism design [48].

Elicitation and working from partial information In [35], for convex classifiers, Alessio Mazzetto, Dylan Sam, Stephen Bach, Eli Upfal, and I replace known class labels with confidence sets $S \subseteq \triangle_c^m$ over feasible labelings, and show that we can efficiently adversarially train c-class classifiers. In [26], Evan Dong and I show the same for adversarial training over unknown group labels, i.e., $S \subseteq \triangle_g^m$, with minimax fairness objectives, i.e., for m unlabeled training points \boldsymbol{x} , labels \boldsymbol{y} , and unknown group IDs \boldsymbol{z} , we pose

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\theta\in\Theta} \max_{\boldsymbol{y}\in\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{c} \boldsymbol{y}_{j} \cdot \ell(h_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}), j) \quad , \quad \text{or} \quad \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta\in\Theta} \max_{\boldsymbol{z}\in\mathcal{S}} \max_{i\in 1,...,g} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{z}_{j,i} \cdot \ell(h_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}_{j}), \boldsymbol{y}_{j})}{\sum_{j=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{z}_{j,i}} \quad . \tag{4}$$

In both works, we apply statistical learning techniques to induce *linear constraints* on class labels \boldsymbol{y} or group ID labels \boldsymbol{z} , and then *adversarially optimize* subject to said constraints. This involves estimating label frequencies on a *labeled dataset*, then constructing an uncertainty set \mathcal{S} to respect these statistics (to within probabilistic error), making these *semisupervised methods*. Crucially, the amount of labeled data to construct \mathcal{S} scales with the *number of statistical constraints*, whereas the *generalization error* of the *trained model* scales with the \mathcal{L}_1 radius of the \mathcal{S} , the complexity of the model class \mathcal{H} , and the amount of *unlabeled data*.

In collaboration with Justin Payan and Yair Zick, I applied similar methods to reviewer assignment [16], wherein the goal is to match n_1 papers to n_2 reviewers to optimize total assigned affinity. Realistically, reviewers can't bid on all papers, so we rely on other sources of information (e.g., keyword or NLP similarity), which leaves low confidence on the quality of the review a match would produce. We thus adversarially optimize total affinity over an uncertainty set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$ is of large matrices, and bound weighted square error of affinities from some predicted centroid (e.g., TPMS [7] or some such NLP-based score), which yields ellipsoidal confidence sets. This is statistically efficient, and also computationally convenient for the adversary (convex SOCP). Axis-aligned ellipsoids also arise naturally as Gaussian contours, where the affinity of each paper-reviewer pair has some mean and variance, which the optimal allocation nonlinearly incorporates.

Current and Future Work

My prior work leaves many unanswered questions, both practical and theoretical, regarding welfare-centric fair ML. I now discuss ongoing and future work that extends the scope and usability of such methods.

Convex Optimization I am currently supervising several undergraduate projects on convex optimization of nonlinear malfare objectives. One such project applies *biased stochastic gradient descent* (bias due to the nonlinearity of malfare) to construct efficient first-order optimization routines that balance per-iterate cost-savings against a larger number of required iterations. In another student project, we observe that power-means of smooth or strongly convex per-group risk functionals are not in general smooth or strongly convex. However, we show that proximal gradient descent updates leveraging the structure of the malfare objective, i.e., if $R_i(\theta)$ is the risk of group *i* for model parameters θ , the proximal operator

$$\theta^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \operatorname*{argmin}_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathcal{M}_p\left(i \mapsto \mathcal{R}_i(\theta^{(t)}) + \nabla_{\theta^{(t)}} \mathcal{R}_i(\theta^{(t)}) \cdot (\theta - \theta^{(t)}); \ \boldsymbol{w}\right) + \frac{\gamma^{(t)}}{2} \left\|\theta - \theta^{(t)}\right\|_2^2$$

can yield convergence rates in terms of the smoothness or strong convexity properties of per-group risk functionals (rather than the entire objective), and $\mathbf{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ iterations may suffice to ε -optimize the objective (as opposed to $\mathbf{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2})$ iterations in general). Finally, a third student project studies the differential-privacy implications of fair training. Is fair training equally private for all, or are smaller groups "less private" (i.e., can we provide some ε_i and δ_i for the privacy loss w.r.t. changing one sample from group i)?

Fairness Concept Elicitation I now describe an ongoing research effort that automates aspects of fairness concept selection, which arises in fair ML and allocation settings. Axiomatic theory only characterizes fairness concepts up to the power-mean family, and within this class, reasonable people can disagree, thus we can not normatively argue a modeler "should" adopt some fairness concept. Understanding or expressing one's fairness concept requires critical quantitative thought about a fundamental qualitative human process, and for systems that impact large numbers of people, it's worth asking, "Whose fairness concept should be optimized?" In collaboration with Yair Zick and several of our students, the goal is to empower modelers by interactively eliciting human fairness concepts to within ε error, by issuing binary queries as to which of two outcomes is preferable. To measure distance between fairness concepts M and M', we take the supremum distance

$$\Delta(\mathbf{M},\mathbf{M}') \doteq \sup_{\boldsymbol{s} \in [0,1]^g} |\mathbf{M}(\boldsymbol{s}) - \mathbf{M}'(\boldsymbol{s})|$$
.

Bounding this metric ensures that, assuming unit-bounded utility, the true and elicited welfare functions essentially agree. We show that, for power-means, binary queries elicit halfspace cuts on p, thus $\Theta(\log n)$ queries are *necessary and sufficient* (via binary search), where n is the number of distinct p in an ε grid w.r.t. $\Delta(\cdot, \cdot)$ distance. To bound n, we define the *minimal additive upper-bound*

$$\Delta^{\uparrow}(\mathbf{M}_{p}(\cdot;\boldsymbol{w}),\mathbf{M}_{q}(\cdot;\boldsymbol{w})) \doteq \int_{p}^{q} \sup_{\boldsymbol{s} \in [0,1]^{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \mathbf{M}_{r}(\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{w}) \,\mathrm{d}r \ ,$$

which is the smallest upper-bound to $\Delta(M_p(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}), M_q(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}))$ for which the triangle inequality holds with equality. We show that the ε search grid on the interval [p,q] contains $n \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \Delta^{\uparrow}(M_p(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}), M_q(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}))$ points, with asymptotic equivalence $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon n = \Delta^{\uparrow}(M_p(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}), M_q(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}))$, thus binary search requires $\Theta(\log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \log \Delta^{\uparrow}(M_p(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w}), M_q(\cdot; \boldsymbol{w})))$ binary elicitation queries. We are currently seeking grant funding for this project, and hope to extend our analysis to other classes of fair objective while considering human factors.

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