On Learning Fairness and Accuracy on Multiple Subgroups

Abstract

We propose an analysis in fair learning that preserves the utility of the data while reducing prediction disparities under the criteria of group sufficiency. We focus on the scenario where the data contains multiple or even many subgroups, each with *limited number* of samples. As a result, we present a principled method for learning a fair predictor for all subgroups via formulating it as a bilevel objective. In the lower-level, the subgroup-specific predictors are learned through a small amount of data and the fair predictor. In the upper-level, the fair predictor is updated to be close to all subgroup specific predictors. We further prove that such a bilevel objective can effectively control the group sufficiency and generalization error. We evaluate the proposed framework on real-world datasets. Empirical evidence suggests the consistently improved fair predictions, as well as the comparable accuracy to the baselines.

1 Introduction

Machine learning has made rapid progress in sociotechnical systems such as automatic resume screening, video surveillance, and credit scoring for loan applications. Simultaneously, it has been observed that learning algorithms exhibited biased predictions on the *subgroups* of population [1, 2]. For example, the algorithm denies a loan application based on sensitive attributes [1] such as gender, race, or disability, which has heightened public concerns.

To this end, fair learning is recently highlighted to mitigate prediction disparities. The high-level idea is quite straightforward: adding fair constraints during the training [3]. As a result, fair learning principally gives rise to two desiderata. On the one hand, the fair predictor should be *informative* to ensure accurate predictions for the data. On the other hand, the predictor is required to guarantee fairness to avoid prediction disparities across subgroups. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the possibilities and then design provable approaches for achieving both *informative* and *fair* learning.

Clearly, achieving both objectives depends on predefined fair notations. Consider demographic parity [1] as the fair criteria, which necessitates the independence between the predictor's output $f(X)$ and the sensitive attribute A. Thus, if the sensitive attribute A and the ground-truth label Y are highly correlated, it is impossible to learn a both fair and informative predictor.

To avoid such intrinsic impossibilities, alternative fair notions have been developed. In this work, we focus on the criteria of *group sufficiency* [1, 4], which ensures that the conditional expectation of ground-truth label ($\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A]$) is identical across different subgroups, given the predictor's output. Notably, the risk of violating group sufficiency has arisen in a number of real-world scenarios. E.g., in medical artificial intelligence, the machine learning algorithm is used to assess the clinic risk,

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[1]In this work, the *sensitive attribute* is referred to as the *subgroup index* such as different races.

and guide decisions regarding initiating medical therapy. However, [5, 6] revealed a significant racial bias in such algorithms: when the algorithm predicts the same clinical risk score $f(X)$ for white and black patients, black patients are actually at a higher risk of severe illness: $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = \text{black}] \gg \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = \text{white}]$. The deployed algorithms have resulted in more referrals of white patients to specialty healthcare services, resulting in both spending disparities and racial bias [5].

In summary, this work aims to propose a novel principled framework for ensuring group sufficiency, as well as preserving an informative prediction with a small generalization error. In particular, we focus on one challenge scenario: the *data includes multiple or even a large number of subgroups, some with only limited samples*, as often occurs in the real-world. For example, datasets for the self-driving car are collected from a wide range of geographical regions, each with a limited number of training samples [7]. How can we ensure group sufficiency, as well as accurate predictions? Specifically, our contributions are summarized as follows:

Controlling group sufficiency We introduce *group sufficiency gap* to measure fairness w.r.t. group sufficiency of a classifier f (Sec.2), and then derive an *upper bound* of the group sufficiency gap (Theorem 3.2). Under proper assumptions, the upper bound is controlled by the discrepancy between the classifier f and the subgroup Bayes predictors. Namely, minimizing the upper bound could also encourage an informative classifier.

Algorithmic contribution Motivated by the upper bound of the group sufficiency gap, we develop a principled algorithm. Concretely, we adopt a randomized algorithm that produces a predictive-distribution Q over the classifier ($f \sim Q$) to learn the informative and fair classification. We further formulate the problem as a bilevel optimization (Sec. 4.3), as shown in Fig.1. (1) In the lower-level, the subgroup specific dataset S_a and the fair predictive-distribution Q are used to learn the subgroup specific predictive-distribution $\overline{Q}_a^\star$, where Q is regarded as an *informative prior* for learning limited data within each subgroup. Theorem 4.1 formally demonstrates that under proper assumptions, the lower-level loss can effectively control the generalization error. (2) In the upper-level, the fair predictive-distribution Q is then updated to be close to all subgroup specific predictive-distributions, in order to minimize the upper bound of the group sufficiency gap.

Figure 1: Illustration of the proposed algorithm. Consider three subgroups S_1, S_2, S_3, e.g., datasets for three different races. The proposed algorithm is then formulated as a bilevel optimization to learn an informative and fair predictive-distribution Q. In the lower-level (cyan), we learn the subgroup specific predictive-distribution $\overline{Q}_a^\star$ from dataset S_a (limited samples) and the prior Q. In the upper-level (brown), Q is then updated to be as close to all of the learned subgroup specific $\overline{Q}_a^\star$ as possible.

Empirical justifications The proposed algorithm is applicable to the general parametric and differentiable model, where we adopt the neural network in the implementation. We evaluate the proposed algorithm on two real-world NLP datasets that have shown prediction disparities w.r.t. group sufficiency. Compared with baselines, the results indicate that group sufficiency has been consistently improved, with almost no loss of accuracy.

2 Preliminaries

We assume the joint random variable (X, Y, A) follows an underlying distribution $\mathcal{D}(X, Y, A)$, where $X \in \mathcal{X}$ is the input, $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$ is the label, and the discrete random variable $A \in \mathcal{A}$ denotes the sensitive attribute or subgroup index. For instance, A represents gender, race, or age. We also denote $\mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ as the conditional expectation of Y, which is essentially a function of X. $\mathbb{E}_{A,X}[\cdot]$ is denoted as the expectation on the marginal distribution of $\mathcal{D}(A, X)$. Throughout the paper, we consider binary classification with $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. We further define the predictor as a scoring function $f : \mathcal{X} \to [0, 1]$ that maps the input into a real value in $[0, 1]$. It is worth mentioning that $f(X) \notin \mathcal{Y}$ since $f(X)$ is continuous. We then introduce group sufficiency and group sufficiency gap.

Definition 2.1 (Group sufficiency [4]). *A predictor f satisfies the group sufficiency with respect to the sensitive attribute A if $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)] = \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A]$.*

Intuitively, given a output score of the predictor $f(X) = \tau$, the conditional expectation of Y is invariant across different subgroups. Namely, conditioning on the specific subgroup $A = a$ does not

87 provide any additional information about the conditional expectation of Y. Then we could naturally
88 define group sufficiency gap.

Definition 2.2 (Group sufficiency gap). *The group sufficiency gap of a predictor f is defined as:*
$$\boldsymbol{Suf}_f = \mathbb{E}_{A,X}[|\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)] - \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A]|]$$

91 Specifically, $\mathbf{Suf}_f$ measures the extent of group sufficiency violation, induced by the predictor f,
92 which is taken by the expectation over (X, A). For completeness, we also discuss other popular
93 group fairness criteria: demographic parity and equalized odds.

Definition 2.3 (Demographic Parity (DP)). *A predictor f satisfies the demographic parity with respect to the sensitive attribute A if:* $\mathbb{E}[f(X)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)|A]$

96 Demographic Parity (DP), also known as statistical parity or independence rule, emphasizes that the
97 expectation of the output score $f(X)$ is independent of A. [1, 4] further revealed that if $A \not\perp Y$,
98 group sufficiency and demographic parity could not be simultaneously achieved.

Definition 2.4 (Equalized Odds (EO) [8]). *A predictor f satisfies the equalized odds with respect to A if:* $\mathbb{E}[f(X)|Y] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)|Y, A]$

101 Equalized odds (EO) emphasizes the conditional expectation of output f is invariant w.r.t. A, given
102 the ground truth Y. [1, 9] reveal that if $\mathcal{D}(X, Y, A) > 0$ and $A \not\perp Y$, group sufficiency and equalized
103 odds can not both hold.

104 The analysis reveals a general *incompatibility* between group sufficiency and DP/EO when $A \not\perp Y$,
105 which often occurs in practice. Besides, DP/EO based criteria suffer the well-known fair accuracy
106 trade-off [10]: enforcing the fair constraint degrades the prediction performance. This paper depicts
107 that under the criteria of group sufficiency, these objectives could be both encouraged.

3   Upper bound of group sufficiency gap

109 To derive the theoretical results, we first introduce the group Bayes predictor.

Definition 3.1 (A-group Bayes predictor). *The A-group Bayes predictor f^{Bayes} is defined as:* $f^{Bayes}(X, A) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X, A]$

112 The A-group Bayes predictor is associated with the underlying data distribution $\mathcal{D}(X, Y, A)$. Given
113 the fixed realization $X = x, A = a$, we have $f^{\text{Bayes}}(x, a) = \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x, A = a]$. We could further
114 demonstrate the following facts.

Proposition 3.1. *The A-group Bayes predictor f^{Bayes}: (1) satisfies the group sufficiency* $\mathbb{E}[Y|f^{Bayes}(X, A)] = \mathbb{E}[Y|f^{Bayes}(X, A), A]$; *(2) is the optimal predictor of subgroup $A = a$ under the binary cross-entropy loss function. Namely, $f^{Bayes}(x, a) = \arg\min_f \mathcal{L}_a^{BCE}(f)$, where* $\mathcal{L}_a^{BCE}(f) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim\mathcal{D}(x,y|A=a)} - [y\log(f(x)) + (1-y)\log(1-f(x))]$.

119 The proof is delegated to the Appendix. Proposition 3.1 shows that the A-group Bayes predictor
120 simultaneously meets both fairness (group sufficiency) and informative (optimal predictor under
121 binary cross-entropy loss). Unfortunately, f^{Bayes} is impossible to estimate since it is related to the
122 *underlying data distribution $\mathcal{D}$*, which is infeasible. Nevertheless, we can adopt A-group Bayes
123 predictor f^{Bayes} to derive an upper bound of group sufficiency gap $\mathbf{Suf}_f$. The upper bound then holds
124 for any predictor f that can be learned from the observed data.

Theorem 3.2. *The group sufficiency gap $\boldsymbol{Suf}_f$ is upper bounded by:* $\boldsymbol{Suf}_f \leq 4\mathbb{E}_{A,X}[|f - f^{Bayes}|]$
Specifically, if A takes finite value ($|\mathcal{A}| < +\infty$) and follows uniform distribution with $\mathcal{D}(A = a) = 1/|\mathcal{A}|$. Then the group sufficiency gap is further simplified as:
$$\boldsymbol{Suf}_f \leq \frac{4}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_a \mathbb{E}_X[|f - f^{Bayes}||A = a]$$

128 Theorem 3.2 reveals that the upper bound of the group sufficiency gap depends on the discrepancy be-
129 tween the predictor f and A-group Bayes predictor $f^{\text{Bayes}}(X, A)$. Namely, given different subgroups
130 $A = a$, the optimal predictor f ought to be closed to all $f^{\text{Bayes}}(X, A = a), \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Underlying assumption Theorem 3.2 also suggests underlying assumptions w.r.t. the data generation
132 distribution $\mathcal{D}(X, Y, A)$ for achieving a small group sufficiency gap. If f^{Bayes} for each subgroup

133 $A = a$ are quite similar, then minimizing the upper bound yields a small group sufficiency gap
134 **Suf**$_f$. For example, consider the extreme scenario **if** the A-group Bayes predictors are identical
135 w.r.t. A : $\mathbb{E}[Y|X, A = a] = \mathbb{E}[Y|X], \forall a \in \mathcal{A}$, where $\mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ is the conventional Bayes predictor
136 defined on the marginalized distribution $\mathcal{D}(X, Y)$. The upper bound recovers the difference between
137 the predictor f and standard Bayes predictor. If we use a probabilistic framework to approximate
138 predictor $f(X) \approx \mathbb{E}[Y|X]$ (i.e, training the entire dataset without any fair constraint), both the
139 group sufficiency gap and prediction error (since Bayes predictor is optimal) will be small, which is
140 consistent with [11].
141 On the contrary, if A-group Bayes predictors are completely arbitrary with high variance for A, both
142 group sufficiency gap and prediction error are large and impossible for the fair prediction.

4 Principled Approach

144 Based on the upper bound, we propose a principled approach to learn the predictor that achieves both
145 small generalization error and group sufficiency gap.

4.1 Upper bound in randomized algorithm

147 To derive the theoretical result, we consider the randomized algorithm that learns a predictive-
148 distribution Q over the scoring predictors from the data. For instance, if we consider Bayes framework,
149 the predictor is drawn from the posterior distribution $\tilde{f} \sim Q$. In the inference, the predictor's output
150 is formulated as the expectation of the learned predictive-distribution Q: $f(X) = \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f} \sim Q} \tilde{f}(X)$.

151 In practice, it is infeasible to optimize over all the possible distributions. Then we should restrict
152 the predictive-distribution Q within a distribution family $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$ such as Gaussian. We also denote
153 $Q_a^\star \in \mathcal{Q}$ as the optimal prediction-distribution w.r.t. $A = a$ under binary cross-entropy loss within the
154 distribution family $\mathcal{Q}$: $Q_a^\star := \operatorname{argmin}_{Q_a \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_a \sim Q_a} \mathcal{L}_a^{\mathrm{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_a)$. In generally $Q_a^\star \neq f^{\mathrm{Bayes}}(x, A = a)$,
155 since the distribution family $\mathcal{Q}$ is only the subset of all possible distributions (shown in Fig. 2). We
156 then extend the upper bound in the randomized algorithm.

157 **Corollary 4.1.** *The group sufficiency gap* **Suf**$_f$ *in randomized algorithm w.r.t. learned predictive-*
158 *distribution Q is upper bounded by:*

$$\textbf{Suf}_f \leq \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{|\mathcal{A}|} [\sum_a \underbrace{\sqrt{KL(Q_a^\star \| Q)}}_{Optimization} + \underbrace{\sqrt{KL(Q_a^\star \| \mathcal{D}(Y|X, A = a))}}_{Approximation}]$$

159 Where KL is the Kullback–Leibler divergence. Corollary 4.1 further reveals that the upper bound is
160 decomposed into two terms, showing in Fig.2.

161 **Optimization term** The optimization term is the average KL
162 divergence between the learned distribution Q and optimal
163 predictive-distribution $Q_a^\star$ for each subgroup $A = a$. Minimiz-
164 ing the optimization term implies that the learned distribution
165 Q will be both fair and informative for the prediction, because
166 it aims to minimize the upper bound of the group sufficiency
167 gap **Suf**$_f$ and be close to the optimal predictive-distribution
168 w.r.t. each $A = a$.

169 **Approximation term** The approximation term is the average
170 KL divergence between the optimal distribution $Q_a^\star$ and the
171 underlying data generation distribution. Given the distribution
172 family $\mathcal{Q}$, it is a unknown constant. Besides, if the distribution
173 family $\mathcal{Q}$ has a rich expressive power such as deep neural-
174 network, the approximation term will be small [12]. However,
175 an extreme large distribution family $\mathcal{Q}$ could simultaneously
176 yield a potential overfitting on finite samples. In this paper,
177 the neural network is adopted and the approximation term is
178 assumed to be a small constant. Thus, controlling **Suf**$_f$ implies
179 minimizing the optimization term.

Figure 2: Illustration of optimiza-
tion and approximation term. In the
binary subgroup $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b\}$, the op-
timization term is to find $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$ to
minimize the discrepancy between
$(Q_a^\star, Q_b^\star)$. The approximation term
is solely based on the distribution
family $\mathcal{Q}$ (brown region). If the
predefined $\mathcal{Q}$ has a rich expressive
power, the approximation is treated
as a small constant.

 ## 4.2 Challenge in learning limited samples

181 In practice, we only have access to finite or even limited samples, rather than the underlying
182 distribution $\mathcal{D}$. We denote $S_a = \{(x_i^a, y_i^a)\}_{i=1}^m$ as the observed data w.r.t. subgroups $A = a$, which
183 are i.i.d. samplings from the underlying distribution $\mathcal{D}(x, y | A = a)$. We also denote the **empirical**
184 binary cross entropy loss w.r.t $A = a$ as: $\hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\mathrm{BCE}}(\tilde{f}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m -[y_i^a \log(\tilde{f}(x_i^a)) + (1 - y_i^a) \log(1 -$
185 $\tilde{f}(x_i^a))]$. Then a straight approach is to minimize the empirical term $\hat{Q}_a^\star$:

$$\hat{Q}_a^\star = \mathrm{argmin}_{Q_a \in \mathcal{Q}} \; \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_a \sim Q_a} \; \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\mathrm{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_a) \tag{1}$$

186 Then Q is updated through minimizing the average KL-divergence: $\sum_a \mathrm{KL}(\hat{Q}_a^\star \| Q)$ from learned
187 $\hat{Q}_a^\star$. However, this idea generally *does not work* in our setting, because each subgroup contains
188 **limited** number of samples. Therefore, a direct minimization leads to overfitting for each subgroup
189 and generalization error $\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f} \sim \hat{Q}_a^\star} \mathcal{L}_a^{\mathrm{BCE}}(\tilde{f})$ is quite large, showing in Fig. 5.

4.3 Q as an informative prior

191 We have demonstrated that Q can achieve both fair and informative prediction. Therefore, we regard
192 Q as a *prior* information for minimizing the loss, yielding a bilevel objective.

$$\min_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_a \mathrm{KL}(\overline{Q}_a^\star \| Q) \qquad \text{(Upper-level)}$$

$$\text{s.t. } \overline{Q}_a^\star = \mathrm{argmin}_{Q_a \in \mathcal{Q}} \{ \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_a \sim Q_a} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\mathrm{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_a) + \lambda \mathrm{KL}(Q_a \| Q) \}, \forall a \in \mathcal{A} \qquad \text{(Lower-level)}$$

193 Where $\lambda > 0$ is the hyper-parameter. The proposed loss is a typical bilevel optimization. (1) In the
194 lower-level, we aim to learn $\overline{Q}_a^\star$ for each $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Different from Eq. (1), the loss in lower-level adds
195 a regularization term $\mathrm{KL}(Q_a \| Q)$ as an informative prior in learning $\overline{Q}_a^\star$, given a fixed predictive-
196 distribution Q. Moreover, Theorem 4.1 formally justified that optimizing the lower-level loss is to
197 minimize the upper bound of the generalization error. (2) In the upper-level, Q is updated through
198 minimizing the average KL divergence between different $\overline{Q}_a^\star$, which controls the upper bound of
199 $\mathbf{Suf}_f$.

Theorem 4.1 (Generalization error bound). *Supposing that datasets $\{S_a\}_{a=1}^{|\mathcal{A}|}$ with $S_a =$*
201 *$\{(x_i^a, y_i^a)\}_{i=1}^m$ are i.i.d. sampled from $\mathcal{D}(x, y | A = a)$, the binary cross entropy (BCE) loss is*
202 *upper bounded by L, $Q_a \in \mathcal{Q}$ is any learned distribution from dataset S_a and $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$ is any*
203 *distribution. Then with high probability $\geq 1 - \delta$ with $\forall \delta \in (0, 1)$, we have:*

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_a \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_a \sim Q_a} \mathcal{L}_a^{BCE}(\tilde{f}_a) \leq \underbrace{\frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_a \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_a \sim Q_a} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{BCE}(\tilde{f}_a)}_{(1)} + \underbrace{\frac{L}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}|m}} \sum_a \sqrt{KL(Q_a \| Q)}}_{(2)} + \underbrace{L \sqrt{\frac{\log(1/\delta)}{|\mathcal{A}|m}}}_{(3)}$$

204 **Discussions** Theorem 4.1 reveals the generalization error in the lower-level is upper bounded by three
205 terms. (a) Term (1) is the average empirical prediction error, which corresponds to the first term in the
206 lower-level loss. (b) Term (2) is the average KL-divergence between the learned subgroup distribution
207 Q_a and the prior distribution Q, which corresponds to the second term in the lower-level loss. The
208 combination of term (1-2) recovers the averaged lower-level loss w.r.t. A. [2] Thus optimizing the
209 lower-level loss could control the generalization error. (c) When the confidence δ is fixed, term (3)
210 will converge if $|\mathcal{A}|m \to +\infty$. Moreover, even if m (the sample size in each subgroup) is quite small,
211 a sufficient large number of subgroups $|\mathcal{A}|$ can also ensure the convergence of term (3).

212 For the sake of simplicity, we assumed the identical samples size m in each subgroup S_a, while the
213 theoretical result can be extended to subgroups with different samples m_a.

4.4 Practical Implementations

215 In this section, we develop a practical learning algorithm that can be applied to a wide range of
216 differentiable and parametric models, including neural networks.

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[2]In Theorem 4.1, the differences are in the square norm of KL divergence and setting the specific hyper-parameter: $\lambda = L \sqrt{|\mathcal{A}|/m}$.

Algorithm 1 Fair and Informative Learning for Multiple Subgroups

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1: **Input:** Parameters w.r.t. distribution $Q:(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$, datasets $\{S_a\}$, $a \in \mathcal{A}$.
2: **for** Sampling a subset of $\{S_a\}$, where $a \in \mathcal{A}' \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ **do**
3:    ### Solving the lower-level ###
4:    Fix Q, optimizing the loss w.r.t. $Q_a = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2)$ through SGD for each $a \in \mathcal{A}'$
$$\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a} \sim Q_a} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a}) + \lambda \text{KL}(Q_a \| Q)$$
5:    Obtaining the solution $\overline{Q}_a^{\star}$, $a \in \mathcal{A}'$.
6:    ### Solving the upper-level ###
7:    Fix $\overline{Q}_a^{\star}$ with $a \in \mathcal{A}'$, optimizing the loss w.r.t. Q through SGD: $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}'|} \sum_a \text{KL}(\overline{Q}_a^{\star} \| Q)$
8:    Obtaining updated parameter $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$ in Q
9: **end for**
10: **Return:** Parameter of distribution Q: $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$

Parametric models We choose the Isotropic Gaussian distribution (with diagonal covariance matrix) as the distribution family $\mathcal{Q}$, where the mean and covariance are set as d-dimensional parameter. Thus we need to learn the parameter $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma})$ for fair and informative $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$. As for the subgroup $A = a$, we learn parameters $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)$ for $\overline{Q}_a^{\star} \in \mathcal{Q}$. It is worth mentioning that the Isotropic Gaussian distribution is selected for its computational efficiency in the optimization. We can use any distribution as long as the density function is differentiable with respect to the parameters.

For the single predictor $\tilde{f}$, we use parametric neural-network models and assume $\tilde{f}$ is parameterized by a d-dimensional vector $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, denoted as $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}}$. Then $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}} \sim Q$ is equivalent to sampling the model parameter $\mathbf{w}$ from the predictive-distribution Q: $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}[i], \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2[i])$. Since Q is Isotropic Gaussian, each element i in the parameter $\mathbf{w}[i]$ follows a 1-dimensional Gaussian. Following the same line, $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a} \sim \overline{Q}_a^{\star}$ can be modeled analogously: $\mathbf{w}_a \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a[i], \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2[i])$. As a result, learning the distribution Q is equivalent to learning parameter $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma})$ in the bilevel objective.

Gradient Estimation Based on the previous setting, we aim to optimize the bilevel objective to obtain the parameter of Q: $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma})$. We use stochastic gradient descent (SGD) to optimize the parameters. In the lower-level, the loss in Sec. 4.3 is composed by the empirical prediction error and KL divergence term. The KL divergence has a closed form that can be differentiated efficiently. Specifically, since Q and the subgroup specific $\overline{Q}_a^{\star}$ are factorized Gaussian, the KL divergence takes a simple closed form and the gradient can be easily calculated: $\text{KL}(\overline{Q}_a^{\star} \| Q) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \left\{ \log \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2[i]}{\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2[i]} + \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2[i] + (\boldsymbol{\theta}_a[i] - \boldsymbol{\theta}[i])^2}{\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2[i]} - 1 \right\}$.

Re-parametrization trick As for the prediction error $\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a} \sim Q_a} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a})$, the term $\hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a})$ is non-linear for $\mathbf{w}$, rendering the expectation intractable in the computation. To this end, we adopt the re-parameterization trick [13, 14] in computing the gradient w.r.t. the expectation term. The trick is based on describing the Gaussian distribution $\mathbf{w}_a \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a^2)$ as first drawing $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ and then applying the deterministic function $\mathbf{w}_a(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a) = \boldsymbol{\theta}_a + \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a \odot \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ ($\odot$ is element-wise product) to approximate the sampling. Then the gradient term can be estimated as: $\nabla_{(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}_a \sim N(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a}) = \nabla_{(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}_a(\boldsymbol{\theta}_a, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)})$, where the expectation can be approximated by Monte-Carlo sampling w.r.t. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$. For a fixed sample $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$, the gradient can be computed through backpropagation. In the upper-level, the KL divergence has a closed form, thus it is easy to update the parameter of Q through backpropagation.

Proposed Algorithm Based on the analysis, the algorithm is shown in Algorithm. 1 for solving the bilevel objective in Sec. 4.3. Specifically, we adopt the alternating optimization. Namely, in the lower-level, we fix Q and optimize the subgroup specific predictor $\overline{Q}_a^{\star}$ through SGD. Then in the upper-level, we fix the learned $\overline{Q}_a^{\star}$ and update Q. Since we may face many subgroups, at each training epoch, we randomly sample a subset $\mathcal{A}'$ such that $|\mathcal{A}'| \ll |\mathcal{A}|$ for the memory saving.

Inference In the inference, we use the Monte-Carlo method to sample the weights of the neural network from distribution $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$, then averaging the output w.r.t. different sampled weights to approximate $f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}} \sim Q} \tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}}(x)$

5 Experiments

5.1 Experimental Setup

Dataset: Amazon review We adopt Amazon review dataset [15, 16], which aims to predict the sentiment (classification) from the review. The datasets consist of large-scale users. Each user has limited number of reviews, ranging from 75 to 400. The *user* is then treated as a subgroup, and it has been observed that standard training can lead to prediction disparities in several users.[17].The experiment is adapted from the protocol of [16]. Specifically, we convert the original review score (ranging from 1-5) to the binary label: the positive review (score ≥ 4) and negative review (score ≤ 3). We draw and then fix 200 users from the original dataset, which includes the training, validation, and test sets. In the implementation, we first adopt DistilBERT [18] to learn the embedding with dimension $\mathbb{R}^{768}$. Then we adopt $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}}$ and $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w_a}}$ as the four-layer fully connected neural network, where $\mathbf{w} \sim Q$ and $\mathbf{w}_a \sim Q_a$. Additional experimental details are delegated to the Appendix.

Dataset: Toxic Comments We also use the toxic comment dataset [19] to predict the text comment being toxic or not, which has shown the significant performance degradation on specific sub-populations. Following [19], we select *race* as sensitive attribute, which includes Black, White, Asian and Latino & others (4 subgroups). We also follow the same setting as the original dataset [16], which has the separate training, validation, and test sets. Since toxic comments are marked by multiple annotators, we decide that the comment is toxic if it is marked by at least half of the annotators. In the implementation, we adopt the DistilBERT [18] as the embedding with output dimension $\mathbb{R}^{768}$. Then we also adopt $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w}}$ and $\tilde{f}_{\mathbf{w_a}}$ as the four-layer fully connected neural network, with the same network structure as Amazon. Additional details are delegated to the Appendix.

Baselines We compare with following baselines. (1) ERM: training a deep model without considering the sensitive attribute. (2) SNN. Since we adopt randomized algorithms in the paper, we additionally compare the stochastic neural network through the vanilla training from the whole dataset. Namely, we find a predictive-distribution Q to minimize $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_a \mathbb{E}_{f \sim Q} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_a^{\text{BCE}}(f)$. (3) EIIL [20] proposed an IRM based approach to promote the group sufficiency. (4) FSCS [21] adopted the conditional mutual information constraint $I(A, Y | f(X))$ to promote the sufficiency. (5) DRO [22]. A re-weighting approach to assign the importance of the task. All the experiments are repeated five times.

Computing Suf$_f$ Since $f(X)$ is continuous, the group sufficiency gap is calculated by splitting the output of predictor into multiple intervals in $[0, 1]$ and computing the conditional expectation within each interval, as detailed in Appendix.

5.2 Experimental Results

We visualize the results in Fig. 3 for Amazon review product and Fig. 4 for toxic comment.

Accuracy and Fairness The accuracy and group sufficiency gap are depicted in Fig. 3(a) and Fig. 4(a). In Amazon review, the accuracy in the proposed approach has a slight decrease, compared with ERM. While the group sufficiency gap has improved by 3.0%, showing a significant improvement in the fairness. In toxic comments, the accuracy in proposed approach is nearly identical to the baseline, whereas group sufficiency gap has been significantly improved by 3.0-3.5%.

Group sufficiency gap on the specific subgroup To gain better understandings of group sufficiency gap, we visualize group sufficiency gap on specific subgroup $A = a$, i.e the discrepancy between the $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)]$ (conditional expectation on the entire data) and $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = a]$ (conditional expectation on subgroup $A = a$). I.e, $\mathbb{E}_X \left[|\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)] - \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = a]|\right]$.

In Amazon review dataset, we visualize the top-9 users' sufficiency gap in ERM, as shown in Fig. 3(b), where the gap of entire users is delegated to the Appendix. The proposed approach significantly reduces the group sufficiency gap of in most subgroups. The similar trend is also observed in Toxic dataset, as shown in Fig. 4(b), where the proposed approach has the nearly identical and small group

(a) Accuracy-**Suf**$_f$ (b) **Suf**$_f$ on each subgroup   (c) Probability Calibration

Figure 3: Amazon Review dataset. (a) Boxplot of accuracy and group sufficiency gap **Suf**$_f$ with 5 repeats: median, 75th percentile and minimum-maximum value. (b) Group sufficiency gap on subgroup $A = a$, which is the difference between $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)]$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = a]$. We visualize the top-9 users' group sufficiency gap in ERM, whereas the result for all users is delegated to the Appendix. (c) Probability calibration curve over 5 repeats with mean and standard deviation. i.e $(f(X), \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)])$. The proposed approach demonstrated a consistently improved probability calibration.

(a) Accuracy-**Suf**$_f$ (b) **Suf**$_f$ on each subgroup   (c) Probability Calibration

Figure 4: Toxic dataset. (a) Boxplot of accuracy and group sufficiency gap **Suf**$_f$ with 5 repeats: median, 75th percentile and minimum-maximum value. (b) Group sufficiency gap on the specific subgroup $A = a$, which is the difference between $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)]$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X), A = a]$. (c) Probability calibration over 5 repeats with mean and standard deviation. i.e $(f(X), \mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)])$, where the probability calibration for each subgroup is delegated to Appendix.

sufficiency gap for each race. In contrast, the baselines exhibit significant group sufficiency bias on the Asian and Latino & other races.

Probability Calibration A related concept to group sufficiency is the probability calibration [23], which is defined as $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)] = f(X)$ in the binary classification. We visualize the probability sufficiency of Amazon review in Fig. 3(c) and Toxic comments in Fig. 4(c). The results suggest that the proposed approach demonstrates a consistently better probability calibration on the whole data. We then visualize the probability calibration for each subgroup, as shown in the Appendix, where the results reveal the improved probability calibration for each subgroup.

Figure 5: Analysis. Accuracy-**Suf**$_f$ curve under different λ in Amazon review dataset.

Other sensitive attributes in Toxic comments

Apart from adopting race as sensitive attribute, we also consider other possible sensitive attributes

such as gender and religion, and the results are showed in the Appendix. The results in other sensitive attributes are similar to race, with improved fairness and no loss on accuracy.

Analysis: Influence of λ Theorem 4.1 suggests that there exists an optimal λ in the generalization error bound. Then we changed the value of λ in Amazon dataset, as shown in Fig. 5.

When $\lambda \to 0$, the subgroup specific parameters are simply learned from the limited samples within each subgroup. Then the fair predictor could not learn a proper prior from the subgroup specific predictor with a significant generalization error. Meanwhile, the group sufficiency gap is also large, which is consistent with [11]: overfitting generally degrades the group sufficiency. When λ is set between $[0.2, 1]$, the generalization error is small (with a high accuracy) and group sufficiency gap is kept small, implying that both fairness and accuracy can be achieved. In contrast, if we set a large value for $\lambda \gg 0$, the predictor is unable to learn from the data but from the random prior Q. The prediction will be completely random (accuracy $= 55\%$ when $\lambda = 50$). When the predictor outputs a random guess, different from demographic parity (DP) or equalized odds (EO), the group sufficiency gap is also large. The analysis reveals that there exists an optimal λ for simultaneously achieving accuracy and group sufficiency.

6   Related Work

Algorithmic fairness Fairness has been attached great importance and widely studied in various applications, such as natural language processing [24–26], natural language generation [27–29], computer vision [30, 31], and deep learning [32, 33]. Then various approaches have been proposed in algorithmic fairness. They typically add fair constraints during the training procedure, such as demographic parity or equalized odds [8, 34–38]. Apart from this, other fair notions are adopted such as accuracy parity [22, 39], which requires each subgroup to attain the same accuracy; small prediction variance [40, 41], which ensures small prediction variations among the subgroup; or small prediction loss for all the subgroups [42–45]. Furthermore, based on the concept of Independence (e.g. demographic parity $A \perp\!\!\!\perp f(X)$) or conditional independence (e.g. equalized odds $A \perp\!\!\!\perp f(X)|Y$ or group sufficiency $A \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|f(X)$), another popular line in fair learning is then naturally integrated with information theoretical framework through adding mutual information constraints such as [10, 46].

Understanding the fairness-accuracy trade-off As for the theoretical aspect, [47] further investigated the relation of fairness (demographic parity) and algorithmic stability. [48] formally justified the inherent trade-off between fairness (w.r.t. demographic parity and equalized odds) and accuracy, whereas the analysis is conducted for the binary sensitive attribute with the population loss. [49] studied the fair-accuracy trade-off in the multi-task learning.

Group sufficiency The notion of group sufficiency has recently been highlighted in various real-world scenarios such as health [6] and crime prediction [4, 9]. Specifically, [11] demonstrated that under proper assumptions, the group sufficiency can be controlled in the unconstraint learning. However, this conclusion may not necessarily always hold in the overparameterized models with limited samples, where [6, 16] essentially revealed the prediction disparities between the different subgroups in the unconstraint learning. [21] recently studied the fair selective classification w.r.t. group sufficiency through an information theoretical framework, while the theoretical guarantee is unknown. In contrast, the proposed lower-level loss within the paper can provably control the generalization error, and the upper-level loss controls the group sufficiency gap. Besides, a close notion to the group sufficiency is the *probability calibration* [23], which is defined as $\mathbb{E}[Y|f(X)] = f(X)$ in binary classification. We will empirically show the probability calibration could be consistently improved within our framework, whereas the analysis on finite samples and its theoretical relation with group sufficiency remains still opening [20].

7   Conclusion

We conducted a novel analysis by simultaneously learning an informative and fair classifier for multiple or even many subgroups. We derived a novel principled algorithm. We further theoretically justified the generalization error and fair guarantees of the proposed framework. The empirical results in two real-world datasets demonstrated the effectiveness in both preserving the accuracy, as well as group sufficiency.

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