Fair Robust Active Learning by Joint Inconsistency

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Abstract

We introduce a new learning framework, Fair Robust Active Learning (FRAL), generalizing conventional active learning to fair and adversarial robust scenarios. This framework enables us to achieve fair-performance and fair-robustness with limited labeled data, which is essential for various annotation-expensive visual applications with safety-critical needs. However, existing fairness-aware data selection strategies face two challenges when applied to the FRAL framework: they are either ineffective under severe data imbalance or inefficient due to huge computations of adversarial training. To address these issues, we develop a novel Joint INconsistency (JIN) method that exploits prediction inconsistencies between benign and adversarial inputs and between standard and robust models. By leveraging these two types of easy-to-compute inconsistencies simultaneously, JIN can identify valuable samples that contribute more to fairness gains and class imbalance mitigation in both standard and adversarial robust settings. Extensive experiments on diverse datasets and sensitive groups demonstrate that our approach outperforms existing active data selection baselines, achieving fair-performance and fair-robustness under white-box PGD attacks.

1. Introduction

While supervised deep learning methods have achieved remarkable success in a variety of computer vision tasks, the cost of labeling a large amount of data required for such a training paradigm is a huge burden. As a result, some utilize active learning (AL) techniques to achieve high performance by gradually selecting limited but valuable data for manual labeling [3, 13, 14, 19, 31, 40, 41].

Recently, in addition to reaching high performance, fairness and robustness have played increasingly vital roles in trustworthy visual applications. For example, a facial attribute recognition model is commonly used in biometric systems to protect the safety and confidentiality of individuals [35]. To ensure the safety and fairness of such systems, the model should neither exhibit low standard performance nor adversarial robustness against specific genders. Nonetheless, no existing work has explored the possibility of achieving this under limited annotations.

Observing this, we introduce a novel learning framework, Fair Robust Active Learning (FRAL), generalizing conventional AL to fair and robust scenarios. By adopting this framework, we can attain fair-performance and fair-robustness while requiring only a small number of acquired labels. To elaborate, these two terms refer to the widely-used minimax fairness [11], which involves achieving the highest worst-case standard performance and adversarial robustness across sensitive groups. Fig. 1 illustrates the benefits of the FRAL framework for annotation-expensive visual applications with safety-critical needs.

Under the FRAL framework, due to the need to satisfy robustness constraints, existing fairness-aware active data selection methods would face two challenges. First, because performance disparities between classes are amplified under adversarial training [43, 44], existing methods [1, 34] may perform poorly on low-frequency classes of disadvantaged groups, resulting in poor fair-performance and fair-robustness. Second, as computational costs grow dramatically under adversarial training [32], some other approaches [2, 33] may suffer from expensive computations of measuring the expected fairness gain for each unlabeled sample during label acquisition.

To conquer these two problems, we propose a method called Joint INconsistency (JIN). Specifically, on benign data, disparities between classes and predicted errors increase from standard to robust models [37, 43, 44]. Similarly, for the robust model, incorrect outputs and class imbalance performance grow from benign to adversarial inputs [9, 43, 44, 46]. Hence, inspired by prior inconsistency-based active selection methods [42, 45], we leverage the two prediction disagreements to identify potential performance improvements and label imbalance mitigation. In practice, we estimate the worst-case group and then select the top-ranked samples in it for labeling at each active learning round. Unlike randomly drawing samples from the worst group [1, 34], we select more data in minor classes and thus work better under severe label imbalance. Also, by main-
Figure 1. A facial attribute recognition system based on our FRAL framework. (a) In this system, a robust classifier predicting the young or the old is first adversarially trained with the current labeled dataset $D_L$ against adversarial attacks. (b) However, the model may display biased performance on benign samples or unfair robustness on adversarially attacked images between male and female group. (c) Consequently, we iteratively acquire manual annotations of limited samples in the unlabeled pool $D_U$ using a specific active data selection strategy. After being finetuned with these newly annotated data, the classifier can achieve better results in the underperforming (female) group, thus increasing both fair-performance and fair-robustness (return to (a)). With the FRAL framework, we can alleviate both performance and robustness discrimination with limited labeling effort.

Supporting the model on a small labeled set instead of measuring the values of all unlabeled data by adversarial training [2, 33], become computationally efficient.

We validate the efficacy of our method under white-box PGD attacks [22] in a wide variety of visual applications, including facial attribute recognition [48], object classification [10], and cell type identification [36]. Besides, we utilize several sensitive attributes in our experiments, including age, gender, and membership in a group. In various combinations, our JIN method outperforms existing active data selection approaches in both fair-performance and fair-robustness. Ablation studies prove the effectiveness of all our proposed components. Also, extensive experiments on different model backbones and multiple sensitive groups further demonstrate our generalization ability. To sum up, our contributions are listed as follows:

- We introduce a new learning framework, Fair Robust Active Learning (FRAL), practical for annotation-expensive applications with safety-critical needs.
- Under the FRAL framework, we design JIN, a novel data selection strategy, to solve the computation and class imbalance issue of prior fairness-aware methods.
- Our method surpasses existing active data selection baselines in both standard and robust fairness metrics under different experimental settings and datasets.

2. Related Work

Fairness in ML. Fairness is a fundamental problem in the field of ML. Many prior methods have pointed out that biases across sensitive groups are widely presented in ML models and datasets [18, 20, 27, 30]. Also, several debiasing training strategies [21, 24, 26, 38] are proposed to achieve fairness from different aspects, including making predictions independent of sensitive features [7, 12], yielding equal prediction odds on favored results [16], or maximizing the accuracy for disadvantaged groups [23]. Recently, some practices discussed fairness under adversarial attacked scenarios or via actively collecting a small amount of data. We elaborate on these methods in the followings.

Adversarial Robustness. Research on adversarial robustness can be roughly divided into attack and defense. Adversarial attacks aim to generate adversarial samples misclassified by ML models by adding the least perturbations to benign data, while defensive approaches seek to enhance model robustness against such attacks. Common adversarial scenarios are black-box and white-box threat models based on knowing all or nothing of the victim’s ML model.

In the past few years, many classical attacks, such as FGSM [15] and PGD [22], produced adversarial examples by back-propagating loss functions. On the other hand, defensive methods utilized obfuscating gradients [4] or training with robust optimization [22, 46, 47] against attacks.

Recently, few approaches considered the intersection of adversarial robustness and fairness. Some discussed the bias between classes in adversarial training and proposed a training framework to mitigate this issue [44]; Others analyzed differences in robustness to adversarial samples between sensitive groups and developed a simple regularization method to address the problem [25].
Parallel to prior work of designing training algorithms, we delve into ways to achieve fair-performance and fair-robustness between groups via active data collection, which is more suitable for many real-world applications where manual labels are difficult to obtain.

**Active Learning for Fairness.** Conventional active learning aims to achieve high model performance by actively querying limited manual annotations. Common label acquisition strategies can be divided into two types: model uncertainty and data diversity. In the past, uncertainty-based methods [13,14,40,41] collected data with the least model confidence for manual labeling, aiming to reduce model uncertainty after appending these data into training. Recently, some methods [3,19,31] increased the data diversity within a query batch, further improving the labeling efficiency.

More recently, several studies used active learning techniques to attain fair-performance. Some analyzed the efficacy of existing uncertainty-based active sampling methods under fairness evaluations [5]. Others designed fairness-aware data selection strategies by estimating expected unfairness reduction [2] or utilizing meta-learning [33]. Still others developed adaptive sampling policies specifically for fairness with theoretical foundations [1,34]. However, these works merely focused on fairness without robust settings.

To the best of our knowledge, our FRAL framework is the first to target both fair-performance on benign data and fair-robustness to adversarial attacks. We have observed prior fairness-centric methods cannot afford the computation of adversarial training [2,33] or struggle with fairness improvement under severe label imbalance [1,34], leading to poor fair-performance and fair-robustness. To overcome these limitations, we propose an active selection method based on the properties of adversarial training, which sets our approach apart from all existing methods.

### 3. Method

#### 3.1. Problem Definition

In this work, we introduce Fair Robust Active Learning (FRAL), a novel learning framework to reach fair-performance and fair-robustness between sensitive groups by actively acquiring limited labeled data. Specifically, let \( x \) and \( y \) represent an input sample and a target label; \( z \in Z \) indicates a sensitive attribute or membership in a group. Taking the scenario in Fig. 1 as an example, \( x \) refers to a face image, \( y \) is a class in \( Y = \{ \text{Young, Old} \} \), and \( z \) is an attribute belonging to \( Z = \{ \text{Male, Female} \} \). Assume we have a training set \( D \) composed of a small labeled set \( D_L = \{ (x_i, y_i, z_i) \}_{i=1}^N \) and another unlabeled pool \( D_U = \{ (x_j, z_j) \}_{j=1}^M \). In our framework, we first train a robust deep learning model \( M_R : x \rightarrow y \) with \( D_L \) by adversarial training. Then, once we observe performance or robustness discrimination between groups, we select a few samples in \( D_U \) with active selection strategies for manual labeling and further training.

In line with mainstream fairness studies [1,34], we utilize the well-established minimax fairness [11] rather than predictive disparities between groups as the major objective to prevent achieving fairness by deliberately degrading the performance of dominant groups. In other words, all methods are required to achieve fairness by maximizing the standard performance and adversarial robustness of the least favorable group. Formally, given a white-box adversarial attack function \( A(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow \tilde{x} \) (\( \epsilon \) is a pre-defined maximum perturbation range), a testing set \( D_T \), and a robust deep learning model \( M_R \), the fair-performance \( \mathcal{F}_{\text{per}} \) and the fair-robustness \( \mathcal{F}_{\text{rob}} \) are defined as the probability of correct predictions in the worst group as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{F}_{\text{per}} &= \min_{z \in Z} \mathbb{P}\{ M_R(x) = y \mid (x, y, z) \in D_T^z \}, \\
\mathcal{F}_{\text{rob}} &= \min_{z \in Z} \mathbb{P}\{ M_R(A(x, \epsilon)) = y \mid (x, y, z) \in D_T^z \},
\end{align*}
\]

where \( D_T^z \) is a subset of \( D_T \) with the same attribute \( z \).

**Algorithm 1** Fair Robust Active Learning by JIN

1. **Input:** training set \( D = \{ D_L, D_U \} \), validation set \( D_V \), adversarial attacks \( A \) with a perturbation range \( \epsilon \), maximum active rounds \( K \), and labeling budgets \( B \).
2. **Output:** An adversarial robust model \( M_R \).
3. **Init:** \( M_R \leftarrow \text{Adv-TRAIN}(D_L, \epsilon) \)
4. **for** \( k \leftarrow 1 \) to \( K \) **do**
   5. \( z^* \leftarrow \text{EVAL}(M_R, A, \epsilon, D_V) \rightarrow \text{Get the worst group} \)
   6. \( X \leftarrow \{ x \mid (x, z) \in D_U \land z = z^* \} \)
   7. \( I \leftarrow \text{Get inconsistency scores for } X \text{ via Eq. 2, 3, 4} \)
   8. \( X^* \leftarrow \{ x \mid x \in X \land I_x \text{ is of the top-B values} \} \)
   9. \( Y^* \leftarrow \text{Manual-Labeling}(X^*) \)
   10. \( D_L \leftarrow D_L \cup \{ (x, y, z^*) \mid x \in X^*, y \in Y^* \} \)
   11. \( D_U \leftarrow D_U \setminus \{ (x, z^*) \mid x \in X^* \} \)
12. \( M_R \leftarrow \text{Adv-FINETUNE}(D_L, \epsilon) \)
**end for**
13. **return** \( M_R \)

#### 3.2. Overview

We propose a novel method called Joint INconsistency (JIN), general for various model architectures and adversarial training strategies under the FRAL framework. Algo. 1 shows the complete algorithm of our method, which consists of 3 main steps: (1) Model Initialization: Train the robust model \( M_R \) with the initial labeled set \( D_L \) by adversarial training. (2) Joint Inconsistency Sample Ranking: For each active learning round, estimate the worst-case group
and obtain joint inconsistency scores for all samples belonging to that group (Sec. 3.3). (3) Label Acquisition: Select top-ranked samples for manual labeling until running out of budgets, update $D_L$ along with $D_U$ accordingly, and fine-tune $M_R$ to boost fairness objectives (Sec. 3.4).

3.3. Joint Inconsistency Sample Ranking

As stated in Sec. 1, prior fairness-aware selection methods either randomly sample data in the worst group [1, 34] or estimate expected fairness gain via meta-learning [33] or fine-tuning on all unlabeled data [2] for label acquisition. In adversarial training scenarios, however, the former suffers from severe data imbalance problems and the latter are confronted with an overwhelming computational burden. As a result, we design an efficient and effective sample ranking method via joint inconsistency to identify valuable samples for labeling, which is detailed below.

Worst group estimation. To simultaneously enhance both fair-performance ($F_{\text{per}}$) and fair-robustness ($F_{\text{rob}}$), we adopt a simple yet effective approach of acquiring valuable labeled data from the worst group for further training. This method builds upon the protocol in prior work [1, 34], where we estimate the worst-case group using the validation set at the start of each active selection round. Specifically, we calculate the average of standard performance and adversarial robustness to identify the worst group. Then, we use our inconsistency scores for data selection, which will be explained in the following sections. We also provide additional discussion on this process in Sec. 4.3.

Inconsistency for fair-performance. To maximize the expected gain of $F_{\text{per}}$ with limited labeling budgets, we select samples that have the highest inconsistency score between the robust model $M_R$ and an auxiliary standard-trained model $M_S$. Inspired by prior active learning studies using disagreement between models as a data selection criterion [42, 45], we hypothesize that prediction disagreement can indicate potential knowledge gain from annotation. As $M_S$ has higher non-robust performance than $M_R$ [37], samples with high disagreement are considered to be less confidently predicted by $M_R$. Therefore, additional labeling and training are needed to improve the standard performance. Specifically, assuming $M_S$ and $M_R$ are available, the performance inconsistency score $I_x^{\text{per}}$ for an unlabeled sample $x$ is defined as the prediction disagreement between $M_S$ and $M_R$ on benign data using the following equation:

$$I_x^{\text{per}} = D_{\text{KL}}(p(x, M_S) \| p(x, M_R)), \quad (2)$$

where $p(x, M)$ indicates the predicted probability distribution of sample $x$ from model $M$ and $D_{\text{KL}}(\cdot \| \cdot)$ means KL-divergence between the two distributions.

The motivation of Eq. 2 comes from theories in adversarial training. [37] proves that improving the robustness of ML models would sacrifice performance on benign data, and [43, 44] observe that the issue of class-imbalanced performance on benign data becomes more severe under adversarial training. Based on these two studies, $M_S$ has better performance and a milder class-imbalance problem than $M_R$ on benign samples. Therefore, acquiring benign samples with utmost inconsistency between $M_S$ and $M_R$ could alleviate the performance drop of $M_R$. By calculating the inconsistency score with KL divergence between output distributions of the two models and selecting the top-ranked samples from the most unfavorable group $x^*$, we can improve the minimax fair-performance $F_{\text{per}}$ and alleviate the class imbalance problem.

Our implementation is illustrated at the top of Fig. 2. For each active selection step, we first maintain an auxiliary model $M_S$ by standard training with a small labeled set $D_L$. Then, all unlabeled benign samples are fed to $M_S$ and $M_R$ to obtain two different predicted probabilities. Lastly, we calculate the performance inconsistency scores $I_x^{\text{per}}$ for all samples. The scores will be used in the label acquisition process, which we will cover later.

Inconsistency for fair-robustness. Similar to performance inconsistency, another inconsistency between benign and adversarial samples output by the same $M_R$ is utilized to measure the expected improvement of $F_{\text{rob}}$. Formally, the robustness inconsistency score $I_x^{\text{rob}}$ of a sample $x$ in the unlabeled set is defined as follows:

$$I_x^{\text{rob}} = D_{\text{KL}}(p(x, M_R) \| p(\mathcal{A}(x, \epsilon), M_R)), \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{A}(x, \epsilon)$ is a white-box adversarial attack function identical to the definition in Sec. 3.1.
The intuition of Eq. 3 also stems from the properties of adversarial robustness. To begin with, model smoothness is considered to be highly correlated with adversarial robustness [9, 46]. Moreover, under adversarial training, robust models generally exhibit larger performance disparities between classes given adversarial inputs than benign inputs [43, 44]. Consequently, regardless of the data imbalance issue, the adversarial sensitive samples could be easily identified by measuring the benign and adversarial outputs from $M_R$ and utilized to boost robustness. Specifically, in each active selection round, we use the KL distance of the two prediction distributions $I_{rob}$ as another indicator to rank the samples from the worst group to enhance $F_{rob}$. This process is illustrated at the bottom of Fig. 2.

So far, we have obtained two critical indicators, $I_{per}$ and $I_{rob}$, that can identify the potential improvement of fair-performance and fair-robustness. As our inconsistency metrics can address performance disparities between classes, we excel on severely class-imbalanced datasets compared to $[1, 34]$. Besides, our method requires only multiple model inferences and low-cost standard training on a small labeled set rather than expensive adversarial finetuning on the unlabeled set. Therefore, it is much more computationally efficient than $[2, 33]$.

3.4. Label Acquisition

As described above, the metrics $I_{per}$ and $I_{rob}$ are used to select samples that can boost fair-performance and fair-robustness respectively. Thus, to effectively maximize joint $F_{per}$ and $F_{rob}$ with the least manual annotations, we simply take the sum of these two scores as our final inconsistency metric for active data selection as follows:

$$I_x = N(I_{per}^x) + N(I_{rob}^x),$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $N(\cdot)$ is a standardization function that turns the value into an average of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

After obtaining the score $I$ for all samples from the worst group, we acquire the labels of top-ranked samples until running out of labeling budgets. Next, we append these labeled data into $D_L$ and remove them from $D_U$. Finally, we fine-tune the robust model $M_R$ with the updated $D_L$ by adversarial training and proceed to the next round.

4. Experiments

4.1. Experimental Settings

Datasets. We use three different datasets in our experiments: UTKFace [48], CINIC-10 [10] and HAM-10000 [36]. For the UTKFace facial attribute dataset, we construct two sensitive groups (young and old) and perform the 4-race (White, Black, Asian, and Indian) classification task. For the CINIC-10 dataset, integrated by CIFAR-10 and partially synthesized ImageNet, we classify ten objects and treat membership in the two domains as sensitive attributes. For the HAM-10000 skin lesion dataset, we recognize seven cell types and use genders as sensitive attributes.

We directly use the official CINIC-10 data split in our experiments and construct the other two datasets ourselves due to the lack of such information. For the UTKFace, we first filter out face photos belonging to the “Other” race and put an age-related attribute tag on each photo based on the provided age metadata. Specifically, we evenly divide all faces into two groups (Young and Old) with a threshold of 30 years old. For the HAM-10000 dataset, we simply filter out repeated images and samples without a corresponding sex attribute. After the above preprocessing steps, we randomly split the two datasets into training and validation sets with a ratio of 7:3. We measure the effectiveness of all methods on the validation set.

Evaluation Metrics. We adopt minimax fairness as our primary fairness metric, which we refer to as fair-performance and fair-robustness in this paper (see Sec. 3.1 for a formal definition). For the adversarial robust scenario, we set the threat model as white-box PGD-5 attacks with maximum perturbation range $\ell_\infty = 4/255$ and step size $\alpha = 2/255$. To provide a comprehensive evaluation of fairness, we also include prediction disparities between the best and worst groups as an additional criterion [39]. Furthermore, we report the average group performance to investigate whether there is a significant trade-off between fairness and performance. For the UTKFace and CINIC-10 datasets, we use average accuracy to evaluate performance. However, due to the severe label imbalance in the HAM-10000 dataset, we adopt the F1-score as the performance evaluation metric, as suggested in prior work [29].

Training Protocols. We use MobileNetV2 [29] as the network backbone for both $M_R$ and $M_S$ owing to the great performance on adversarial training with high training and inference speed. In the model initialization and finetuning stage, we use the TRADES loss [46] with the same setting as our threat model to train our robust model. Note that in order to conquer serious label imbalance, we apply random oversampling when training models with HAM-10000 dataset. More training details and computing infrastructure are reported in the supplementary material.

As for the active learning setting, we perform five active data selection rounds ($K = 5$). For all three datasets, we randomly divide the training set $D$ into 20% initial labeled set $D_L$ plus 80% unlabeled set $D_U$ as initialization. Then, the labeling budget $B$ for each round is 2% of $|D|$. Baselines. We compare our designed JIN method with eight active data selection baselines. For active learning baselines, in addition to random selection (RAND), we include three diverse and representative methods, including an uncertainty-based method (ENT [40]), a diversity ap-
Table 1. Performance comparison with various active data selection methods on UTKFace and CINIC-10 datasets. For both standard and adversarial robust settings, we report the results under three evaluation metrics, including minimax fairness, i.e., highest worst group performance (Worst), performance disparity between the highest and the lowest group (Disp), and group average accuracy (Avg). To ensure the reliability of the experimental results, we conduct three experiments with different random seeds and report the average and standard deviation scores. The result shows that our JIN method achieves the highest standard and robust minimax fairness among all active data selection strategies. Also, our method obtains small performance disparity without incurring average performance loss in most cases. Detailed experimental results and extensive analyses are reported in the supplementary material.

|                         | UTKFace 4-Race Classification (sensitive groups: {Young, Old}) | CINIC-10 Classification (sensitive groups: {CIFAR-10, ImageNet}) |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| Methods                 | Standard Accuracy (%)                                         | Standard Accuracy (%)                                         |
|                         | Worst (↓) Disp (↓) Avg (↑)                                    | Worst (↓) Disp (↓) Avg (↑)                                    |
| Init. AT                | 67.58 ± 0.30 5.38 ± 0.25 70.27 ± 0.31                       | 52.53 ± 17 4.28 ± 0.21 58.77 ± 0.40                       |
| RAND                    | 70.57 ± 0.21 4.32 ± 0.03 72.73 ± 0.21                       | 55.53 ± 0.53 12.14 ± 0.55 61.60 ± 0.61                     |
| ENT                     | 74.10 ± 0.79 2.45 ± 0.48 75.33 ± 0.56                       | 56.23 ± 0.92 11.30 ± 0.39 61.88 ± 0.64                     |
| CSET                    | 71.44 ± 0.46 3.47 ± 0.52 73.31 ± 0.21                       | 55.28 ± 0.44 12.94 ± 0.51 61.75 ± 0.52                     |
| BADGE                   | 72.63 ± 0.20 3.53 ± 0.23 74.31 ± 0.13                       | 55.86 ± 0.38 11.96 ± 0.44 61.84 ± 0.37                     |
| G-RAND                  | 72.37 ± 0.22 2.15 ± 0.26 73.45 ± 0.23                       | 55.66 ± 0.43 10.76 ± 0.61 60.94 ± 0.66                     |
| MinMax                  | 71.35 ± 0.24 3.27 ± 0.28 72.98 ± 0.20                       | 55.52 ± 0.49 11.32 ± 0.63 61.22 ± 0.60                     |
| OPT                     | 71.99 ± 0.31 2.76 ± 0.23 73.73 ± 0.20                       | 55.78 ± 0.33 10.90 ± 0.37 61.23 ± 0.49                     |
| FairAL                  | 74.74 ± 0.31 2.20 ± 0.13 75.84 ± 0.25                       | 56.94 ± 0.16 6.64 ± 0.10 60.47 ± 0.07                     |
| JIN                     | 75.07 ± 0.53 1.35 ± 0.09 75.74 ± 0.49                       | 57.39 ± 0.15 5.69 ± 0.30 60.10 ± 0.25                     |

Table 2. Performance Comparison on the HAM-10000 dataset. Similar to Tab. 1, our JIN method outperforms all baselines in standard and robust minimax fairness. Besides, under severe data imbalance, we observe three group-aware sampling methods (G-RAND, MinMax, OPT) cannot perform well. This issue is specifically discussed in Tab. 3.

| Methods                 | HAM-10000 Skin Lesion Identification (sensitive groups: {Male, Female}) |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                         | Standard F1-score (%) Wrost (↓) Avg (↑)                                 |
| Init. AT                | 37.37 ± 0.76 3.62 ± 0.51 39.18 ± 0.76                                  |
| RAND                    | 40.20 ± 0.24 6.02 ± 0.93 43.21 ± 0.58                                  |
| ENT                     | 44.34 ± 1.14 6.25 ± 0.85 47.46 ± 1.54                                  |
| CSET                    | 41.89 ± 0.65 6.370 ± 0.88 43.75 ± 0.96                                  |
| BADGE                   | 43.26 ± 1.00 6.52 ± 0.46 45.04 ± 0.83                                  |
| G-RAND                  | 36.15 ± 1.17 4.36 ± 0.81 37.88 ± 0.67                                  |
| MinMax                  | 37.21 ± 1.21 3.59 ± 0.86 39.00 ± 1.46                                  |
| OPT                     | 35.53 ± 1.45 4.88 ± 1.88 37.98 ± 0.64                                  |
| FairAL                  | 43.65 ± 0.99 3.53 ± 0.77 45.42 ± 0.68                                  |
| JIN                     | 44.98 ± 1.41 2.96 ± 0.58 46.46 ± 1.48                                  |

Performance comparison to active learning baselines. In most cases, our JIN method outperforms RAND, CSET, and BADGE by more than one standard deviation in two different fairness metrics with or without adversarial attacks. We observe that ENT obtains better fair-performance than three other active learning methods, which is identical to previous related research [5]. Still, our method reaches better fair-performance than ENT. Under the adversarial robust setting, our method achieves significant fairness advantages over ENT, including higher minimax fairness and lower predictive disparities. This indicates that in addition to selecting hard samples to boost fair-performance similar to ENT, our method can further identify adversarial sensitive samples in the least robust group for labeling.

Our JIN method acquires more samples from rare classes belonging to the worst group,
such as “mel” and “akiec”, resulting in higher F1-scores for these classes compared to all other baselines, particularly G-RAND. Conversely, for the dominant class “nv”, our method still achieves comparable results despite selecting fewer samples. The results show that existing adaptive sampling strategies under the FRAL framework cannot effectively handle datasets with uneven label distributions, but our proposed JIN method indeed addresses this situation.

We also compare our method with FairAL, which estimates the expected fairness increase per sample. Our results show that JIN outperforms FairAL in both fair-robustness and fair-performance. In terms of fair-performance, JIN outperforms FairAL by more than 1% in minimax fairness on the CINIC-10 and HAM-10000 datasets. Additionally, JIN achieves more than one standard deviation improvement in fair-robustness in all combinations compared to FairAL. This significant improvement indicates that our JIN method can effectively acquire more adversarially sensitive labeled samples for further training than FairAL.

**Comparison on computational costs.** We report the computation burdens of different active data selection methods in Tab. 4. Compared to ENT and G-RAND requiring low computations, our method takes more time because of maintaining a standard-trained auxiliary model. Despite this, our method achieves significantly better fair-performance and fair-robustness than the others. FairAL requires the most extended time, even more than twice as much initial adversarial training for data selection on the CINIC-10 dataset, making this approach impractical for real-world applications. This is mainly due to the large number of samples in the CINIC-10 dataset, which necessitates more adversarial finetuning to estimate potential fairness gain.

To sum up, our proposed JIN method leverages the distinct properties of adversarial training and achieves a great trade-off between fairness and computational costs. Among all active data selection baselines, we achieve the best fair-performance and fair-robustness using fewer than 30% of the initial adversarial training computations.

| Methods | nv | mel | bkl | bcc | akiec |
|---------|----|-----|-----|-----|-------|
| Class   | Freq (%) | F1-score (%) (STD / Rob) | Freq (%) | F1-score (%) (STD / Rob) | Freq (%) | F1-score (%) (STD / Rob) | Freq (%) | F1-score (%) (STD / Rob) | Freq (%) | F1-score (%) (STD / Rob) |
| Init. AT | 80.11 | 91.22 / 84.05 | 4.10 | 19.04 / 3.44 | 8.12 | 41.17 / 10.53 | 3.30 | 30.76 / 11.69 | 2.74 | 24.06 / 0.00 |
| RAND    | 80.07 | 92.41 / 86.67 | 4.12 | 23.81 / 4.17 | 8.16 | 40.90 / 12.12 | 3.51 | 43.51 / 13.67 | 2.54 | 19.36 / 0.00 |
| ENT     | 69.84 | 93.50 / 86.85 | 5.71 | 39.13 / 11.11 | 12.36 | 35.00 / 9.71 | 4.65 | 39.22 / 14.67 | 5.88 | 31.82 / 14.26 |
| G-RAND  | 80.31 | 92.68 / 86.32 | 4.04 | 20.12 / 2.38 | 8.01 | 40.87 / 7.79 | 3.34 | 27.61 / 14.78 | 2.52 | 25.64 / 0.00 |
| FairAL  | 69.13 | 92.45 / 85.89 | 6.13 | 35.48 / 12.99 | 12.27 | 38.46 / 11.41 | 5.42 | 44.66 / 15.91 | 6.13 | 35.55 / 17.60 |
| JIN     | 63.89 | 92.50 / 85.82 | 6.41 | 41.67 / 22.22 | 13.58 | 42.00 / 14.67 | 6.87 | 45.28 / 16.67 | 6.33 | 36.73 / 19.67 |

Table 3. Correlation between class frequencies and per-class performance of the worst group on the HAM-10000 dataset. We report the standard and robust F1-score for the top five high-frequency classes of the worst group. Compared with existing baselines, our JIN method is able to select more samples on less-frequent classes (mel, bkl, bcc, and akiec) and thus achieves significant improvement in standard and robust F1-score. As for the dominant class (nv), though selecting few samples, our method still achieves comparable results with prior approaches.

| Methods | UTKFace | CINIC-10 | HAM-10000 |
|---------|---------|----------|-----------|
| Init. AT | 1h 4m 26s | 1h 9m 31s | 1h 22m 7s |
| ENT     | 1s 14s | 1s 45s | 1s 12s |
| G-RAND  | 1m 5s | 2m 17s | 1s 18s |
| FairAL  | 3m 47s | 2h 21m 29s | 19m 55s |
| JIN     | 10m 29s | 19m 46s | 15m 40s |

Table 4. Computations of different active selection strategies. Referring to Tab. 1 and 2, we observe that the ENT and G-RAND methods require minimal computations but suffer from poor fairness outcomes. On the other hand, FairAL achieves better fair-performance, but at the cost of significant computational overhead. Our proposed JIN method outperforms all the above methods in terms of fair-performance and fair-robustness, while maintaining a reasonable computational cost.

### 4.3. Discussions

Below we first verify the efficacy of the proposed components, including two inconsistency scores and the process of selecting samples from a single group. Then, we show that our method is applicable to various deep neural networks. More discussions on multiple sensitive groups and potential limitations are left in the supplementary material.

**Ablation studies.** The efficacy of our proposed performance and robustness inconsistency metrics is shown in Tab. 5. A comparison of the first and second row indicates that the performance inconsistency metric enhances fair-performance and standard group average scores more than the robustness inconsistency metric. In contrast, the robustness inconsistency achieves better results in two adversarial robustness metrics. In the third row, where both metrics are used together, we observe a significant gain in average robustness and fair-robustness, but only a small drop in the standard performance counterpart. This suggests that using both metrics together may be the optimal strategy to achieve both fair-performance and fair-robustness under the FRAL framework. It is important to note that a model’s performance on perturbed data (i.e., robustness) depends on its performance on benign data, but the reverse is not true. Therefore, using only the robustness inconsistency metric...
can only achieve suboptimal robustness due to its poor standard performance as shown in the second row.

|                | STD. Acc. (%) | Rob. Acc. (%) |
|----------------|---------------|---------------|
|                | Worst (↑)     | Avg (↑)       |
| P              | 75.18 ± 0.47  | 75.84 ± 0.27  |
| R              | 72.89 ± 0.30  | 74.31 ± 0.26  |
| P+R            | 75.07 ± 0.53  | 75.74 ± 0.49  |

Table 5. Ablation studies on the UTKFace dataset. The letters P and R stand for performance and robustness inconsistency, respectively. Leveraging only robust inconsistency exhibits sub-optimal robustness due to its weak standard performance, while performance inconsistency boasts the best standard performance but lacks robustness. Using the two inconsistencies together strikes a balance by boosting both fair-performance and fair-robustness.

Discussion of worst group label acquisition. We discuss the process of acquiring labeled data from the worst group in our proposed JIN methods, which is a feature lacking in traditional active learning methods. As background, using a validation set is commonly accepted in mainstream fairness studies [1, 34, 44], and identifying the least favorable group is possible in safety-critical applications such as facial recognition systems [6]. Moreover, identifying the worst group through a validation set, rather than a training set, can be a better choice to prevent biases since adversarial training generally suffers from robust overfitting [8, 28]. In the following, we explore two critical issues related to allocating labeling budgets to a single worst group.

Firstly, we examine the rationale for allocating labeling budgets and identification to the worst group. Our empirical studies on three tasks show that the group with the least standard performance is of the worst adversarial robustness, consistent with prior studies on other datasets [25, 44]. Thus, our method of identifying the single worst group for downstream active selection using averages of standard performance and adversarial robustness can contribute to both fair-performance and fair-robustness at the same time. We also find that primarily sampling from the single worst group is more effective than distributing budgets among multiple groups, which is in line with existing work [1, 34].

Secondly, we conduct additional experiments to provide a fair comparison between our approach and G-ENT, which extends the best traditional active learning method, ENT, to sample data only from the worst group, similar to JIN. The results in Tab. 6 show that G-ENT performs worse than our method and even worse than the original ENT in terms of fairness and average accuracy. This finding suggests that traditional active learning from the worst group alone may lead to suboptimal results, potentially due to sampling bias. Overall, the above literature discussion and further experiments justify our use of the validation set, the identification of the worst group, and the superiority of our JIN method over prior active learning baselines.

Table 6. A fair comparison in sampling only from the worst group on the UTKFace dataset. G-ENT not only performs worse than our method but even degrades a lot from the original ENT.

Generalization on various model architectures. We have tested various active data selection methods on ResNet18 [17] under the same training protocol to verify the generalization ability. As indicated in Tab. 7, our proposed approach outperforms all the representative baselines in both fair-performance and fair-robustness. Moreover, identical to Tab. 1, our method can select more adversarial sensitive samples from the worst group than FairAL, resulting in remarkably better fair-robustness. Overall, our results indicate that the JIN method is effective and applicable to various neural network backbones.

Table 7. Results on the UTKFace dataset using the ResNet18 model. The experimental results in Tab. 1 and this table confirm that our method achieves advantages over multiple active selection baselines across model architectures.

5. Conclusion

We present FRAL, a novel learning framework designed to mitigate biases in safety-critical applications with limited labeling resources. Recognizing that previous data selection strategies have struggled with data imbalances and computational burdens within this framework, we introduce a elegant, effective, and efficient approach called the joint inconsistency (JIN) method to tackle these challenges. Through these advancements, we anticipate a new era of machine learning research for trustworthy visual applications.

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