How Platform-User Power Relations Shape Algorithmic Accountability: A Case Study of Instant Loan Platforms and Financially Stressed Users in India

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ABSTRACT
Accountability, a requisite for responsible AI, can be facilitated through transparency mechanisms such as audits and explainability. However, prior work suggests that the success of these mechanisms may be limited to Global North contexts; understanding the limitations of current interventions in varied socio-political conditions is crucial to help policymakers facilitate wider accountability. To do so, we examined the mediation of accountability in the existing interactions between vulnerable users and a ‘high-risk’ AI system in a Global South setting. We report on a qualitative study with 29 financially-stressed users of instant loan platforms in India. We found that users experienced intense feelings of indebtedness for the ‘boon’ of instant loans, and perceived huge obligations towards loan platforms. Users fulfilled obligations by accepting harsh terms and conditions, over-sharing sensitive data, and paying high fees to unknown and unverified lenders. Users demonstrated a dependence on loan platforms by persisting with such behaviors despite risks of harms such as abuse, recurring debts, discrimination, privacy harms, and self-harm to them. Instead of being enraged with loan platforms, users assumed responsibility for their negative experiences, thus releasing the high-powered loan platforms from accountability obligations. We argue that accountability is shaped by platform-user power relations, and urge caution to policymakers in adopting a purely technical approach to fostering algorithmic accountability. Instead, we call for situated interventions that enhance agency of users, enable meaningful transparency, reconfigure designer-user relations, and prompt a critical reflection in practitioners towards wider accountability. We conclude with implications for responsibly deploying AI in FinTech applications in India and beyond.

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"Work done during an internship at Google Research, India."
However, recent work suggests that the success of enhancing accountability relationships through transparency may be limited. Perceived agency of stakeholders [69, 81], their education levels [43], and their optimism in AI [73], could complicate the rhetoric of ‘stakeholder distrust in ADS’. Further, the efficacy of transparency mechanisms towards accountability depends on the presence of a critically-aware public, legislative support, watchdog journalism, and the responsiveness of technology providers [17, 60, 76]. Unfortunately, these preconditions may be unique to Global North contexts [109]. Understanding the limitations of current approaches in varied socio-political conditions is crucial to help policymakers adopt context-appropriate interventions, and ensure wider accountability. Prior work has sought to ease the burden on technology providers towards fulfilling transparency obligations [89, 102], and studied their impacts on users affected by ADS [42, 113, 122]. Yet, we know little about on-the-ground manifestations of accountability in ecosystems where some of its preconditions do not hold true.

To fill this gap, we examined how algorithmic accountability is mediated in existing interactions between vulnerable users and a ‘high-risk’ ADS in a Global South setting: one where there is weak legislation and nation-wide high optimism for AI. We conducted a qualitative study with financially stressed low and middle income users of instant loan platforms in India. These platforms target ‘thin-file’ borrowers (i.e., users ineligible to offerings from formal financial services) with various small credit offerings, often in the range of INR 500 - INR 100,000 (USD 7 - USD 1500). The loan platforms use machine learning algorithms trained on alternative data\(^2\) to model risk and make lending decisions [5]. Instant loan platforms have risen to prominence in recent years through a combination of factors such as affordable smartphones [80], the state’s push for widespread digital adoption [97], promotion of financial technology (FinTech) as the poster child of AI success in India [11], and financial challenges to users brought by the COVID-19 pandemic [18].

Through semi-structured interviews with 29 users of instant loan platforms from low and middle income groups in India, we examined how financially stressed users made meaning of their experiences with the ‘high-risk’ ADS, and how they perceived their relations to accountability. We found that users were drawn to loan platforms due to the promises of immediate money, minimal verification, and long tenure periods, which were enabled by instantaneous and synchronous aspects of AI. Users also perceived additional benefits such as enhanced privacy and dignity, preserved social ties, and social mobility through the use of these platforms. Since users had few avenues to seek financial assistance, they perceived instant loans as ‘booms’, and developed emotional attachments towards lenders. Users perceived and fulfilled several obligations towards lenders, even at the risks of undergoing abuse, discrimination, emotional and reputation harms, and self-harm from them. Yet, instead of being enraged with loan platforms, users shared responsibility for their negative experiences.

Through this work, we make the following contributions: First, we explore the relationship between ADS experiences of users, their social conditions and accountability. In doing so, we build upon previous work in FAccT, and explore the social dimensions of accountability through a case study on loan platforms in the Global South. We make an empirical contribution regarding how low-powered users perceive and demonstrate a dependence on the ‘high-risk’ ADS, holding themselves responsible for its failures; and how these user behaviors release high-powered actors from accountability obligations. Next, situating our findings in the literature on accountability, we argue that algorithmic accountability is mediated through platform-user power relations, and can be inhibited by socio-political realities of the context. We urge caution to policymakers in adopting universal technical interventions to foster accountability, and instead propose situated [114] approaches towards achieving parity in platform-user power relations. Our proposal includes: 1) Enhancing user agency through critical awareness, 2) Enabling meaningful transparency through collective spaces, 3) Re-configuring designer-user relations through community engagement, and 4) Committing to justice through critical reflection. We conclude with implications for using ‘alternative data’ in FinTech applications in the Global South.

2 RELATED WORK
In this section, we give a brief overview of the platform-user dynamics envisioned in literature on algorithmic accountability, the mechanisms designed to structure accountability relationships, and a glimpse into India’s AI landscape.

2.1 Platform-User Dynamics in Algorithmic Accountability

Technical and organizational opacity are viewed as primary barriers to fostering accountability [27, 98], suggesting the need for transparency from technology providers [35–37]. Technology providers have also taken steps towards increasing transparency due to a combination of user demands and self-imposed responsibility [19, 84, 117, 123]. For instance, researchers studying the experiences of ADS among users have reported increased distrust among users and their desire for transparency into ADS [25, 47]. Uber drivers accused the company of deception due to its use of an opaque ADS and demanded more transparency [116], and Yelp users expressed the need for transparency into its recommendation algorithm [48]. Consequently, several regulatory policies mandate public access to information, hoping that affected users will use this information towards making accountability demands from technology providers [16, 32, 51, 59, 99]. In fact, such an approach has been extremely successful recently. After audit trails of harmful facial recognition systems were made available to the public, there were widespread public campaigns that eventually led to their regulation in the US and UK [26]. Twitter took steps to modify its biased image cropping algorithm to satisfy user demands [123]. However, recent work casts a doubt on the generalizability of these platform-user dynamics to varied contexts. Favorable outcomes to users from otherwise discriminatory ADS may impede their accountability efforts [48, 120], users may resist imputing moral responsibility to ADS [21], and notions of accountability could vary by users’ backgrounds [70]. In addition, platform-user relations may be more nuanced than the often cited rhetoric of distrust. Nation-states and users in the Global South view ADS aspirationally and deferentially [109]; where users may attribute far reaching capabilities to

\(^2\)Non-traditional financial modeling data such as mobile phone and social media usage, financial transactions, images and videos used to model risk.
ADS, placing misguided trust in them [93]; and ADS may enjoy a legitimized power to influence users’ actions, even with little or no evidence of their true capabilities [73]. Prior work calls for aligning transparency with user needs [42, 75]. These findings warrant a closer examination of the accountability dynamics in varied socio-political conditions; a gap that we seek to fill in this paper.

### 2.2 Mechanisms of Algorithmic Accountability

A recent survey of algorithmic accountability policies in the public sector from 20 national and local governments found that transparency was the prime focus of policies [9]. Under a dynamic where users express skepticism, and seek to take action towards accountability, transparency (i.e., of models, datasets and practices surrounding the development of ADS) are viable mechanisms [53, 64, 89]. Mechanisms to increase transparency can be standalone such as documentation (i.e., of source-code, datasets, models, and processes surrounding the development of ADS) [21, 30, 55, 64, 83, 105] and explainable decisions (i.e., to help the users make informed choices when interacting with ADS) [10, 21, 42, 83, 100, 119]; or be embedded in other mechanisms such as algorithmic audits [26, 46, 112] and impact assessments [101, 102]. In fact, some studies with audits and explainability mechanisms have documented positive outcomes such as raising users’ critical awareness [100], increasing their desires to seek accountability from the designers of ADS [113], and influencing technology providers to make changes in ADS [46, 101]. However, the efficacy of mechanisms in fostering accountability also relies on other factors such as a critically-aware public, legislative support, watchdog journalism, and the responsiveness of high-powered actors [17, 60, 76]. Raji and Buolamwini acknowledge the importance of consumer awareness and capitalism in complementing their audit efforts in facial recognition regulation [101]. Unfortunately, such surrounding conditions for accountability are not universally available [109]. Organizational-level changes from technology providers most often occur as a result of regulatory and user pressures [103], low-powered users may find it challenging to regain their agency displaced by platforms [69, 81], and mechanisms may have limited efficacy where there is power asymmetry [17, 76]. This line of work calls for examining platform-user power relations for designing mechanisms.

### 2.3 AI Landscape in India

India, a country with 1.38 billion where half the population is under the age of 25, is considered an emerging force in AI due to its growing information technology workforce, research in AI, investments and cloud-computing infrastructure [31]. India envisions AI as a force for socio-economic upliftment, which is seen through state-supported industry initiatives [49] and wide deployment of AI in surveillance [67], agriculture [34], and welfare processing systems [49]. However, such promotion is supported with weak legislation. The two national AI strategies i.e., the AI Task force report [115], and the NITI Aayog’s National Strategy for AI [91] are focused on increasing adoption of AI [115] or include prescriptive guidelines towards accountability with insufficient enforcement mechanisms [91]. Similar recommendations are found in state-level policies on AI in India [56]. Policy-oriented research from the FAccT and HCI communities have pointed out how adopting accountability frameworks from the Global North may fail without due consideration to the local contexts where they are applied [71, 85, 109]. Sambasivan et al., have noted the differences in axes discrimination and notions of fairness [109]. Kalyanakrishnan et al. and Marda et al., documented the amplification of biases when using Western frameworks in the Indian context [71, 86]. We contribute to this emerging line of work on AI policy and research agenda in India.

### 3 METHODS

#### 3.1 Interviews

We conducted 29 semi-structured interviews with low and middle income individuals (16 men, 13 women) primarily from Karnataka and Tamil Nadu regions in India. We recruited participants who had used instant loan apps from non-banking financial companies between 6 months and 2 years of our study through DoWell Research agency and snowball sampling. We provided INR 1500 (USD 20) as incentives to our participants. We sampled participants based on age, gender, prior experience using instant loan applications and success of loan approval. We conducted virtual interviews in English, Kannada, Tamil and Hindi lasting 35-110 minutes (average of 55 minutes). The first author conducted 26 interviews (2 with the help of a translator), and a non-author colleague conducted 3 interviews. We sought prior written consent, and informed verbal consent before the start of the interviews. During the interviews, we focused on eliciting narratives [79] from participants to understand 1) their interests, their education and family backgrounds, 2) their financial situations during the pandemic, 3) their experiences with lending and borrowing through instant loan apps and other means, and 4) their notions of justice in lending and borrowing. Interviews were transcribed and/or translated within 2-3 days of each interviews. We used a professional service for transcribing the regional language interviews, which were all then individually verified by the first author. Towards the end of the interviews, we used a scenario as a probe to elicit participants’ opinions on alternative credit. We first explained what AI meant to participants’ through examples of Youtube and Facebook, and then presented this scenario: *Due to COVID, many people are in need of money but don’t have jobs, or access to PAN cards and bank accounts. Some apps suggest using AI to make lending decisions. Instead of bank details, they will look at users’ mobile phone information such as biometrics, location, call logs, financial transactions and shopping apps used on devices, and users’ social media activity to make decisions on loan applications. They believe that this approach will increase people’s access to loans. What are your thoughts about this?*

#### 3.2 Analysis

We conducted reflexive thematic analysis to analyze our data [24]. In the familiarization phase, the first author listened to each audio recording at least once, and read each transcript at least twice, paying close attention to participants’ choice of phrases, especially in regional languages, their emotional reactions to questions, hesitations, pauses, and repetitions. We recorded these observations and reflections and shared them during weekly research meetings with the rest of the team, which then served as aids in coding the data. In the coding phase, the lead author followed an open-coding
approach first, staying close to the data (i.e., *needing money urgently, not telling friends the reason for money*) [108], and iteratively revised the codes with the second author (i.e., *instant money, preserving privacy, feelings of indebtedness*), resolving disagreements through discussion. We generated and refined themes by going over the data, engaging with literature, and through weekly research meetings with third and fourth authors. In this work, we present 3 themes that we generated from 11 stable codes: (1) Perceived Benefits of Instant Loan Platforms, (2) Perceived Obligations to Instant Loan Platforms, and (3) Dependence on Instant Loan Platforms.

3.3 Ethical Considerations and Limitations
We approached this topic with great care, knowing the dire circumstances of participants. We reflected carefully if this study was time-appropriate. Several participants were ecstatic to be part of our research to express their gratitude through our report towards loan companies. One participant requested extra time to share their experiences in depth. These incidents helped us view our participants as individuals in their own right, rather than as victims of their circumstances, and gave us confidence that this research was timely. During the interview, we let participants guide the discussion towards the experiences that were most salient to them. We stored data on Google drive and restricted access to the research team. We also took care to anonymize the data and report them in this paper. We intentionally do not specify the names of loan platforms that we recruited users from to preserve anonymity. Although we attempted to recruit participants across gender, our sample skews more towards men. We also do not have any perspectives from non-binary identifying individuals. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, we conducted all our interviews over video and phone, which limited our ability to include observations and contextual inquiry. The first author’s caste and class privilege (evident through name and dialect) may have influenced participants’ responses. Our research team has over 10 years of experience working with marginalized populations in the Global South. Reflecting on our positionality, we elicited narratives with care, and analyzed the data extensively to cover multiple themes, and ensure validity.

4 CONTEXT
4.1 Participant Demographics
10 participants belonged to urban-middle income groups, and the rest 19 participants belonged to urban-lower or lower-middle income groups. 25 of our participants worked in the service sectors as accountants and chefs in restaurants, carpenters, customer service, sales and marketing representatives, tailors, taxi and auto-rickshaw drivers, or owned small businesses. 2 participants worked in health and education sectors, and 2 participants identified their primary roles as “house-wives.” All our participants incurred significant loss of incomes during the pandemic. Several participants (n=16) were responsible for supporting 4-5 member households with reduced or no incomes; they had pledged or sold the few assets they possessed, and in few cases, the very assets that were sources of income to them. In addition, vulnerability for them meant having to comply with exploitative rules from informal lenders, from their children’s schools, from local state offices, and participants having no monetary or social capital to even claim their rights.

4.2 Instant Loan Applications
Instant loan platforms, primarily classified as ‘FinTech’ provide technical infrastructure to connect NBFCs (shadow banking entities that offer financial services without a banking license) [1] with borrowers. They offer small, short term loans, typically INR 500 - 500,000 over a period of 15 days - 6 months, using machine learning on a combination of CIBIL scores3, and ‘alternative credit data.’ Although the workings of these loan apps are proprietary, most instant loan apps, in their privacy policy, disclose using the following as ‘alternative credit data’: ‘know-your-customer’ (KYC) data such as names, addresses, phone numbers, PIN codes, reference contacts, photos, and videos, personal account number (PAN), Aadhar number (unique identification number), device information such as location, hardware model, build model, RAM, storage, unique device identifiers like Advertising ID, SIM information that includes network operator, WiFi and mobile network information, cookies; financial SMS sent by 6-digit alphanumeric senders, and information obtained from 3rd party providers for making credit decisions [2, 4–7]. Applications also use this data for analyzing user behavior for advertising and security purposes. Apps use AI in several other ways including use facial recognition for completing verification, natural language processing for information extraction and contract automation, machine learning for fraud detection and market analysis, and chatbots to provide customer service [3]. These platforms, targeted at borrowers from low and middle income groups, have proliferated the market recently, and are hailed by the state as the ‘drivers of economic growth’ for the ‘unbanked’ India [11]. Some popular apps include Kissht [5], Dhani [2], Kredit-Bee [6], SmartCoin [7], and MoneyTap [4].

5 FINDINGS
All participants unanimously cited the promise of ‘instant cash’ as primary reasons for trying instant loan platforms. We found that this promise was the precursor to a cycle of reciprocal exchanges between loan platforms and the users, which we discuss with the help of the following themes: (1) Perceived Benefits of Instant Loan Platforms, (2) Perceived Obligations to Instant Loan Platform, and (3) Dependence on Instant Loan Platforms.

5.1 Perceived Benefits of Instant Loan Platforms
Participants who were successful in availing instant loans through the applications expressed great excitement and gratitude towards these platforms. While many of our participants faced significant financial hardships even before the COVID-19 pandemic, almost all of them experienced exacerbated difficulties during the pandemic. Several participants (n=16) reported seeking loans to either supplement or substitute their loss of incomes. These platforms also offered attractive benefits, giving our participants the perceptions of loans with no-strings attached. We highlight perceived benefits of instant loan platforms with the help of the following codes: 1) Being able to access anytime, anywhere, 2) Ensuring dignity and privacy, 3) Preserving social ties, and 4) Promising social mobility.

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[3] credit scores generated by the Credit Information Bureau India Limited
5.1.1 Being able to access money anytime, anywhere. Participants’ enthusiasm for instant loans often highlighted their distrust in formal banking sectors, a finding also reported in research on financial experiences of other vulnerable populations [95, 118]. Our participants despised extensive verification processes of formal loans. Formal loan processes required applicants to submit a long list of identity verification documents such as birth certificates, caste certificates, assets documents, employment certificates. Several of our participants did not have these documents to begin with, shutting them out of formal financial systems. Finding the right set of documents to produce is never an easy task for anyone, and was exceptionally difficult for those participants who had lower levels of education and literacy. Further, participants were required to seek willing guarantors who would support their applications, open up their homes to unannounced visits from loan officers, and haggle with them for weeks, even after which there was no guarantee of a loan. As P16 said, “[B]anks have several rules and regulations. […] They might say, ‘there was a server problem, come back tomorrow.’ They make us roam everywhere. There are a lot of internal things that we don’t understand.” In contrast, instant loans arrived into users’ bank accounts within minutes of them making requests. While the requirements of different apps varied slightly, participants generally recalled providing minimal details such as the their names, addresses, phone numbers, selfies, permanent account numbers (PAN) and Aadhar card numbers (unique identification numbers). Given the convenience of loan apps, participants anecdotally mentioned borrowing loans from quaint locations such as under the streetlights and bathrooms at midnight. Such instant money was a boon for participants like P10 during dire circumstances: “[W]hen I installed the app, the first thing I was happy about - instant cash. Because it was the urge of the money at that point of time. And I got within 5 minutes! Believe it or not 5 minutes, I received the money.”

5.1.2 Ensuring dignity and privacy. Several participants who praised the features of instant loans shared their experiences with local money lenders or pawn brokers, whom they had turned to due to difficulties in getting loans from banks. However, local lenders had often charged high interest rates, demanded repayment on their whims, and had sometimes employed aggressive recovery tactics such as visiting homes, and harassing our participants and their families. P3 recalled, “I had taken once a 2000 rupees (USD 27) loan [from a local lender], and they had charged me 500 interest that I was supposed to repay within a month. They were harassing me, and wanted the money immediately.” Fearing reputation harm from local lenders and gossip in their social circles, participants avoided seeking such loans except in unavoidable circumstances. Instant loan applications, by nature of being on users’ mobile devices, offered a high degree of privacy that was previously unavailable for participants. P19 explained, “You take from market [...] everyone will get to know. [People] will talk. Here [...] no one else will know.” Users were afforded the flexibility of starting repayments after a few months, and could even request time extensions with 1-click features. Our participants welcomed such features as hallmarks of borrower-friendliness. P3, who was quoted previously contrasted having access to birth certificates and caste certificates is highly correlated with class, caste and socio-economic status in India. As of 2016, 62.3% of children under the age of 5 had birth certificates, and 69.1% of all household members had aadhar cards [65]. Their experiences, “Whether your loan amount is large or small, [instant loan platforms] will give you some time to repay... [When local lenders were harassing me], I took this instant loan. [The app] gave me three months time to repay the money and interest was also just 300 rupees.” In addition, the promise of digital transactions instilled hopes of digital repercussions on defaulting, like a meagre impact on participants’ CIBIL credit scores, thus increasing their overall comfort in borrowing instant loans.

5.1.3 Preserving social ties. Almost all our participants reported routinely turning to their closest circles during times of need. However, such lending-and-borrowing was riddled with complexities. First, it was difficult for participants to even muster the courage to ask their social circles. In social circles, small loans were indicative of participants’ inability to manage their households, and thus hurt their respectability. When P14 asked relatives for help with her child’s education, she received unsolicited advice in the guise of care: “[They said], ‘why do you want to send [your kid] to that school paying high fees in this critical situation? You can just shift [switch] to government (public) school.” Public schools in India offer free education, and are often viewed as schools for children from lower socio-economic backgrounds. Education is highly regarded as a mobility tool for the middle classes in India. Hence, sending children to well-regarded private schools is both a responsibility, and a matter for pride for parents, leading P14 to perceive the advice as derogatory. Given such humiliating experiences, participants equated borrowing from social circles with pledging their “self-respect.” Naturally, when their requests for money were unmet, participants like P9 dealt with extreme feelings of rejection that strained relationships: “I knew they had the money, and they still refused. That is why I don’t feel like asking anyone money... Earlier I used to keep in touch regularly. now that bonding is not there.” Small, predetermined loans offered by instant loan platforms removed burdens of ask, and alleviated worries of social image for participants. In addition, participants hoped that the ‘instant’ nature of loans would ensure that they did not dwell on their feelings in case of rejection. As P26 said, “If I get [the loan] I’m lucky enough. If not, […] there’s no risk involved. […] [Next day], there is a tendency that you could forget also. You would just move off (on).”

5.1.4 Promising social mobility. Some participants had been lured into the credit system previously through shopping and entertainment, but such experiences had rarely ended well. They had subscribed to comforts and generous credit limit increases without worrying about monthly EMI payments. Few users had understood how credit cards worked, what credit scores meant, and the implications of defaulting on their credit bills. P20 learned about the implications of credit scoring system through negative experiences: “First we got INR 5000 from [financial institution], which gradually increased to INR 15,000 [and finally reached] INR 1,60,000. I purchased many products through [credit]. [...] I now have [a credit score of] 600. Because of this, nobody is giving us loans.” Participants with middle-class aspirations were often fearful, and expressed aversion to incurring large debts. However, as P08 put it, seemingly small loans offered by instant loan platforms were necessary evils that could help users build credit and achieve dreams of mobility: “[B]anks should grant us loans in the future. […] If we don’t take a loan, [credit score] will go in the negative.” Participants thus reported seeking
instant loans for their children’s education, for upgrading their comforts, and to secure financial independence.

5.2 Perceived Obligations to Instant Loan Platforms

Instant loan platforms were sources of immediate money and also the only means of survival for participants during difficult times when they ran from pillars to posts to seek financial help. Participants used instant loans to manage their everyday expenses, ranging from buying groceries, paying for school fees of their children, to clearing outstanding debts. Thus, as in the old adage, several participants equated the loan platforms with friends, and expressed intense feelings of indebtedness towards loan companies.

P01, who sought instant loans when his business went haywire said, “It really helped me during my tough times, so I actually owe them and I’m actually [still] owing them... I would recommend this app to so many of my contacts and I would say just like how ‘a friend is in need is a friend indeed.’” Our participants perceived and fulfilled several obligations toward the loan platforms, that we explain through the following codes: a) Accepting harsh terms and conditions, b) Over-sharing sensitive data, and c) Making high fee payments.

5.2.1 Accepting harsh terms and conditions. In the anticipation of ‘instant’ money, several participants acknowledged that they had simply clicked on ‘I agree’ to terms and conditions of the apps, without expending the slightest effort to understand what they were when they ran from pillars to posts to seek financial help. Participants used instant loans to manage their everyday expenses, ranging from buying groceries, paying for school fees of their children, to clearing outstanding debts. Thus, as in the old adage, several participants equated the loan platforms with friends, and expressed intense feelings of indebtedness towards loan companies.

P15 explained, “It is okay if they collect information. If I have an intention to cheat then I should be scared. [...] If I am willing to repay fairly, I need not be scared.” We also found that participants’ mental models of instant loans shaped their data-sharing practices in complex ways. Several participants expressed some discomfort sharing such data. Some associated sensitive data with ideas of ‘intimacy.’ As P15 put it, “If they are tracking where I’m going and what I’m doing, it’s like sharing my family background (colloquial: wife’s background) with them.” Others discussed fears of misuse and online scams. Yet, all participants had either already enabled permissions unknowingly, or showed willingness to do so. P24 weighed her discomfort against the need for money and arrived at a compromise, “I got a thought that they will hack. But at that time money was important... [N]ow in home loan we pledge papers, in gold loan we pledge gold, in the same way digitally we have to pledge all our information.” Being used to models of lending and borrowing where trust in the exchange was facilitated through the value of pledged assets, our participants ‘pledged’ sensitive data as high-credibility collateral assets.

5.2.2 Over-sharing sensitive data. Several loan platforms also required access to users’ media and gallery, phone books, WhatsApp and Gmail contacts, location information, financial transaction texts, app usage analytics, and other device information. We found that our participants perceived sharing such data as tests of credibility. For them, withholding data meant a lack of confidence in their own abilities to repay loans. Attempting to borrow loans despite not being confident was equivalent to ‘cheating’ loan platforms. P16 explained, “It is okay if they collect information. If I have an intention to cheat then I should be scared. [...] If I am willing to repay fairly, I need not be scared.” We also found that participants’ mental models of instant loans shaped their data-sharing practices in complex ways. Several participants expressed some discomfort sharing such data. Some associated sensitive data with ideas of ‘intimacy.’ As P15 put it, “If they are tracking where I’m going and what I’m doing, it’s like sharing my family background (colloquial: wife’s background) with them.” Others discussed fears of misuse and online scams. Yet, all participants had either already enabled permissions unknowingly, or showed willingness to do so. P24 weighed her discomfort against the need for money and arrived at a compromise, “I got a thought that they will hack. But at that time money was important... [N]ow in home loan we pledge papers, in gold loan we pledge gold, in the same way digitally we have to pledge all our information.” Being used to models of lending and borrowing where trust in the exchange was facilitated through the value of pledged assets, our participants ‘pledged’ sensitive data as high-credibility collateral assets.

5.2.3 Making high fee payments. Instant loans came at high initial costs to participants. Platforms charged processing fees, disbursal fees, down-payments, often taking away 20-25% of loan amounts during disbursal. This was in addition to the high floating interest rates (15 - 35%) and penalty charged by platforms. For P10, these high fees were small costs of the convenience during what were difficult times for her: “in case we don’t pay consecutively for a month, some charges are there, but I wouldn’t call it a disadvantage. When you are getting all these advantages that’s a common thing. That’s perfectly fine.” In addition, participants discussed how repeatedly borrowing through the same platform easily offset such costs. They received attractive benefits like promotional codes, discounts, and better terms on new loans as rewards for their loyalty; these reciprocal exchanges were perceived as mutually beneficial by participants. Thus, several participants developed emotional attachments to loan platforms. P01’s emotional attachment nudged him towards safeguarding the interests of loan platforms through high fees, “I wouldn’t recommend this app to a person who doesn’t have intention to pay [high fees]... That’s my, a little bit emotional attachment. [...] That’s how the [platform] will be able to give salary to their associates and the people supporting them.”

5.3 Dependence on Instant Loan Platforms

FinTech companies often tout narratives of financial inclusion for ‘unbanked’ users through instant loans [5–7]. We found that such inclusion came at the cost of participants’ dependence on loan platforms. Participants circumvented barriers to access loans, borrowed cyclically through loan platforms, tolerated abuse from predatory lenders, and shared responsibility for their negative experiences, potentially leading to their financial and technology exclusion. We
discuss these findings with the following codes: 1) Circumventing algorithmic discrimination, 2) Recurring debts, 3) Tolerating abuse, and 4) Assuming responsibility for loan platforms’ failures.

5.3.1 Circumventing algorithmic discrimination. While instant loan apps are designed as single-user applications, we found evidence of intermediated use among our participants, as is commonly reported in previous research on technology-use in the Global South [12, 41, 72, 110]. Participants sought the help of others, often immediate family members or trusted close friends, to download and navigate the apps, submit their applications, and manage payments. In some cases, we also found that participants attempted to borrow loans through others’ devices and profiles. For instance, P10 borrowed through her husband’s phone after intuitively recognizing that instant loan limits could be influenced by gender pay gap, and gendered patterns of digital activities. She even suggested a friend to borrow through her husband’s phone saying, “Maybe our salary cycle is less and husbands’ salary cycles are more. And they have the credit cards and stuff. Maybe it’s interlinked.” While such stereotype reinforcement through ADS could be viewed as potential barriers to access, evoking strong reactions in the West [22], our participants did not perceive them so. In fact, they underscored the importance of reading intentions in attributing experiences to discrimination. P07 acknowledged that disparate treatment could lead to unfair outcomes, but asserted that instant loan platforms did not intentionally discriminate based on gender: “If they are giving less to women and more to men, it will not be correct. [...] But when it comes to loans, mostly they will give equal amounts to everybody.” Our participants shared similar views towards other issues of algorithmic discrimination. P08, who identified as dark-skinned, talked about whitening their face digitally to get around potential intersectional accuracy disparities [26] in instant loan technology: “We could use ‘FaceApp’ to modify our looks. If they (loan platforms) are grand thieves, we are petty thieves. That is the only difference.”

5.3.2 Recurring debts. Instant loan platforms made borrowing money pleasurable for participants by offering gamified engagement. In addition to in-app discounts, surprise offers and virtual coins that we discussed earlier, we found that some apps also gamified credit limit increases; the platforms would first offer small amounts like INR 5,000-10,000 (USD 75-135); users would then ‘unlock’ higher credit limits when they neared their repayment terms, mimicking level-increases in virtual games. Some participants suspected that such gamified mechanisms were reward nudgets in disguise. P7 with an outstanding loan of INR 10,000 (USD 135) noted, “Now that INR 2,00,000 (USD 2700) lock has opened up... I feel they opened the lock to show me that I will be eligible for a larger amount when I close this loan.” We found that these mechanisms, in addition to ready acceptances of instant loans by our participants, had led several of them to borrow beyond their capacity. Participants often viewed their negative experiences through the lenses of ‘incompetency’, and assigned self-blame for their experiences. Even if loan platforms were at fault, they were seemingly offering loans with no asset requirements; therefore, any rule or tactic was justifiable. P23, a survivor of abuse from a predatory loan platform reflected on their learnings: “I was very firm about not availing app loans but since my friend suggested it I took it. [...] I did not think about whether we could repay the loan during difficult times. Corona has taught me a very good lesson.” Other negative experiences included losing money to fake apps, or being rejected by loan platforms without due explanations. Contrary to normative expectations of recourse, such negative technological experiences induced feelings of ‘shame’ in our participants who were less likely to share such experiences with their peers or seek help. In addition, participants’ ardent optimism in technology and a lack of confidence in their technical abilities often led them to assume unfair responsibility for their negative experiences. P22 who was confident about her creditworthiness blamed her lack of technical skills for an unexplained
loan rejection: "Maybe I made some mistake while typing. Because if they look at my PAN card, they will definitely give me a loan. So I feel that there must be some kind of mistake that I made." Unfortunately, for participants with futuristic outlook on technology, negative experiences reinforced their beliefs that they would never be the intended audience for ‘high tech’ applications, resulting in technology abandonment. As P2 put it, the doors to an AI-powered future remained closed to them: "I felt that this gate had closed for me. I felt I shouldn’t go around and ask for money, or on these apps."

### 6 DISCUSSION

Our work fills a critical gap in the research on algorithmic accountability: we provide an understanding of social conditions of accountability through the experiences of (potentially) vulnerable users who are constrained in their capacity to seek accountability from technology providers. We situate these findings in the larger discourse on algorithmic accountability, and provide some suggestions for contextualizing the design of accountability mechanisms. We conclude with implications of our work for the use of alternative data in FinTech applications in the Global South.

#### 6.1 Examining Power Relations in Algorithmic Accountability

Current discourse on algorithmic accountability rests on the existence of accountability relationships between technology providers responsible for causing harm through ADS, and the individuals experiencing harm through ADS (or their representatives) [121]. In this relationship, the technology providers are obligated to provide ‘accounts’ to the those individuals who are harmed [15, 96, 101, 123]; these individuals or their representatives may then judge the accounts and seek to impose consequences if necessary. Consequently, much work in algorithmic accountability often presents ‘sharing of information’ by technology providers as the first phase of accountability [53, 64, 89, 121]. Prior work calls for involving affected individuals in designing accountability mechanisms to ensure that the information is meaningful to them [42, 75]. Our work extends this argument to show that purely technical approaches to accountability obscure the socio-political realities of stakeholders that make such ‘information sharing’ necessary in the first place.

In our study, exchanges enabled by AI-based instant loans reconfigured users’ relations to instant loan platforms in ways that distract from the goals of algorithmic accountability. First, users were placed into positions of ‘indebtedness’ with loan platforms. Users in our study were largely ‘thin-file’ borrowers, making it difficult for them to secure loans from formal financial institutions. They had primarily relied on informal loans for their borrowing needs, which had come with huge social costs to them. Thus, instant loans, with seemingly no-collateral requirement, no-strings-attached were viewed as a huge ‘favor’ by users. Under users’ debt relationships with loan platforms, it was the users, rather than the platforms, who perceived obligations. Users fulfilled these obligations in both material and intangible ways, and persisted despite human and other costs, such as abuse, discrimination, recurring debts, privacy harms, and self-harm to them. Contrary to the normative behaviors of outrage in users documented from work in the West [101], users in our study did not believe it was in their right to question the terms and conditions of lenders. Instead, they assumed responsibility for their failures of loan platforms, thus demonstrating a dependence, and releasing those high-powered actors from the obligations of accountability. Thus, we argue that algorithmic accountability is mediated through platform-user power relations, and can be stymied by on-the-ground socio-political conditions of users. Responsible development of AI cannot be universally achieved without paying close attention to these situated [114] power dynamics. We need more research on the relationship between accountability mechanisms, agency of users, and the impetus for action in different socio-political contexts to ensure responsible AI more widely. We build on the work of Katell et al. [74], and propose a situated approach to algorithmic accountability.

#### 6.1.1 Enhancing agency of the forum through critical awareness

New internet users, with vastly different mental models of AI can place misguided trust in ADS [82, 93, 109]. Such high user-trust in AI systems played out in several ways in our study: ready acceptances of terms, conditions, and loan decisions, often to the extent of users reevaluating their own competencies and abilities. However, design and research in user-centered AI often assumes low trust in AI, and begins with questions of ‘how might we design for increased user trust in AI?’ Instead, designs must plan for appropriate failures assuming high-user trust in AI systems [14]. Research must address questions such as decreasing user trust or increasing user distrust in AI systems. Further, we saw that users who benefited from the instant loan applications developed deep emotional attachment instantiations in both material and intangible ways, and persisted despite the experiences reinforced their beliefs that they would never be the intended audience for ‘high tech’ applications, resulting in technology abandonment. As P2 put it, the doors to an AI-powered future remained closed to them: "I felt that this gate had closed for me. I felt I shouldn’t go around and ask for money, or on these apps."

#### 6.1.2 Enabling meaningful transparency through collective spaces

Transparency is a widely called for mechanism for accountability [8]. Making registries of datasets, models and processes available for public scrutiny [16, 59, 99] is a good first step. However, lack of technical expertise among the public could render such transparency meaningless. Thus, corporate actors and governments must work with civil advocacy groups to create toolkits that consumer advocates can use towards accountability efforts. The Algorithmic Equity toolkit by ACLU Washington could serve as a model for such aims [74]. Further, for transparency to serve the goal of answerability, it must generate sufficient pressure from the forum that forces actors to respond to violations. When platform-user
relations are entrenched in power differences, individual actions by vulnerable users may not be successful in large scale social changes [39, 78]. Therefore, we must go beyond transparency for individual users, and towards transparency of collective users. One way to achieve this may be through designing spaces where vulnerable users can mobilize support towards demanding collective accountability. Through our study, we saw that new internet users are often ashamed of their negative experiences, making it unlikely for them to share their experiences with other users offline. Anonymity provided by digital ecosystems can be leveraged to reduce such barriers for them. Such a platform could also lead to normalization of negative experiences, leading to discourse and then political action. Ahmed et al’s Protibadi [13], a system to mobilize support against sexual harassment in Bangladesh, and Irani and Silberman’s Turkopticon [68] to invert requester-turk worker power relations are examples of intervention opportunities for researchers interested in algorithmic accountability.

6.1.3 Re-configuring designer-user relations through community engagement. Algorithmic harms such as bias and discrimination are extensively studied in FAccT, and receive extensive attention especially in Western media [26, 61, 87, 123]. However, we saw in our study that users accessing instant loans were understudied by algorithmic discrimination. Rather, they expressed significant concerns about alternate forms of harms from ADS systems such as data leaks, gossip in social circles from data leaks, reputation damage and social frictions. Prior work has already pointed to the need to re-contextualize harm measurements [109]. We extend this argument and draw on work by Metcalf et al. to suggest that we must co-construct measurements of harms with the community of stakeholders involved [88]. While doing so, we must also recognize that a purely computation framing of harms fails to address injustices caused by structural oppression [63, 77]. Such structural oppression is at the root of what has ‘excluded’ these individuals from technology spaces, and created designer-user binaries. We therefore echo the calls made by scholars to reconfigure these relations through design practices situated in community values [33]. Design Beku [104] is an excellent model for how this could be done.

6.1.4 Committing to justice through critical self-reflection. Users behaviors towards AI-based predatory applications including justification, tolerance, acceptance and self-blame led to extreme consequences such as abuse, reputation harm and self-harm. Such experiences are a violation of users’ privacy, and users’ right to dignity. Thus, the findings in our study also point that responsible AI is a human rights’ issue. What recourse mechanisms can we afford to these users in the case of undergoing data leaks that are the equivalent of emotional harm? Further, what recourse mechanisms can we afford to these users when there is intentional reputation harm? How far can we go in addressing human rights’ issues with technical interventions? What does accountability mean when predatory lenders create mobile applications with open-sourced machine learning algorithms and datasets, and slap a usable interface to prey on vulnerable users? Can our radical vision of democratizing AI hurt more than help? What forms of accountability can be assumed when the tools we created land into the hands of malicious actors? While we acknowledge that we do not have the answers to these large challenges, we believe critical reflection might be a good first step.

6.2 Implications for the use of Alternative Data in FinTech Applications in India and Beyond

‘Alternative lending’ uses mobile phone data to solve information asymmetry problems of lenders, who traditionally depend on tangible collateral assets [57]. Such models could also carry huge benefits to borrowers: As we saw in our study, they could open up opportunities for users who have never been a part of formal financial systems. These benefits were especially significant to our participants given the economic challenges brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic. Unfortunately, alternative lending could also have extreme downsides; without regulation or rules to define the limits of what counts as ‘alternative data’, the judgements made based on these data are largely arbitrary. In addition, new internet users in the Global South (such as the users in our study), may over-share sensitive data in the name of high quality collateral assets to unverified platforms, risking privacy harms. Current techniques around privacy, data rights and data sovereignty rarely account for data as collateral assets, calling for research to re-frame designs around privacy, safety and trust. The harms of alternative credit often extend beyond the instance of decision-making. That is, data assets can themselves be elite resources [111], and are often the products of uneven social relations [38]. For instance, loan platforms reproduced gender relations prevalent in economic and social spheres when women participants used their husbands’ phones to seek loans. If the goal of AI-based lending is to achieve equitable financial inclusion, we must account for such data disparities in our imaginations of AI systems. Further, data collection mechanisms may be predatory. Users in our study reported receiving ads on their phones even when they were unsuccessful with the apps, or several months after they had stopped using the apps. While one could argue that such predatory mechanisms could be curtailed with better user privacy, we remind the reader that giving consent and accepting privacy policies were unparalleled obligations to financially stressed users in comparison to ‘instant’ cash. New data privacy and consent models such as collective consent [107] may be viable options. As an immediate call-to-action, we urge designers to implement AI systems based on established industry practices [15, 96]. Such practices include sourcing data responsibly i.e., ensuring that users’ personally identifying information is protected at all times, preparing a data-maintenance plan for the life-cycle of the product, collecting routine user feedback, aligning feedback with model improvements, and communicating the value and time-to-impact to users, identifying factors that go into user trust, helping users calibrate their trust, calibrating trust through the product experience, and managing influence on user decisions [15, 96, 111]. We also call on designers to supplement these efforts with awareness campaigns on data and privacy rights for vulnerable users. Beyond these implications, our work opens up policy questions such as: How do we communicate the potential risks of ‘instant’ money to users in dire circumstances? What educational and financial aid would they need? Who should assume responsibility? We believe these could be important future directions.
7 CONCLUSION

We presented a qualitative study of 29 financially-stressed users’ interactions with instant loan platforms in India. We reported on the perceptions of instant loan platforms among users, and their feelings of ‘ indebtedness’ towards those platforms. We elaborated on the ways in which these users fulfilled obligations, and enacted dependence on loan platforms. By situating our findings in the algorithmic accountability discourse, we presented an argument that algorithmic accountability is mediated through platform-user power relations, and can be hindered by on-the-ground socio-political conditions of users. We proposed situated accountability interventions such as enhancing agency of the forum, enabling collective transparency, reconfiguring designer-user relations, and committing to critical self-reflection to ensure wider accountability. We conclude with implications for FinTech applications in India and beyond.

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