Fair Logistic Regression: An Adversarial Perspective

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Abstract

Fair prediction methods have primarily been built around existing classification techniques using pre-processing methods, post-hoc adjustments, reduction-based constructions, or deep learning procedures. We investigate a new approach to fair data-driven decision making by designing predictors with fairness requirements integrated into their core formulations. We augment a game-theoretic construction of the logistic regression model with fairness constraints, producing a novel prediction model that robustly and fairly minimizes the logarithmic loss. We demonstrate the advantages of our approach on a range of benchmark datasets for fairness.

1 Introduction

Though maximizing accuracy has been the principal objective for classification tasks, competing priorities are also often of key concern in practice. Fairness properties guaranteeing different groups are treated equivalently by the classifier in various ways are a prime example. These may be desirable—or even legally required—when making admissions decisions for universities (Lowry & Macpherson, 1988, Chang, 2006, Kabakchieva, 2013), employment and promotion decisions for organizations (Lohr, 2013), medical decisions for hospitals and insurers (Shipp et al., 2002, O’Neil, 2016), loan decisions for the financial industry (Shaw & Gentry, 1988, Carter & Catlett, 1987, Bose & Mahapatra, 2001), and in many other applications.

The notion of fairness in decision making fall into two main categories: group fairness criteria generally partition the population based on a protected attribute into groups and mandate equal treatment of members across groups based on some defined statistical measures. The notion of individual fairness (Dwork et al., 2012) on the other hand, demands that similar individuals should be treated similarly irrespective of group membership.

In this paper we focus on group fairness measures, namely the three prevalent measures of demographic parity (Calders et al., 2009), equalized odds (Hardt et al., 2016), and equalized opportunity (Hardt et al., 2016). Techniques for constructing predictors that provide these fairness guarantees largely leverage existing classification methods as black boxes. Preprocessing methods such as reweighting and relabeling (Kamiran & Calders, 2012) transform the input data to remove dependence between the class and protected attribute according to a predefined fairness constraint. Other preprocessing methods (Calmon et al., 2017, Zemel et al., 2013) cast the transformation as an optimization problem to find a randomized mapping that limits the dependence of the transformed outcome on protected attribute while remaining statistically close to the original dataset. In contrast, post-hoc methods adjust the class labels provided from black box classifiers by mixing them with uninformed predictions to satisfy fairness requirements (Hardt et al., 2016). Though guaranteeing equalized odds and calibration has been shown by Kleinberg et al. (2016) and Chouldechova (2017) to be impossible in general, Pleiss et al. (2017) propose a calibrated postprocessing method that provides a relaxed notion of equalized odds. Zafar et al. (2017) augments any decision boundary classifier with fairness constraints, resulting in a non-convex optimization problem that can be solved using convex-concave programming. Reduction-based fairness methods combine cost-sensitive black box predictors to produce a fair predictor (Agarwal et al., 2018). Generative adversarial techniques have also been employed to construct intermediate feature representations that do not allow group status to be identified (Madras et al., 2018).

In contrast with these previous approaches, we seek to incorporate fairness into the initial construction of a new predictor so that it is designed specifically for the task of fair data-driven decision making. Working from first principles based on robust estimation (Topsøe, 1979, Grünwald & Dawid, 2004, Delage & Ye, 2010), we integrate fairness constraints into the initial formulation of our predictor. We accomplish this by posing the selection of a predictor as an adversarial game between the predictor subjected to fairness constraints on the training sample and an adversarial
approximator of the training data labels that must maintain some statistical properties of the training sample.

In the remainder of this paper, we develop our adversarial formulation as a robust log loss minimizer. For some fairness criteria (e.g., equalized opportunity and equalized odds), our approach produces predictive distributions that are conditioned on the actual label. We introduce a fixed point method for making predictions from these conditional distributions and establish the consistency properties of this method. We demonstrate the benefits of our approach compared to existing black-box classification methods on benchmark fair data-driven decision tasks.

2 Background

2.1 Measures of fairness for decision making

Several useful measures have been proposed to quantitatively assess fairness in decision making. Though our approach can be applied to a wider range of fairness constraints, we focus on three prominent ones in this paper: Demographic Parity (Calders et al., 2009), Equality of Opportunity (Hardt et al., 2016) and Equality of Odds (Hardt et al., 2016). We briefly review the variables involved in decision tasks and these three definitions of fairness based on those variables.

For simplicity, we consider a binary decision setting with examples drawn from a distribution: \((X, A, Y) \sim P\). Here \(y = 1\) is viewed as the “advantaged” class for positive decisions to be made. The general decision task is to construct a mapping, \(\hat{P}\), for a distribution over decision variable \(\hat{y} \in \{0, 1\}\) given the feature vector \(x \in \mathcal{X}\). Each example also possesses a protected attribute \(a \in \{0, 1\}\) that defines membership in one of two groups.

We consider three illustrative examples: admissions to medical school, approval of loans, and prescription of medical treatment. The relevant variables are defined for these tasks in Table 1. Different forms of fairness may be appropriate in each of these decision tasks.

Table 1: Variables for three decision-making tasks.

| Setting    | \(\hat{y}\)     | \(y\) | \(a\) |
|------------|-----------------|-------|-------|
| Admissions | Admitted        | Would succeed | Sex |
| Loans      | Loan approval   | Would re-pay | Age |
| Treatment  | Provided        | Would benefit | Race |

Fairness requires treating the different groups equivalently in various ways. Unfortunately, the naïve approach of excluding the protected attribute from the decision function, e.g., restricting to \(\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x)\), does not guarantee fairness because the protected attribute \(a\) may still be inferred from \(x\) (Dwork et al., 2012). For example, graduation from an women’s college could serve as an (approximate) surrogate for sex in medical school admissions decisions. Instead of imposing structural constraints on the predictor, various definitions of fairness require properties on its provided decisions to hold.

If student qualifications for medical school admissions are assumed to be the same across sexes, ensuring Demographic Parity (Definition 1) may be the most appropriate form of fairness.

**Definition 1.** A classifier satisfies **Demographic Parity** (D.P.) if the output variable \(\hat{Y}\) is statistically independent of the protected attribute \(A\): 

\[
P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = a) = P(\hat{Y} = 1),\quad \forall a \in A.
\]

If default rates for older (Age \(\geq 40\)) and younger (Age \(< 40\)) loan applicants differ, providing the same approval rate to each group (Demographic Parity) may not be desirable. However, providing the same approval rates to individuals who will repay in each group and the same approval rates to individuals who will not repay (Equalized Odds) may be a desirable fairness guarantee.

**Definition 2.** A classifier satisfies **Equalized Odds** (E.O.D.) if the output variable \(\hat{Y}\) is conditionally independent of the protected attribute \(A\) given the true label \(Y\):

\[
P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = a, Y = y) = P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = y),\quad \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}, a \in A.
\]

Finally, if there is little benefit from providing a positive decision to a non-advantaged individual, only imposing the above constraint on a particular label (the advantaged class) may be desirable. For example, guaranteeing the same proportion of people who would benefit from a treatment will receive the treatment in each group may be desirable without also requiring the same rates for people who would not benefit from the treatment.

**Definition 3.** A classifier satisfies **Equalized Opportunity** (E.Op.) if the output variable \(\hat{Y}\) and protected attribute \(A\) are conditionally independent given \(Y = 1\):

\[
P(\hat{Y} = 1|A = a, Y = 1) = P(\hat{Y} = 1|Y = 1),\quad \forall a \in A.
\]

The sets of decision functions \(\hat{P}\) satisfying these fairness constraints are convex and can be defined using linear constraints (Agarwal et al., 2018). The general form for these constraints is:

\[
\Gamma : \left\{ \frac{1}{P_{y_1}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) \right\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{P_{y_0}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(A, Y)) \right\}
\]

\[
\mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) = \mathbb{I} \left( \frac{1}{P_{y_1}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) \right).
\]
where \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_0 \) denote some combination of group membership and ground-truth class for each example, while \( p_{\gamma_1} \) and \( p_{\gamma_0} \) denote the empirical frequencies of \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_0 \): \\
\[ p_{\gamma_1} = \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}}(\gamma_1(A, Y)) \]. We can model the fairness constraints (Definitions 1, 2, and 3) as:
\[ \Gamma_{\text{eq}} \iff \gamma_j(A, Y) = \mathbb{I}(A = j) \]
\[ \Gamma_{\text{e.opp}} \iff \gamma_j(A, Y) = \mathbb{I}(A = j \land Y = 1) \]
\[ \Gamma_{\text{e.odd}} \iff \gamma_j(A, Y) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{I}(A = j \land Y = 1) & \text{if } j \text{ odd} \\ \mathbb{I}(A = j \land Y = 0) & \text{if } j \text{ even} \end{cases} \].

### 2.2 Robust log-loss minimization, maximum entropy, and logistic regression

The logarithmic loss, 
\[-\sum_{x,y} P(x, y) \log \hat{P}(y|x),\]

is an information-theoretic measure of the expected amount of “surprise” (in bits if using \( \log_2 \)) that the predictor, \( \hat{P}(y|x) \), experiences when encountering labels \( y \) distributed according to \( P(x, y) \). Robust minimization of the logarithmic loss serves a fundamental role in constructing probability distributions (e.g., Gaussian, Laplacian, Beta, Gamma, and Bernoulli) and predictors (Lisman & Zuylen, 1972) and predictors (Manning & Klein, 2003). For conditional probabilities, it is equivalent to maximizing the conditional entropy (Jaynes, 1957):

\[
\min_{\hat{P}(y|x) \in \Delta} \max_{P(y|x) \in \Xi} \sum_{x,y} P(x, y) \log \hat{P}(y|x) - \sum_{x,y} P(x, y) \log \hat{P}(y|x) = \max_{\hat{P}(y|x) \in \Xi} H(Y|X),
\]

after simplifications based on the fact that the saddlepoint solution is \( \hat{P} = \hat{P} \). When the adversarial distribution is constrained to match the statistics of training data,

\[
\Xi : \{ \hat{P} : \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)}[\phi(X, \hat{Y})] = \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)}[\phi(X, Y)] \},
\]

the robust log loss minimizer/maximum entropy predictor (Eq. (8)) is the logistic regression model, \( P(y|x) \propto \exp(\theta^T \phi(x,y)) \), with \( \theta \) estimated by maximizing data likelihood (Manning & Klein, 2003). While technically this distribution needs to only be defined at input values in which training data exists (i.e., \( \hat{P}(x) > 0 \)), an inductive assumption that generalizes the form of the distribution to other inputs is employed.

The flexibility of this formulation has been leveraged to provide robust prediction methods for addressing covariate shift (i.e., differing training and testing input distributions) by defining expected log loss and feature-matching constraints under two different covariate distributions (Lu & Ziebart, 2014), and for constructing consistent surrogate losses for general multiclass classification by defining robust predictors under the multiclass loss metrics (Asif et al., 2015; Fathy et al., 2016, 2017, 2018).

Our approach similarly extends this fundamental formulation by imposing fairness constraints on \( \hat{P} \). Since \( \Gamma \not\subseteq \Xi \), the saddlepoint solution does not reflect equality (\( \hat{P} \neq \hat{P} \)) and therefore is much more complex.

### 3 Formulation & Algorithms

Given fairness requirements for a predictor (Eq. (4)) and partial knowledge of the population distribution provided by a training sample (Eq. (9)), how should a fair predictor be constructed? Like all inductive reasoning, good performance on a known training sample does not ensure good performance on the unknown population distribution. We take an adversarial perspective in this paper by seeking the best solution for the worst-case population distribution under these constraints.

#### 3.1 Robust and fair log loss minimization

We begin by formulating selection of the robust fair predictor as a minimax game between a fair predictor and an adversarial approximator of the population distribution. We assume the availability of a set of training samples, \( \{(x_i, a_i, y_i)\}_{i=1:n} \), which we equivalently denote by probability distribution \( P(x, a, y) \).

**Definition 4. The Fair Robust Log-Loss Predictor, \( \hat{P} \), minimizes the worst-case log loss—as chosen by adversary \( \hat{P} \) constrained to reflect training statistics—while providing empirical fairness guarantees:**

\[
\min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \max_{\hat{P} \in \Delta \cap \Xi} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)}[-\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y}|X, A, Y)],
\]

where \( \Gamma \) (Eq. (4)) and \( \Xi \) (Eq. (9)) are sets enforcing fairness and training data-matching constraints, respectively, and \( \Delta \) is the set of conditional probability simplex constraints (i.e., \( P(y|x, a) \geq 0, \forall x, y, a; \sum_y P(y|x, a) = 1, \forall x, a \)).

Though conditioning the decision variable \( \hat{Y} \) on the true label \( Y \) would appear to introduce a trivial solution (i.e., \( \hat{Y} = Y \)), instead \( Y \) only influences \( \hat{Y} \) directly based on fairness properties due to the adversarial construction the predictor. Note that if fairness constraints are removed, then the influence of \( Y \) on \( \hat{Y} \) disappears (i.e., \( P(\hat{Y}|X, A, Y = 0) = P(\hat{Y}|X, A, Y = 1) \)) and this formulation ultimately reduces to the familiar logistic regression model (Manning & Klein, 2003) described in 2.2.

This saddlepoint problem has a key beneficial characteristic for optimization: it is convex-concave in \( \hat{P} \) and \( \hat{P} \) with
additional convex constraints (Γ and Ξ) on each distribution.

### 3.2 Parametric Distribution Form

By leveraging strong minimax duality (Von Neumann & Morgenstern [1945], Sion [1958]), we derive the parametric form of our predictor as stated in Theorem 1.

Theorem 1. The Fair Robust Log-Loss Predictor (Definition 2) can be equivalently solved in its dual formulation:

\[
\min_{\theta} \max_{\lambda} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x,a,y) \in D} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{Y}|x,a,y) \right] + \theta^\top \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(x, \hat{Y}) \right] - \phi(x, y) \right) \right\}
\]

subject to:

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta &\in \Gamma \\
\lambda &\geq 0 \\
\lambda &\geq 0 \quad \text{if } \gamma_1(a,y) = 1 \\
\lambda &\geq 0 \quad \text{if } \gamma_0(a,y) = 1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \theta \) and \( \lambda \) are Lagrange multipliers for the moment matching and fairness constraints, respectively, and \( n \) is the number of samples in the dataset. The parametric distribution of \( \hat{P} \) is defined when \( \lambda > 0 \), as:

\[
\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\min & \frac{\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))}{Z(x)} & \text{if } \gamma_1(a,y) \\
\max & \frac{\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))}{Z(x)} & \text{if } \gamma_0(a,y) \\
\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1)) & Z(x) & \text{otherwise;}
\end{array} \right.
\]

when \( \lambda < 0 \), as:

\[
\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\max & \frac{\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))}{Z(x)} & \text{if } \gamma_1(a,y) \\
\min & \frac{\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))}{Z(x)} & \text{if } \gamma_0(a,y) \\
\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1)) & Z(x) & \text{otherwise;}
\end{array} \right.
\]

and when \( \lambda = 0 \), as:

\[
\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \frac{\exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))}{Z(x)}.
\]

Note that the predictor’s parametric distribution is similar to the parametric distribution of standard binary logistic regression, with the option to truncate the probability based on the value of \( \lambda \). The truncation of \( \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) \) is from above when \( 0 < \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} < 1 \) and \( \gamma_1(a,y) = 1 \), and from below when \( -1 < \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_0}} < 0 \) and \( \gamma_1(a,y) = 1 \). The adversary’s parametric distribution can be computed from the predictor’s distribution using the quadratic function in Eq. (15), for example in the case where \( \gamma_1(a,y) = 1 \):

\[
\hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \rho(1 + \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}}(1 - \rho)) = (1 + \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}})\rho - \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}}\rho^2,
\]

where \( \rho = \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) \).

Figure 1 describes the relation between \( \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) \) and \( \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) \) in the case of \( \gamma_1(a,y) = 1 \). When \( \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} = 0 \), the adversary’s probability is equal to the predictor’s probability as shown in the plot as a straight line. Positive values of \( \lambda \) shift the line upward and change it into a curve (e.g., \( \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} = 1 \) as shown in the plot. As the value of \( \lambda \) grows larger (e.g., \( \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} = 2 \)), some of the valid predictor probabilities (0 < \( \hat{P} < 1 \)) map to invalid adversary probabilities (i.e., \( \hat{P} \geq 1 \)) into the quadratic function. This occurs for the case of \( \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} = 2 \) when \( \hat{P}_{\theta,\lambda}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) > 0.5 \). In this case, the predictor’s probability is truncated according to Eq. (12) such that it cannot exceed \( \frac{\lambda}{p_{\gamma_1}} = 0.5 \). Similarly, when \( \lambda \) is negative, the curve is shifted downward and the predictor’s probability is truncated when the quadratic function mapping results in a negative value of \( \hat{P} \). For the case where \( \gamma_0(a,y) = 1 \), the reverse shifting is observed, i.e., shifting downward when \( \lambda \) is positive and shifting upward when \( \lambda \) is negative.

### 3.3 Enforcing fairness constraints

The inner maximization in Eq. (11) aims to find the optimal \( \lambda \) that enforces the fairness constraint. From the perspective of the parametric distribution of \( \hat{P} \), this is equivalent with finding the threshold points (e.g., \( p_{\gamma_1} \) and \( 1 - p_{\gamma_0} \)) in the min and max function of the Eq. (12) such that the expectation of the truncated exponential probabilities of \( \hat{P} \) in group \( \gamma_1 \) match the one in group \( \gamma_0 \). Given the value of \( \theta \), we find the optimum \( \lambda^* \) directly by finding the threshold. We first compute the exponential probabilities \( P_e(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \exp(\theta^\top \phi(x,1))/Z(x) \) for each examples in \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_0 \). Let \( E_1 \) and \( E_0 \) be the sets that contains \( P_e \) for group \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_0 \) respectively, and let \( e_1 \) and \( e_0 \) be the average of \( E_1 \) and \( E_0 \) respectively.

Finding \( \lambda^* \) given the sets \( E_1 \) and \( E_0 \) requires sorting the probabilities for each set, and then iteratively finding the threshold points for both sets (\( t_1 \) and \( t_0 \) respectively) si-
multaneously as described in Algorithm 1.

Without loss of generality, the algorithm assumes that $\bar{e}_1 > e_0$. The algorithm proceeds by first setting the threshold for $E_1$ as 1, and the threshold for $E_0$ as 0, i.e., no truncation. It then moves the threshold towards the next probability in the list while maintaining the probability gain (i.e., the difference between the exponential probability and the truncated probability) if it moves the threshold. The algorithm stops when the probability gain is equal to the difference between $\bar{e}_1$ and $e_0$.

The runtime of Algorithm 1 is dominated by sorting, i.e., $O(n \log n)$ time. However, if we perform gradient based optimization on $\theta$, the value of the current $\theta$ in each iteration does not change much, and neither do the exponential probabilities in each group. By maintaining the sorted list in each iteration as the basis index, the next iteration will have the probabilities in a nearly sorted order. Therefore, we can improve the sorting cost requirement by running sorting algorithms that work best on a nearly sorted list (e.g., insertion sort, Timsort, or $P^3$-sort) with run times approaching $O(n)$ as the list is closer to a fully sorted list.

Algorithm 1: Find $\lambda^*$ given $E_1$ and $E_0$

1: **Input:** $(E_1, E_0)$, s.t. $\bar{e}_1 > e_0$
2: Sort $E_1$ in decreasing order
3: Sort $E_0$ in increasing order
4: Calculate the difference $\bar{d} = \bar{e}_1 - e_0$
5: $t_1 \leftarrow 1$, $t_0 \leftarrow 0$ \{thresholds for $E_1$ and $E_0$ resp.\}
6: Set gain to be 0.
7: **while** the gain is less than $\bar{d}$ **do**
8: Calculate two candidates for the next move:
   (1) move $t_1$ to the next $P_e$ in $E_1$ list
   (2) move $t_0$ to the next $P_e$ in $E_0$ list
9: Calculate the gain for each move and the effect of the move for the other group.
10: Choose the move that has the minimum gain
11: **end while**
12: Calculate the threshold that produces gain equal to $\bar{d}$, which is located between the last move in the loop and the threshold before the move
13: Calculate $\lambda^*$ based on the threshold
14: **Return:** $\lambda^*$

that the learner has not seen with the hope that the knowledge the learner obtains from the training dataset can be transferred to this test dataset.

In the previous subsection, we derived an algorithm to directly compute the best $\lambda$ given arbitrary value of $\theta$. Let $\lambda_\theta^*$ be this optimal solution of the inner maximization in Eq. (11). Given $\lambda_\theta^*$, the optimization of Eq. (11) reduces into a simpler optimization solely over $\theta$, as described in Theorem 2.

Theorem 2. Given the optimum value of $\lambda_\theta^*$ for $\theta$, the dual formulation in Eq. (11) reduces to the minimization over:

$$L(D) = \min_\theta \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in D} \ell_{\theta, \lambda_\theta^*}(x, a, y),$$

where, for the case that $\lambda_\theta^* > 0$, $\ell$ is defined as:

$$\ell_{\theta, \lambda_\theta^*}(x, a, y) = -\theta^T \phi(x, y) + \begin{cases} -\log \left( \frac{e_{1a}}{\lambda_\theta^*} \right) + \theta^T \phi(x, 1) & \text{if } \gamma_1(a, y) \wedge T(x, \theta) \\ -\log \left( \frac{e_{0a}}{\lambda_\theta^*} \right) + \theta^T \phi(x, 0) & \text{if } \gamma_0(a, y) \wedge T(x, \theta) \\ \log(Z_\theta(x)) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

for the case that $\lambda_\theta^* < 0$, $\ell$ is defined as:

$$\ell_{\theta, \lambda_\theta^*}(x, a, y) = -\theta^T \phi(x, y) + \begin{cases} -\log \left( \frac{e_{1a}}{\lambda_\theta^*} \right) + \theta^T \phi(x, 1) & \text{if } \gamma_1(a, y) \wedge T(x, \theta) \\ -\log \left( \frac{e_{0a}}{\lambda_\theta^*} \right) + \theta^T \phi(x, 0) & \text{if } \gamma_0(a, y) \wedge T(x, \theta) \\ \log(Z_\theta(x)) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and for the case that $\lambda_\theta^* = 0$, $\ell$ is defined as:

$$\ell_{\theta, \lambda_\theta^*}(x, a, y) = \log(Z_\theta(x)) - \theta^T \phi(x, y).$$

3.4 Learning

Our learning process seeks the parameters $\theta$, $\lambda$ for our distributions ($P_{\theta, \lambda}$ and $P_{\theta, \lambda}$) that match the statistics of the adversary’s distribution with training data ($\theta$) and seek fairness ($\lambda$), as illustrated in Eq. (11). These parametric distributions are then used to make predictions for the dataset.

Figure 1: Plot of the relation between predictor and adversary’s parametric distributions.
Here, $T(x, \theta)$ returns 1 if the exponential probability is truncated (for example when $\frac{\exp(\theta^T \phi(x, 1))}{\sum_{x'} \exp(\theta^T \phi(x', 1))} > P_{\gamma, \lambda}(x, y)$ in the case where $\gamma_1(a, y) = 1$ and $\lambda_0^* > 0$), or 0 otherwise.

To solve for $\theta$, we use a gradient-based optimization technique. From the objective in Eq. (17), we derive the gradient of the objective with respect to $\theta$ in Theorem 3.

**Theorem 3.** The (sub)-gradient of the learning objective (Eq. (17)) with respect to $\theta$ contains:

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in D} g_{\theta, \lambda_0^*}(x, a, y) \in \partial \theta L, \text{ where:} \tag{21}
\]

(1) $g_{\theta, \lambda_0^*}(x, a, y) = \phi(x, 1) - \phi(x, y)$ if $(\gamma_1(a, y) \land T(x, \theta) \land \|\lambda_0^* > 0\|)$

$\lor (\gamma_0(a, y) \land T(x, \theta) \land \|\lambda_0^* < 0\|)$

(2) $g_{\theta, \lambda_0^*}(x, a, y) = \phi(x, 0) - \phi(x, y)$ if $(\gamma_0(a, y) \land T(x, \theta) \land \|\lambda_0^* > 0\|)$

$\lor (\gamma_1(a, y) \land T(x, \theta) \land \|\lambda_0^* < 0\|)$

(3) $g_{\theta, \lambda_0^*}(x, a, y) = \sum_{y' \in Y} \frac{\exp(\theta^T \phi(x, y'))}{\sum_{x'} \exp(\theta^T \phi(x', y'))} \phi(x, y') - \phi(x, y) \quad \text{otherwise.}$

To improve the generalizability of our parametric model, we employ a standard L2 regularization technique, which is also used in many machine learning algorithms including the standard logistic regression model, i.e., we optimize for:

\[
\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in D} L_{\theta, \lambda_0^*}(x, a, y) + \frac{C}{2} \|\theta\|_2^2, \tag{22}
\]

where $C$ is the regularization constant. We employ a standard batch gradient descent optimization algorithm (e.g., L-BFGS) to obtain the optimal $\theta^*$ of Eq. (22). We also compute the corresponding optimal inner optimization, $\lambda_0^*$.

We then construct the optimal predictor and adversary’s parametric distributions based on the value of $\theta^*$ and $\lambda_0^*$.

### 3.5 Inference

In the inference step, we apply the optimum predictor parametric distribution $P_{\theta^*, \lambda_0^*}$ we learn from the training step to the new examples in the testing set. Given the value of $\theta^*$ and $\lambda_0^*$, we calculate the predictor’s distribution for our new data point using Eq. (12), (13), or (14) depending on the value $\lambda_0^*$. Note that the predictor’s parametric distribution also depends on the group membership of the example. For fairness constraints that solely based on the protected attribute $A$, e.g., D.P., these parametric formulation can be directly applied. However, some of the fairness constraints also depend on the true label, e.g., E.O.PP. and E.O.DD. In these cases, we construct a predicate procedure that approximate the true label with the adversary’s parametric distribution.

For the fairness constraints that depend on the true label, our algorithm output the predictor and adversary’s parametric distributions condition on the value of true label, i.e., $P(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 1)$, $P(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 0)$, $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 1)$, and $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 0)$. Our goal is to produce conditional probability of $\hat{y}$ that does not depends on the true label, i.e., $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a)$. We construct the following procedure to estimate this probability.

Based on the marginal probability rule, $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a)$ can be expressed as follows:

\[
\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a) = \hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 1) P(y = 1|x, a) \tag{23}
\]

\[
+ \hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 0) P(y = 0|x, a).
\]

However, since we do not have access to $P(y|x, a)$, we cannot directly apply the formulation. Instead, we approximate $P(y|x, a)$ with the adversary’s distribution $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a)$. Using the similar marginal probability rule, we express the estimate as follows:

\[
\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a) \approx \hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 1) \hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1|x, a) \tag{24}
\]

\[
+ \hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y = 0) \hat{P}(\hat{y} = 0|x, a).
\]

By rearranging the terms in the formulation above, we calculate the approximation as:

\[
\hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1|x, a) = \frac{\hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1|x, a, y = 0)}{\hat{P}(\hat{y} = 0|x, a, y = 1) + \hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1|x, a, y = 0)}, \tag{25}
\]

which can be directly computed from the adversary’s parametric distribution produced by our model using Eq. (15). Finally, to get the approximation over the predictor’s conditional probability ($P(\hat{y}|x, a)$), we replace $P(y|x, a)$ in Eq. (23) with $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a)$ calculated from Eq. (25).

### 3.6 Asymptotic convergence property

The behavior of an algorithm in the limit should be considered when designing a learning algorithm. Indeed, the asymptotic convergence property studies the learning setting when a learning algorithm is provided with access to the true data generating distribution $P(x, a, y)$ and a fully expressive feature representation. We show in Theorem 4 that in the limit, our method finds a predictor distribution that has a desirable characteristic in terms of the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence from the true distribution.

**Theorem 4.** Given access to the true population distribution $P(x, a, y)$ and a fully expressive feature representation, our formulation (Definition) finds the predictor
with the closest distance to \( P(x, a, y) \) in terms of the KL-divergence, from the set of probability distributions that satisfy the fairness constraints.

We next show in Theorem 5 that for the case where the fairness constraint depends on the true label (e.g., E.Opp. and E.Odd.), our prediction procedure in §3.5 outputs a predictor distribution with the same desired characteristic, marginalized over the true label.

**Theorem 5.** For fairness constraints that depend on the true label, our inference procedure in §3.5 produces the marginal predicting distribution of the fair predictor distribution with the closest KL-divergence distance to \( P(x, a, y) \) in the limit.

### 4 Experiments

#### 4.1 Datasets

We evaluate our proposed algorithm on three benchmark datasets on fairness:

- The UCI Adult (Dheeru & Karra Taniskidou, 2017) dataset includes 45,222 samples with an income greater than $50k considered to be a favorable binary outcome. We choose gender as the protected attribute. 11 other features (age, race, workclass, education-num, marital-status, occupation, relationship, capital-gain, capital-loss, hours-per-week, native-country) are available for each example to use for basing decisions.

- The ProPublica’s COMPAS recidivism dataset (Larson et al., 2016) contains 6,167 samples, and the task is to predict the recidivism of an individual based on criminal history, with the binary protected attribute being race (white and non-white). An additional nine features (sex, age, age_cat, juv_fel_count, juv_misd_count, juv_other_count, priors_count, c_charge_degree, c_charge_desc) are available for basing decisions.

- The dataset from the Law School Admissions Councils National Longitudinal Bar Passage Study (Wightman, 1998) has 20,649 examples. Here the favorable outcome for the individual is passing the bar exam, and race (restricted to white and black only) is the protected attribute. 13 other features available for basing decisions.

#### 4.2 Comparison methods

We compare our method against various learning algorithms designed to provide fair predictions:

- The **unconstrained logistic regression** model (LR_unconstrained) is a standard logistic regression model that ignores all fairness requirements.

- The **cost sensitive reduction approach** (reduction) by Agarwal et al. (2018) reduces fair classification to learning a randomized hypothesis over a sequence of cost-sensitive classifiers. We use the sample-weighted implementation of Logistic Regression in scikit-learn (Pedregosa et al., 2011) as the base classifier, to compare the effect of reduction approach. We evaluate the performance of the model by varying the constraint bounds across the set \( \epsilon \in \{.001, .01, 1\} \).

- For demographic parity, we compare with the **reweighting method** (reweight) of Kamiran & Calders (2012), which learns weights for each combination of class label and protected attribute and then uses these weights to resample from the original training data which yields a new dataset with no statistical dependence between class label and protected attribute. The new balanced dataset is then used for training a classifier. We use the implementation of this approach in IBM toolkit (Bellamy et al., 2018).

- For equalized odds, we also compare with the **post-processing method** (postprocessing) of Hardt et al. (2016) which transforms the classifier’s output by solving a linear program that find a probabilistic prediction which minimizes the misclassification error and satisfies the equalized odds constraint from the set of probability formed by the convex hull of the original classifier’s probabilities and the extreme point of probability values (i.e, zero and one).

#### 4.3 Evaluation measures and setup

Data-driven fair decision methods seek to minimize both prediction error rates and measures of unfairness. We consider the misclassification rate (i.e., the 0-1 loss, \( \mathbb{E}[\hat{Y} \neq Y] \)) on a withheld test sample to measure prediction error. To quantify the unfairness of each method, we measure the degree of fairness violation for demographic parity (D.P.) as:

\[
\mathbb{E}\left[ \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1) \mid A = 1 \right] - \mathbb{E}\left[ \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1) \mid A = 0 \right],
\]

and the sum of fairness violations for each class to measure the total violation for equalized odds (E.Odd.):

\[
\sum_{y \in \{0, 1\}} \left( \mathbb{E}\left[ \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1) \mid A = 1, Y = y \right] - \mathbb{E}\left[ \mathbb{I}(\hat{Y} = 1) \mid A = 0, Y = y \right] \right),
\]

to obtain a level comparison across different methods.
We perform all of our experiments using 20 random splits of each dataset into a training set (70% of examples) and a testing set (30%). We record the averages over these twenty random splits and the standard deviation. We cross validate our model on a separate validation set using the best logloss to select an L2 penalty from \{(0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.05, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)\}.

4.4 Experimental Results

Figure 2 provides the evaluation results (test error and fairness violation) of each method for demographic parity and equalized odds on test data from each of the three datasets (for training performance, see Appendix B). Fairness can be vacuously achieved by an agnostic predictor that always outputs 1 or always outputs 0. Thus, the appropriate question to ask when considering these results is: “how much additional test error is incurred compared to the baseline of the unfair predictor (LR\_unconstrained) for how much of an increase in fairness?”

For demographic parity on the Adult and COMPAS datasets, our FairLR approach outperforms all baseline methods seeking fairness on average for both test error rate and for fairness violations. Additionally, the increase in test error over the unfair unconstrained logistic regression model is small. For demographic parity on the Law dataset, the relationship between methods is not as clear, but our FairLR approach still resides in the Pareto optimal set, i.e., there are no other methods that are better than our result on both criteria.

For equalized odds, FairLR provides the lowest ratios for increasing fairness over increasing error rate for the Adult and COMPAS datasets, and competitive performance on the Law dataset. The post-processing method provides comparable or better fairness at the cost of significantly higher error rates.

5 Conclusions & Future Work

We have developed a novel approach for providing fair data-driven decision making in this work by deriving a modified logistic regression model from first principles. We used a robust estimation formulation (Topsøe 1979; Grünwald & Dawid 2004; Delage & Ye 2010) that imposes fairness requirements on the predictor and views uncertainty about the population distribution pessimistically while maintaining a semblance of the training data characteristics through feature-matching constraints.

Though we focus on classification tasks, our formulation is quite general due to the flexibility of its adversarial construction. In future work, we plan to extend this approach to fairness to multivariate prediction tasks, including learning to fairly rank (Singh & Joachims 2018) and learning to provide fair assignments. Motivated by recent work on dynamic fairness as a property of processes (Hashimoto et al. 2018), we also plan to investigate the application of fairness to covariate shift settings (Liu et al. 2015).
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Appendix A. Proofs

A.1 Proof of Theorem[1]

Proof of Theorem[1] Using the minimax duality we perform the following transformations:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\min_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Xi} \mathbb{E}_{P(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] \\
&\overset{(a)}{=} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Xi} \min_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{P(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] \\
&\overset{(b)}{=} \min_{\theta} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{P(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] + \theta^{\top} \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, \hat{Y}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, Y) \right] \right) \\
&\overset{(c)}{=} \min_{\theta} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] + \theta^{\top} \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, \hat{Y}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, Y) \right] \right) \\
&\overset{(d)}{=} \min_{\theta} \min_{\lambda} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] + \theta^{\top} \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, \hat{Y}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, Y) \right] \right) \\
&\quad + \lambda \left( \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_1}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) \right] - \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_0}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(A, Y)) \right] \right) \\
&\overset{(e)}{=} \min_{\theta} \min_{\lambda} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] + \theta^{\top} \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, \hat{Y}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, Y) \right] \right) \\
&\quad + \lambda \left( \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_1}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) \right] - \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_0}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(A, Y)) \right] \right) \\
&\overset{(f)}{=} \min_{\theta} \min_{\lambda} \max_{P \in \Delta \cap \Gamma} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\hat{Y} | X, A, Y) \right] + \theta^{\top} \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \phi(X, \hat{Y}) \right] - \phi(X, Y) \right) \\
&\quad + \lambda \left( \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_1}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A, Y)) \right] - \frac{1}{P_{\gamma_0}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ I(\hat{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(A, Y)) \right] \right)
\end{align*}
\]

The transformation steps above are described as follows:

(a) We flip the min and max order using minimax duality [Von Neumann & Morgenstern 1945]. The domains of \( \hat{P} \) and \( \hat{P} \) are both compact convex sets and the objective function is convex over \( \hat{P} \) and concave over \( \hat{P} \), therefore, strong duality holds.

(b) We introduce the Lagrange dual variable \( \theta \) to directly incorporate the moment matching constraints over \( \hat{P} \) into the objective function.

(c) The domain of \( \hat{P} \) is a compact convex subset of \( \mathbb{R}^n \), while the domain of \( \theta \) is \( \mathbb{R}^m \). The objective is concave on \( \hat{P} \) for all \( \theta \), while it is convex on \( \theta \) for all \( \hat{P} \). Based on Sion’s minimax theorem [Sion 1958], strong duality holds, and thus we can flip the optimization order of \( \hat{P} \) and \( \theta \).

(d) We flip the inner min and max over \( \hat{P} \) and \( \hat{P} \) using the minimax duality, as in (a).

(e) We introduce the Lagrange dual variable \( \lambda \) to directly incorporate the fairness constraints over \( \hat{P} \) into the objective function.

(f) Similar to (c), we use Sion’s minimax theorem to flip the optimization order of \( \lambda \) and \( \hat{P} \).

(g) We group the expectation with respect to the empirical training data.
We now focus on the inner minimax formulation over $\hat{P}$ and $\hat{P}$, given the value of $\theta$ and $\lambda$, i.e.:}

\[
\min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta} \max_{\tilde{P} \in \Delta} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\tilde{Y}|X,A,Y) \right] + \theta^T \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [\phi(X, \tilde{Y})] - \phi(X,Y) \right) \\
+ \lambda \left( \frac{1}{p_{1y}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [I(\tilde{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(A,Y))] - \frac{1}{p_{0y}} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [I(\tilde{Y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(A,Y))] \right) 
\]

We aim to find the analytical solution for $\hat{P}$ and $\tilde{P}$ in the equation above. First, we write the Lagrangian by incorporating the probability simplex constraints into the objective, i.e.:}

\[
\min_{\hat{P}} \max_{\tilde{P}} \max_{\alpha, \beta \geq 0} \min_{\alpha, \beta \geq 0} \sum_{x,a \in D} \sum_{y \in Y} \beta(x,a,y) \tilde{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y) \\
+ \theta^T \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [\phi(X, \tilde{Y})] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [\phi(X,Y)] \right) \\
+ \sum_{(x,a,y) \in D} \alpha(x,a) \left[ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [1|x,a,y] - 1 \right] \\
+ \sum_{(x,a,y) \in D} \alpha(x,a) \left[ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [1|x,a,y] - 1 \right]
\]

where: $F_\lambda(a,y,\hat{y}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda}{p_{11y}} & \text{if } \hat{y} = 1 \land \gamma_1(a,y) \\ \frac{-\lambda}{p_{00y}} & \text{if } \hat{y} = 1 \land \gamma_0(a,y) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

We now take the derivative of the Lagrangian with respect to $\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)$:

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial \hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} = \frac{-\hat{P}(x,a,y) \tilde{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)}{\tilde{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)} + \hat{P}(x,a,y) F_\lambda(a,y,\hat{y}) + \hat{\alpha}(x,a). 
\]

By setting Eq. (39) to zero, we rewrite $\hat{P}$ in terms of $\tilde{P}$:

\[
\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y) = \frac{\hat{P}(x,a,y) \tilde{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)}{\mathbb{P}(x,a,y) F_\lambda(a,y,\hat{y}) + \hat{\alpha}(x,a)} = \frac{\tilde{P}(\hat{y}|x,a,y)}{F_\lambda(a,y,\hat{y}) + \frac{\hat{\alpha}(x,a)}{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)}}. 
\]

Using Eq. (39) we rewrite Eq. (37) as:

\[
L(\tilde{P}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\alpha}, \beta) = \min_{\alpha, \beta \geq 0} \max_{\alpha} \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ -\log \hat{P}(\tilde{Y}|X,A,Y) \right] \\
+ \theta^T \left( \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [\phi(X, \tilde{Y})] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [\phi(X,Y)] \right) \\
+ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ F_\lambda(A,Y,\tilde{Y}) + \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \frac{\hat{\alpha}(x,a)}{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \right] \right] \\
- \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} [1|x,a,y] \right] \\
+ \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \frac{\hat{\alpha}(x,a)}{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \frac{\hat{\alpha}(x,a)}{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} \left[ \frac{\beta(x,a,y,\hat{y})}{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \right]. 
\]
Replacing \( \tilde{P} \) in Lagrangian we get:

\[
L(\tilde{P}, \tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) = \min_{\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\gamma} \geq 0} \max_{\tilde{P}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \left[ -\log \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|X, A, Y) + \log \left( F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right) \right] \\
+ \theta^T (\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \left[ \phi(x, \tilde{y}) - \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} [\phi(X, Y)] \right] + 1 - \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \tilde{\alpha}(x, a) \right] \right) \\
+ \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \left[ \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \left[ \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}(x,a,y)} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \left[ \frac{\beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right].
\]

We now calculate the derivative with respect to \( \tilde{y} \).

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)} = \tilde{P}(x,a,y) \left( -\log(\tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)) + \theta \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \log \left( F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} + \frac{\beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right)
\]

Setting Eq. (46) to 0 yields:

\[
\log \left( \frac{\tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)}{F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}} \right) = \theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} + \frac{\beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}
\]

We analytically solve the normalization constraint for \( \tilde{P} \), i.e., \( \sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) = 1 \)

\[
\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} e^{\theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} + \frac{\beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}} = 1
\]

\[
\frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} = -\log \left( \sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} e^{\theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}} \right),
\]

which yields following parametric form of the predictor distribution:

\[
\tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) = \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})/\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}}{Z_\theta(x,a,y)} = \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})/\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}}{\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} e^{\theta^T \phi(x, \tilde{y}) + \beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})/\tilde{P}(x, a, y)}}.
\]

Notice the similarity to standard logistic regression. Where in contrast, here the probability for each class is adjusted with terms \( \beta(x, a, y, \tilde{y})/\tilde{P}(x, a, y) \) to satisfy the fairness constraints.

From Eq. (40) we get the relation of \( \tilde{P} \) and \( \hat{P} \). Solving the normalization constraint for \( \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \) yields:

\[
\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) = 1
\]

\[
\sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) \left( F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}) + \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} \right) = 1
\]

\[
\frac{\tilde{\alpha}(x, a)}{\tilde{P}(x, a, y)} = 1 - \sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y})
\]

Thus, we can rewrite \( \tilde{P} \) as:

\[
\tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) = \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y)(F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}) + 1 - \sum_{\tilde{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \tilde{P}(\tilde{y}|x,a,y) F_\lambda(a, y, \tilde{y}))
\]
Therefore, if \( \lambda \geq 0 \), we have following parametric form for the predictor distribution:

\[
\tilde{P}(\hat{y} = 1|x,a,y) = \begin{cases} 
\min \left\{ \frac{p_{11}}{\lambda}, \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x,\hat{y})}Z_0(x)}{Z_0(x)} \right\} & \text{if } \gamma_1(a,y) \\
\max \left\{ 1 - \frac{p_{00}}{\lambda}, \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x,\hat{y})}Z_0(x)}{Z_0(x)} \right\} & \text{if } \gamma_0(a,y)
\end{cases}
\]
and if \( \lambda < 0 \):

\[
\hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1| x, a, y) = \begin{cases} 
\max \left\{ 1 + \frac{p_{y1}}{\lambda}, \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} \right\} & \text{if } \gamma_1(a, y) \\
\min \left\{ -\frac{p_{y0}}{\lambda}, \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} \right\} & \text{if } \gamma_0(a, y) \cdot \end{cases} 
\]

(64)

Note that if \( \lambda = 0 \), all of the cases collapse to a single case \( \hat{P}(\hat{y} = 1| x, a, y) = \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} \).

\[ \square \]

A.2 Proof of Theorem 2

Proof of Theorem 2 Given the optimum \( \lambda^*_\theta \) for each \( \theta \), Eq. (11) reduces to:

\[
\mathcal{L} = \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ E_{\hat{P}, \lambda^*_\theta}(\hat{y}|x, a, y) \left[ -\log \hat{P}_{\theta, \lambda^*_\theta}(\hat{y}|x, a, y) \right] + \theta^T \left( E_{\hat{P}, \lambda^*_\theta}(\hat{y}|x, a, y) [\phi(x, \hat{y})] - \phi(x, y) \right) \right\}
\]

(65)

\[
= \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{\hat{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} -\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y) \left[ \log(\hat{P}(\hat{y}|x, a, y)) - \theta^T \phi(x, \hat{y}) \right] - \theta^T \phi(x, y)
\]

(66)

Plugging the parametric distribution forms of \( \hat{P} \) and \( \bar{P} \), for \( \lambda^*_\theta > 0 \), we get:

\[
\mathcal{L} = \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ -\log \left( \frac{p_{y1}}{\lambda} \right) + \theta^T \left( \phi(x, 1) - \phi(x, y) \right) \right\} \text{ if } \gamma_1(a, y) \text{, and } \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} > \frac{p_{y1}}{\lambda^*_\theta}
\]

(67)

and for \( \lambda^*_\theta < 0 \), we get:

\[
\mathcal{L} = \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ -\log \left( -\frac{p_{y0}}{\lambda} \right) + \theta^T \left( \phi(x, 0) - \phi(x, y) \right) \right\} \text{ if } \gamma_0(a, y) \text{, and } \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} < 1 - \frac{p_{y0}}{\lambda^*_\theta}
\]

(68)

and for \( \lambda^*_\theta = 0 \), we get:

\[
\mathcal{L} = \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left[ \sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y')} \right] - \theta^T \phi(x, y).
\]

(69)

\[ \square \]

A.3 Proof of Theorem 3

Proof of Theorem 3 Taking the gradient of the objective with respect to \( \theta \), for \( \lambda^*_\theta > 0 \), we get:

\[
\partial_\theta \mathcal{L} \ni \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ \phi(x, 1) - \phi(x, y) \right\} \text{ if } \gamma_1(a, y) \text{, and } \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} > \frac{p_{y1}}{\lambda^*_\theta}
\]

(70)

and for \( \lambda^*_\theta < 0 \), we get:

\[
\partial_\theta \mathcal{L} \ni \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ \phi(x, 0) - \phi(x, y) \right\} \text{ if } \gamma_0(a, y) \text{, and } \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y)}}{Z_{\theta}(x)} < 1 - \frac{p_{y0}}{\lambda^*_\theta}
\]

(71)

and for \( \lambda^*_\theta = 0 \), we get:

\[
\partial_\theta \mathcal{L} \ni \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in \mathcal{D}} \left\{ \sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y')} \phi(x, y') - \phi(x, y) \right\} \text{ otherwise}
\]
and for $\lambda_0^* = 0$, we get:

$$
\theta \in \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in D} \sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y')}}{Z_\theta(x)} \phi(x, y') - \phi(x, y). 
$$

(72)

This can be simplified as:

$$
\theta \in \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{(x, a, y) \in D} \begin{cases}
\phi(x, 1) - \phi(x, y) & \text{if } \gamma_1(a, y), \text{ and } \frac{\lambda^*}{Z_\theta(x)} > 0, \\
\phi(x, 0) - \phi(x, y) & \text{if } \gamma_0(a, y), \text{ and } \frac{\lambda^*}{Z_\theta(x)} < 0 \\
\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \frac{e^{\theta^T \phi(x, y')}}{Z_\theta(x)} \phi(x, y') - \phi(x, y) & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases}
$$

(73)

### A.4 Proof of Theorem 4

**Proof of Theorem 4** A fully expressive feature representation constraints the adversary’s distribution in our primal formulation Eq. (10) to match the true data generating distribution. Then, the optimization simplified to:

$$
\hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a, y) = \arg \min_{P \in \Delta} \mathbb{E}_{P(|x, a, y)} [-\log \hat{P}(Y|X, A, Y)]
$$

(74)

$$
= \arg \min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta} - \sum_{(x, a, y)} P(x, a, y) \log \left( \hat{P}(\hat{Y} = y|x, a, y) \right)
$$

(75)

$$
= \arg \min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta} - \sum_{(x, a, y)} P(x, a, y) \log \left( \frac{\hat{P}(\hat{Y} = y|x, a, y)}{P(Y = y|x, a)} \right) - \sum_{(x, a, y)} P(x, a, y) \log (P(Y = y|x, a))
$$

(76)

$$
= \arg \min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta} - \sum_{(x, a, y)} P(x, a, y) \log \left( \frac{\hat{P}(\hat{Y} = y|x, a, y)}{P(Y = y|x, a)} \right)
$$

(77)

$$
= \arg \min_{\hat{P} \in \Delta} D_{KL}(P \parallel \hat{P}).
$$

(78)

This means that the optimal solution of our method when learn from the true data generating distribution with a fully expressive feature representation is the fair predicting distribution that has the minimum KL-divergence from the true distribution.

### A.5 Proof of Theorem 5

**Proof of Theorem 5** For the fairness constraints that depend on the true label (e.g., E.O.P. and E.O.D.), as described in §3.5, we compute $\hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a)$ using Eq. (23) with the input of $\hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a, y)$ and the adversary’s distribution to approximate the true distribution. Based on the proof of Theorem 4 we know that, in the limit, the adversary’s distribution match with the true distribution $P(x, a, y)$. Hence, our prediction becomes the standard marginal probability rule (it is no longer an approximation), i.e.:

$$
\hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a) = \hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a, y = 1)P(y = 1|x, a) + \hat{P}^*(\gamma|x, a, y = 0)P(y = 0|x, a).
$$

(79)

Therefore, our predictor is the marginal predicting distribution computed from the fair predictor distribution with the closest KL-divergence from the true distribution, marginalized over the true label.
Appendix B. Additional Experimental Results

Figure 3: Train classification error versus Demographic Parity constraint violation (top rows) and Equalized Odd constraint violation (bottom rows). The bars indicate standard deviation on 20 random splits of data.