

# Bias and Fairness in Medical Imaging

MICCAI FAIMI 2025 Tutorial

—  
Eike Petersen, Tareen Dawood, Miguel López-Pérez  
on behalf of FAIMI

i. **Introduction**

ii. „Lecture“: Causes of bias

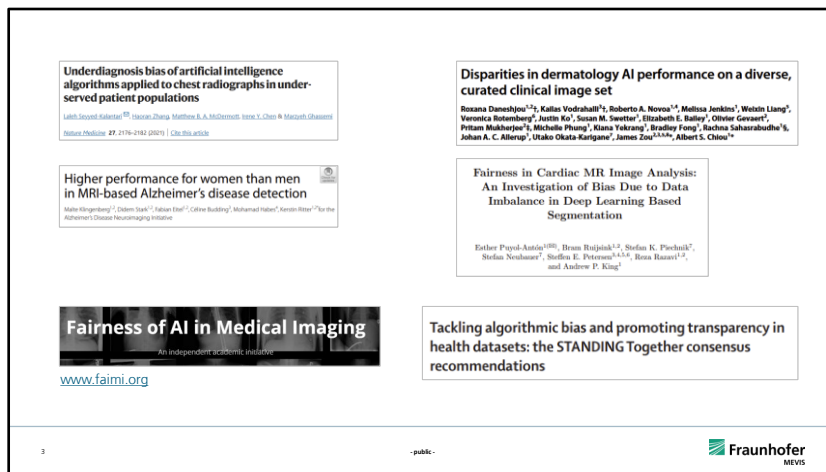
iii. Case study 1

iv. Coffee break (10:00 - 10:30)

v. Case study 2

vi. “Lecture”: Bias mitigation

vii. Conclusion & recommendations




Bias has been observed in all areas of medical image analysis: Chest X-Ray analysis (most of the existing literature is on this), MRI, CT, dermatology, histopathology, classification/segmentation, etc.

Most bias analyses cover biases w.r.t. sex/gender, race/ethnicity, sometimes age. All other characteristics much less studied.

Many initiatives + guidelines to raise awareness and propose best practices.

STANDING Together: large consensus effort & detailed guideline, published in & endorsed by The Lancet in Jan 2025.

FAIMI: That's us! ☺ Independent academic initiative, now also a MICCAI SIG. We organize events / workshops / special issues etc. Sign up for our newsletter (on [faimi.org](http://faimi.org))!

<p><b>AI Act</b> requires:</p> <p>"... examination in view of possible biases that are likely to affect the health and safety of persons, have a negative impact on fundamental rights or lead to discrimination prohibited under Union law"...</p> <p>"... appropriate measures to detect, prevent and mitigate possible biases identified according to [the previous point]..."</p>	<p><b>RSNA on ACA Section 1557:</b></p> <p>"... all covered entities, including radiologists and radiology practices, accountable for preventing discrimination, including any bias arising from the use of algorithms or AI."</p> <p>"... even if you are not the developer of the AI tool or algorithm, you are still obligated to make reasonable efforts to ensure its use doesn't result in discriminatory practices."</p> <p>"Ensure decision support tools are non-discriminatory" by May 1st, 2025.</p>
4	<p>- public -</p> <p> <b>Fraunhofer</b> MEVIS</p>

AI Act: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/reg/2024/1689/oj>

RSNA on ACA Section 1557: <https://www.rsna.org/-/media/files/rsna/practice-tools/faq-for-section-1557-aca.pdf>

**FDA Draft guidance:**

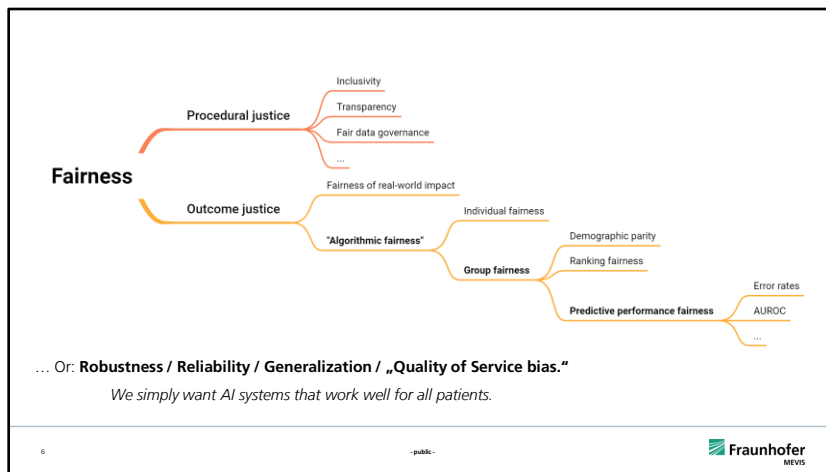
„The performance and behavior of AI systems rely heavily on the **quality, diversity, and quantity of data used to train** and tune them. The accuracy and usefulness of a validation of an AI-enabled device also depends on the quality, diversity, and quantity of data used to test it.”

„The **characterization of sources of bias** is necessary to assess the potential for AI bias in the AI enabled device.”

„... it is important for FDA to understand how the device performs overall in the intended use population, as well as in subgroups of interest. **Acceptable performance in certain subgroups may mask lower performance in other subgroups...** Poor performance in specific subgroups could make the device unsafe for use in those groups...”

<https://www.fda.gov/media/184856/download>

Document issued on January 7, 2025. (There was a public comment period; not entirely sure what happened to this.)





Fairness/ethics encompass many very different ethical considerations, many of which are relevant to the medical imaging context. See e.g. D’Antonoli (2020), Ethical considerations for artificial intelligence: an overview of the current radiology landscape, <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC7490024/>.

Here, we will focus on one very particular aspect: the „simple“ question of whether models work equally well in different groups of patients, or whether there are groups for which models systematically underperform.

We will not care so much about differences between particular performance metrics (accuracy vs. sensitivity vs. specificity vs. AUROC vs. ...). This is, again, not to say that the choice of a clinically meaningful and appropriate target metric is not important – it is! – but rather that all our messages in the following will largely focus on simply **building better models**. This should translate into improvements across most, if not all, such metrics.

Three key steps.

- 1. Bias assessment:** analyze potential performance disparities.  
*(Can't fix problems we don't know about!)*
- 2. Bias root cause analysis:** *why* are these groups underperforming?  
*(Can't fix problems effectively without knowing why they arise!  
Blind „black-box“ bias mitigation can do more harm than good.)*
- 3. Bias mitigation:** reduce disparities by *specifically* addressing identified root causes in a targeted manner.



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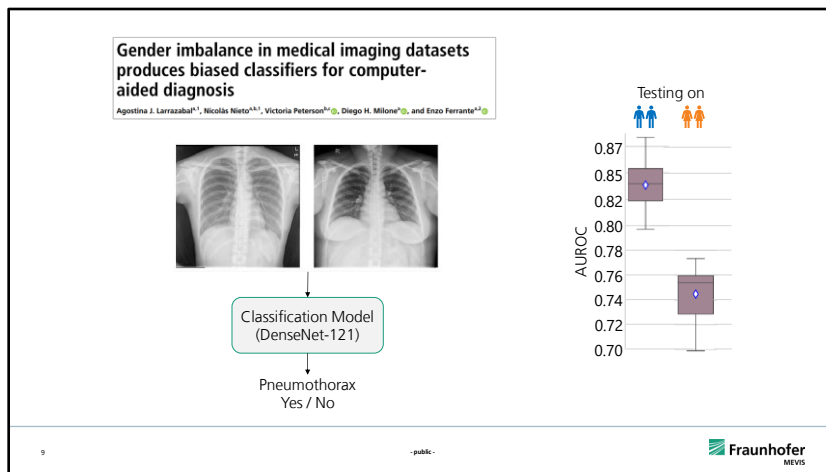
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Our focus will mostly be on step 2 here (root causes), but we will also briefly talk about the other two steps.

- i. Introduction
- ii. **Causes of bias**
- iii. Case study 1
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- vii. Conclusion & recommendations





Pneumothorax: gas within the pleural space.

Tips to help to find pneumothoraces include:


- the lung edge: you should not be able to see the lung edge - if you can, the region peripherally is likely a pneumothorax.
- absence of vessels: the lung should have vessels running through it, these are white branching structures on the x-ray. If there are no vessels, there may be a pneumothorax.
- I am to this day incapable of seeing a pneumothorax on an x-ray. 😊


This is the gender-balanced case on the NIH dataset in the mentioned paper.

Larrazabal et al. (2020), Gender imbalance in medical imaging datasets produces biased classifiers for computer-aided diagnosis,  
<https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.1919012117>.

Why do models perform better in some groups compared to others?


(How) can we fix this?





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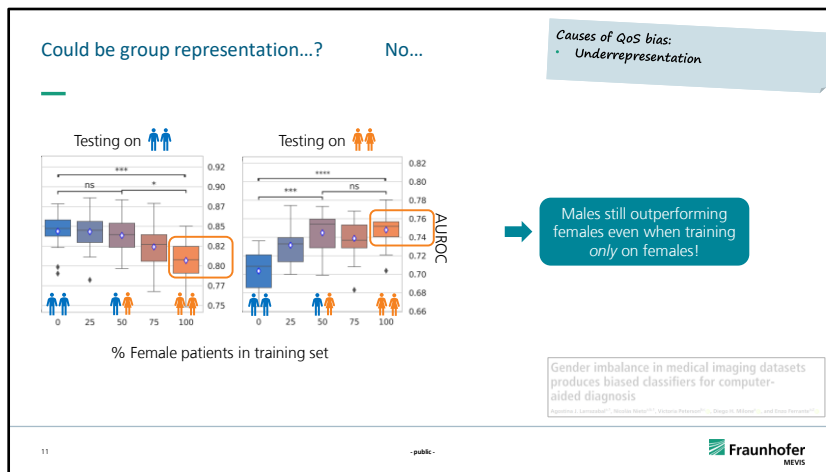
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Finding the root causes of bias can involve quite a lot of detective work! It's often highly nontrivial to uncover the source of observed performance disparities, as we will see in the following.

However, we need to find out what is *causing* a performance disparity in order to be able to say:

1. Whether or how the disparity can be fixed, and
2. Whether the observed disparity is indeed unfair. (There could be valid reasons for performance disparities, for instance if a task is just intrinsically much harder in one group for biological reasons.)



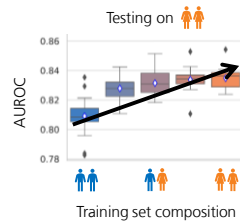
The first hypothesis for the previously shown performance disparity is often: were women under-represented in the training set?

This is not the case; that model was trained on a gender-balanced dataset. In fact, as we can see here, the model still performs better on men compared to women even when training *only* on female patients! (Note the different y axes in the two graphs.)

So: while under-representation *is* often a cause of under-performance (and the results in that paper very nicely show the effect of different group representations), this is clearly *not* the explanation for the observed performance gap.

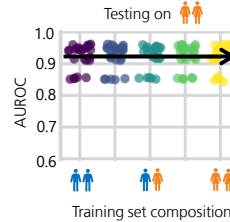
[Sidenote] Group representation does not *always* correlate with performance

#### Atelectasis detection in chest x-ray images



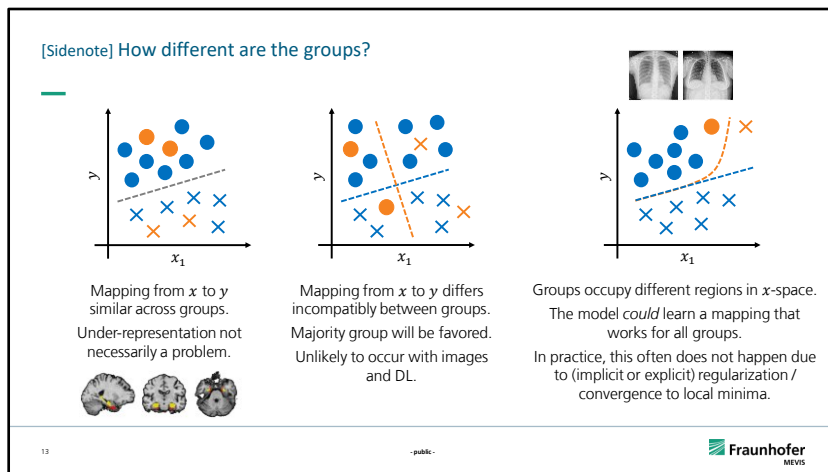
Larrazabal et al. (2020), Gender imbalance in medical imaging datasets produces biased classifiers for computer-aided diagnosis. PNAS.

#### Alzheimer's detection in MRI images



Petersen et al. (2022), Feature robustness and sex differences in medical imaging: a case study in MRI-based Alzheimer's disease detection. MICCAI.

In a separate study on brain MRI-based AD classification (using the ADNI datasets), we found *no* effect of training dataset composition (in terms of gender representation) on model performance in both genders. Why is that? What is the difference between the two cases?

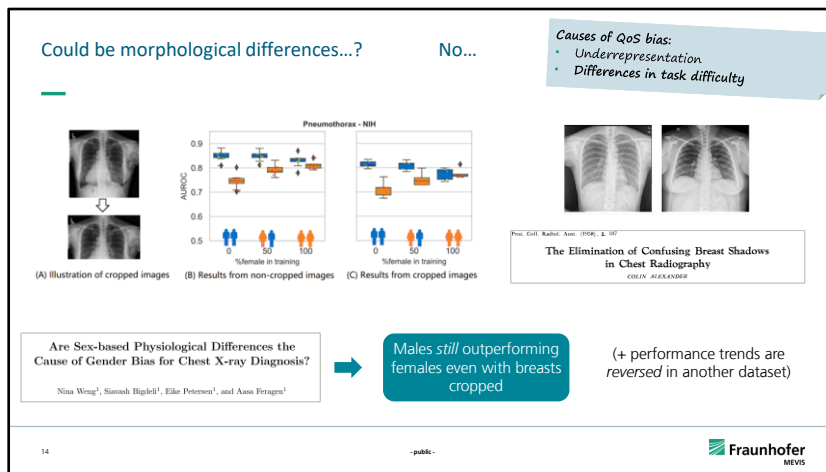


$x$ : images,  $y$ : target labels, e.g. disease labels.

Simplified illustrative 2D illustration to understand the core issues; in reality the  $x$ -space (image space) is of course very high-dimensional.

Note: these are *hypotheses* for what might be going on in the CXR / AD cases presented previously.

Also cf. Petersen et al. (2023), The path toward equal performance in medical machine learning, [https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899\(23\)00145-9](https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899(23)00145-9).

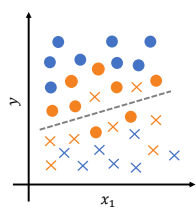


Breast shadows as an obstacle are known issue since at least 1958... =>  
 Maybe the observed performance differences are simply because breast shadows are obscuring regions of the lungs important for diagnosis, making the classification task intrinsically harder in women?

Apparently not, but it was another plausible hypothesis.

Morphological differences do not *have* to translate into differing task difficulty: here, for example, they did not.

### Task difficulty: Input disturbance characteristics

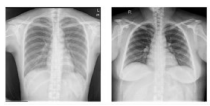


**Def.:** The input  $x$  is more noisy in some groups, or captures underlying pathology less well.

**Ex.:** Male vs. female chest x-ray, thin vs. obese abdominal ultrasound, small vs. large lesions, different disease stages, low-field MRI, ...

**Effect:** Correct *input*  $\mapsto$  *output* mapping should still be learned, but prediction performance will be reduced.

**Solution?** Use (or develop) further, less disturbed measurement modalities?




Alexander (1958), The Elimination of Confusing Breast Shadows in Chest Radiography. Australasian Radiology.

Brahee et al. (2013), Body Mass Index and Abdominal Ultrasound Image Quality. Journal of Diagnostic medical Sonography.

Ross et al. (2020), The influence of patient race on the use of diagnostic imaging in U.S. emergency departments. BMC Health Services Research.

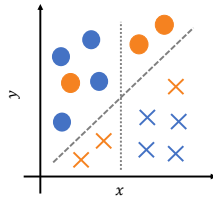
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Potential reason #1 for differences in task difficulty. In the plot, colors correspond to e.g. gender, dots/crosses to diagnosis.

Also cf. Petersen et al. (2023), The path toward equal performance in medical machine learning, [https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899\(23\)00145-9](https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899(23)00145-9).

### Task difficulty: Unobserved causes of the outcome



**Def.:** An unobserved factor that affects outcomes more strongly in one group compared to others.

**Ex.:** Hormone level fluctuations affect outcomes more strongly in women than men.

Comorbidities more prevalent in older subjects, influencing outcomes more than in younger patients.

Female heart attacks often due to microvascular disease, undetectable by current standard tests.

**Effect:** Reduced prediction performance in the affected groups.

**Solution?** *Measure and include them in the model.*

Potential reason #2 for differences in task difficulty. Apart from the diagonal dividing line between disease or not, there is a second trend: the female are „high on disease“ for larger  $x$  compared to men.

Also cf. Petersen et al. (2023), The path toward equal performance in medical machine learning, [https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899\(23\)00145-9](https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899(23)00145-9).



### Task difficulty: Label noise

**Def.:** *Random label errors; differing error rate between groups.*

**Ex.:** *Label noise in chest x-ray disease labels mined from reports using NLP: more label errors in older subjects.*

**Effect:** *Still learning the correct input—output mapping, but at reduced learning rate (since more noisy).  
DL generally assumed to be robust to label noise?  
Performance measures reduced; performance w.r.t. true labels might be better?*

**Solution?** *Investigate label error rates in different groups, clean data, label noise-robust learning schemes.*

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Potential reason #3 for differences in task difficulty.

See e.g.

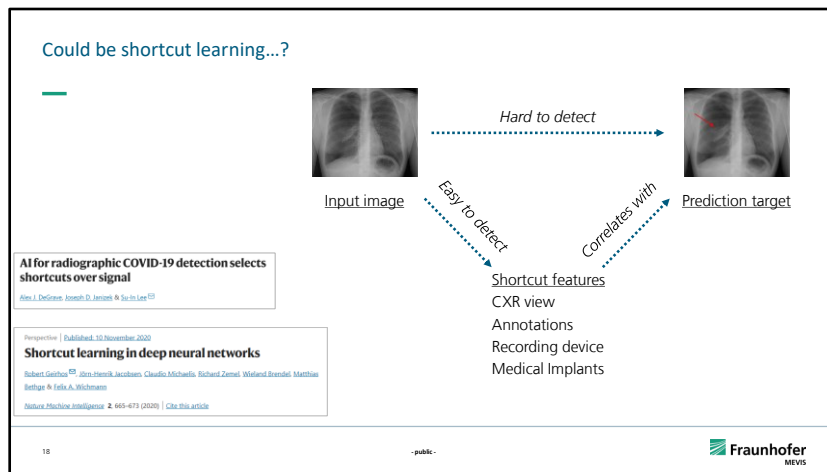
Zhang et al. (2022), Improving the Fairness of Chest X-ray Classifiers. PMLR / CHIL.

Frenay and Verleysen (2014), Classification in the Presence of Label Noise: A Survey. IEEE TNNLS.

Rolnick et al. (2017), Deep Learning is Robust to Massive Label Noise.

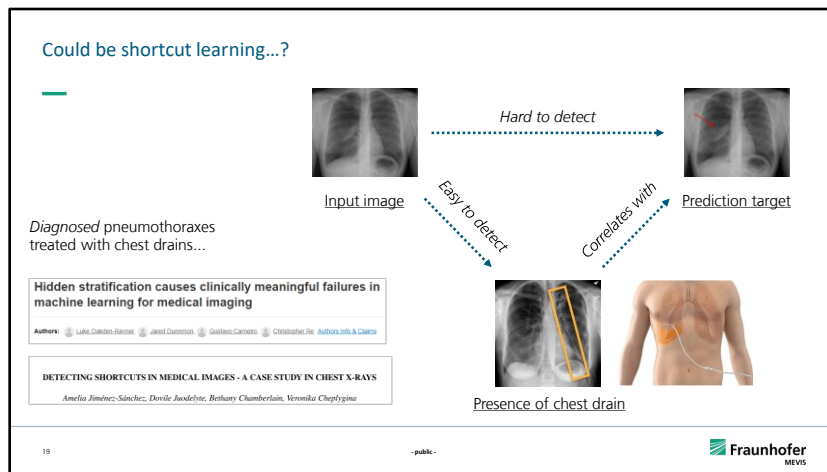
Santomartino et al. (2024), Evaluating the Performance and Bias of Natural Language Processing Tools in Labeling Chest Radiograph Reports,  
<https://pubs.rsna.org/doi/10.1148/radiol.232746>

Also cf. Petersen et al. (2023), The path toward equal performance in medical machine learning, [https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899\(23\)00145-9](https://www.cell.com/patterns/fulltext/S2666-3899(23)00145-9).



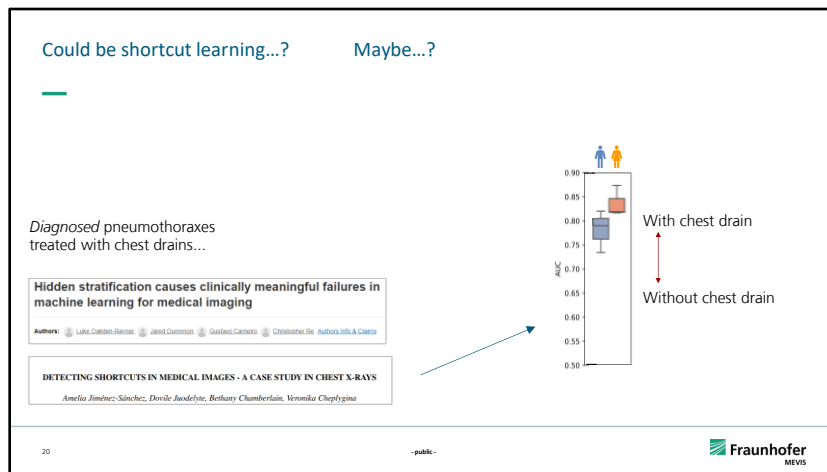
Back to our chest x-ray gender performance disparity example...

Shortcut learning is also an issue in segmentation, not only in classification: Lin et al. (2024), Shortcut Learning in Medical Image Segmentation, [https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-031-72111-3\\_59](https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-031-72111-3_59). The problem appears less severe there, however.



Chest drain visualization source [Chest Tubes and Indwelling Pleural Catheters | Thoracic Key](#)

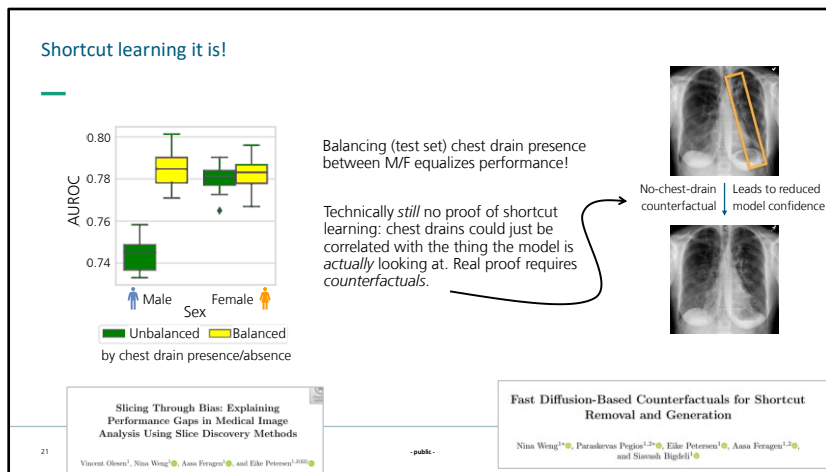
It had actually been reported earlier (in 2020, see the excellent Oakden-Rayner paper) that CXR pneumothorax diagnosis models are prone to picking up on the chest drain shortcut. (We did not know this when we started working on this, and the vast majority of the academic CXR diagnosis literature also seems to be blissfully unaware of this issue to this day.)



The figure is from the second paper (Jiménez-Sánchez et al.) and is on the NIH dataset (like everything until here).

When we split performance estimates by sex/gender *and* the presence/absence of a chest drain in the image, we see opposite disparities between the two genders/sexes!

Does this explain our observed gender performance disparity?



If we balance the test set such that chest drain prevalence is equal in the M/F groups, the previously observed performance disparities disappear! \*

Thus, it appears that it is in fact the chest drain shortcut – which is „working differently well“ in the two groups – that is causing these observed M/F performance disparities.

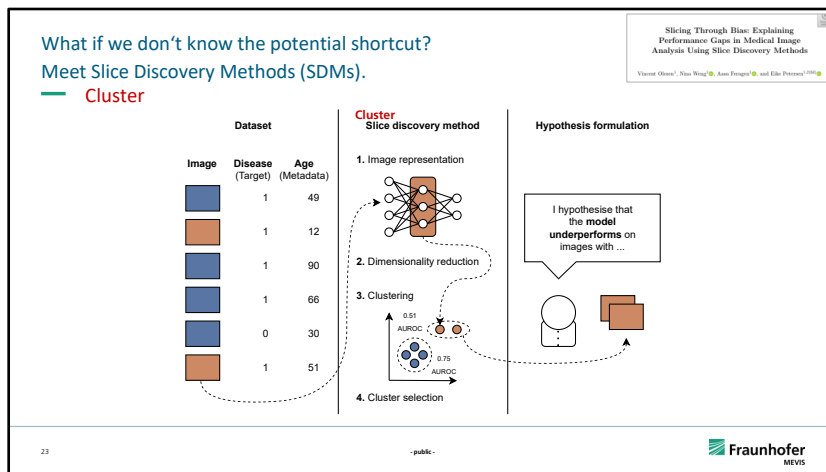
Additional evidence in the ECCV 2024 paper mentioned on the right (see <https://fastdime.compute.dtu.dk/> or <https://arxiv.org/abs/2312.14223>): Artificially adding/removing chest drains from images significantly changes model confidence w.r.t. pneumothorax.

Olesen et al., Slicing Through Bias: Explaining Performance Gaps in Medical Image Analysis using Slice Discovery Methods, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.12142>

\* These results are on the CheXpert dataset, where M/F performance disparities are *reversed* compared to the NIH dataset we were looking at, so far.

- Causes of QoS bias:
- Underrepresentation
  - Differences in task difficulty
  - Poor performance for other reasons that happen to correlate with group membership (e.g., shortcut learning)

The observed disparity had **nothing** to do with sex / gender!  
**Bias root cause analysis** is crucial to enable effective bias **mitigation**!



What if you *don't know* already what might be causing the issue? E.g., if we did not already know about the potential chest drain shortcut, how can we find out about such issues?

There is a branch of literature (under various different names such as „Automatic Slice Discovery“, „Blind Spot Discovery“, „Failure Mode Detection“, ...) that treats this problem.

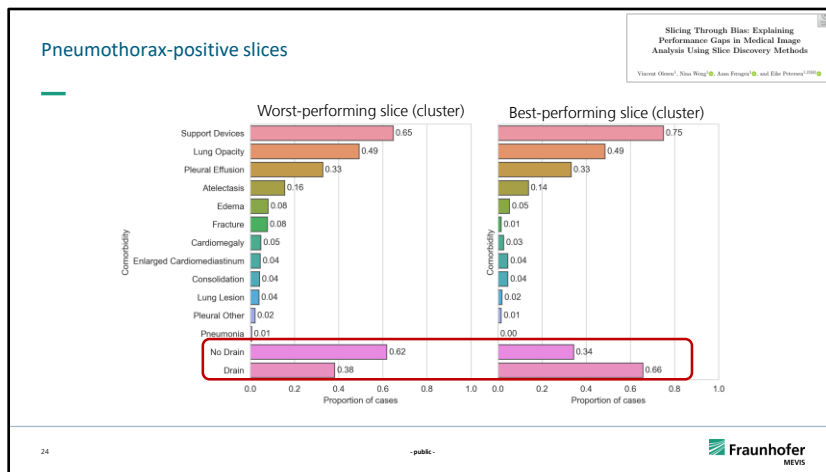
(The nomenclature is a bit confusing especially in the medical imaging context, unfortunately – „slice“ here does *not* refer to a 2D slice of a 3D image; it refers to a „slice“ of data  $\approx$  a cluster.)

These methods can be summarized quite simply as:

1. Cluster images / volumes based on similarity.
2. Find clusters that are performing unexpectedly well/poorly. (– statistical significance testing, multiple hypothesis corrections, ...)
3. Investigate these manually (visually = look at samples from them) or use multimodal models to automatically suggest captions for the different clusters. Try to find the defining feature of these clusters, thereby generating hypothesis regarding potential causes of good/poor performance.
4. Investigate these generated hypotheses further, such as what we did for the chest drain case on the previous slides. (Specific analyses will be hypothesis- and application-specific.)

Cf. Olesen et al., Slicing Through Bias: Explaining Performance Gaps in Medical Image Analysis using Slice Discovery Methods, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.12142>






In our case, we already knew about the chest drain shortcut. But let's imagine we didn't – would our slice discovery method find this?

Indeed, we find that the major difference between the best and worst discovered (pneumothorax-positive) clusters/slices is the prevalence of chest drains.

However, to generate the above plot, we already need chest drain labels / metadata! **What if we don't have labels for the potential shortcut factor?**

How to deal with **really** unknown factors?



Visual analysis of best/worst slices for **atelectasis** classification shows

- 90% samples with ECG cables in best negative slice
- 5% samples with ECG cables in worst negative slice

Slicing Through Bias: Explaining Performance Gaps in Medical Image Analysis Using Slice Discovery Methods  
Vincent Odone<sup>1</sup>, Nina Wang<sup>2</sup>, Sam Sengco<sup>3</sup>, and Elise Pienney<sup>1,2</sup>

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Here, we had such a case: we really did not know about this shortcut – and, to our knowledge, at least, this had also not been described before.

Based on our slice discovery method, we found several clusters that performed very differently w.r.t. atelectasis classification. Initial visual inspection of the resulting clusters indicated that a differentiating factor might be the presence/absence of ECG cables.

We then manually labeled only the images in the best/worst clusters in terms of presence/absence of ECG cables, and found the shown **very strong differences in ECG cable prevalence**, suggesting another instance of shortcut learning.

Will this find everything? No!

Label & sampling biases: impossible to detect & fix purely algorithmically

**Racial and ethnic disparities in the delayed diagnosis of appendicitis among children**  
 Monika K. Goyal MD, MSCE, James M. Chamberlain MD, Michael Webb MS, Robert W. Grundmeier MD, Tiffani J. Johnson MD, MS, Scott A. Lorch MD, MSCE, Joseph J. Zorc MD, MSCE ... See all authors →

**Gender Bias in the Diagnosis of COPD**  
 Chapman Kenneth B. MD, FCCP, A, B, Tashkin Donald P. MD, FCCP, Pye David J. PhD \*

**Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of patients**  
 Obermeyer et al. find evidence of racial bias in one widely used algorithm, such that Black patients assigned the same level of risk by the algorithm are sicker than White patients (see the Perspective by Benjamin). The authors estimated that this racial bias reduces the number of Black patients identified for extra care by more than half. Bias occurs because the algorithm uses health costs as a proxy for health needs. Less money is spent on Black patients who have the same level of need, and the algorithm thus falsely concludes that Black patients are healthier than equally sick White patients. Reformulating the algorithm so that it no longer uses costs as a proxy for needs eliminates the racial bias in predicting who needs extra care. *Science* this issue p. 447; see also p. 421

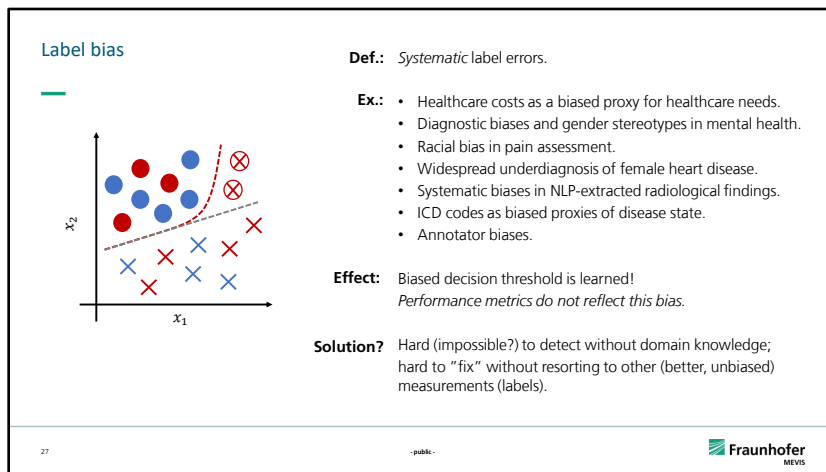
**Causes of QoS bias:**

- Underrepresentation
- Differences in task difficulty
- Poor performance for other reasons that happen to correlate with group membership (e.g., shortcut learning)
- Label / sampling biases [extra hard since unclear how to detect / measure!]

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The Paper on the right is Obermeyer et al. (2019), Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of population, Science.

- Algorithm predicts risk and suggests care
- Observation: At same disease state, black patients are assessed to have lower risk than white, receive less care
- Cause: Less money is spent on black patients, but care cost is used as a proxy (label) for need. (Bias comes from „trained practice“ to under-spend on Black population)



See e.g.

Obermeyer et al. (2019), Dissecting Racial Bias in an Algorithm Used to Manage the Health of Populations. *Science*.

Sigmon et al. (2005), Gender Differences in Self-Reports of Depression: The Response Bias Hypothesis Revisited. *Sex Roles*.

Hoffman et al. (2016), Racial bias in pain assessment and treatment recommendations, and false beliefs about biological differences between blacks and whites. *PNAS*.

Wang et al. (2021), Fair Classification with Group-Dependent Label Noise. *ACM FaccT*.

Santomartino et al. (2024), Evaluating the Performance and Bias of Natural Language Processing Tools in Labeling Chest Radiograph Reports:

<https://doi.org/10.1148/radiol.232746>

## Selection bias

**Def.:** Systematic differences in **how groups are selected** for study enrollment

- Ex.:**
- Selecting subjects based on disease status.
  - Differences in enrollment in the healthcare system.
  - Being treated at specific hospitals (with different equipment).
  - Groups being diagnosed / treated at different disease stages.

**Effect:** Biased decision threshold is learned!  
*Performance metrics do not reflect this bias.*

**Solution?** If known: covariate shift adaptation methods, shift-stable learning.

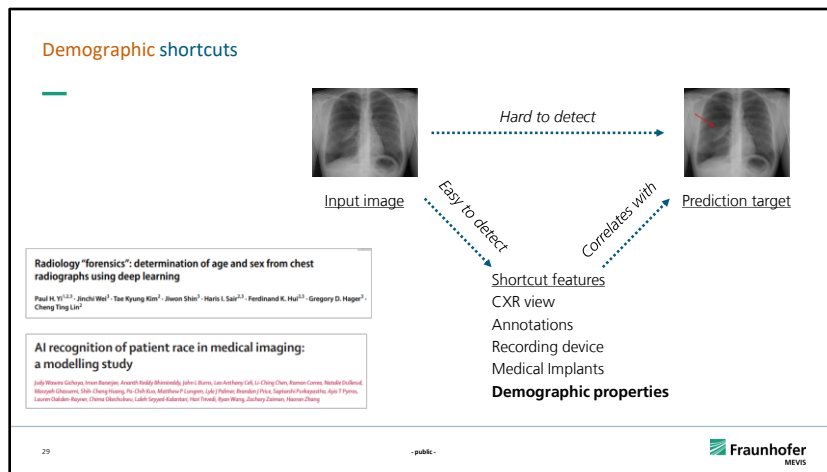
See e.g.

Ellenberg (1994), Selection bias in observational and experimental studies. Statistics in Medicine.

Natanson et al. (1998), The sirens' songs of confirmatory sepsis trials: selection bias and sampling error. Critical Care Medicine.

Zadrozny (2004), Learning and evaluating classifiers under sample selection bias. ICML.

Subbaswamy and Saria (2019), From development to deployment: dataset shift, causality, and shift-stable models in health AI. Biostatistics.



Most/all demographic patient properties can be reconstructed with very high accuracy and robustness from medical images. This raises the potential for models to exploit these potential shortcut features, i.e., learning that membership in a certain group increases or decreases the likelihood of a certain target (disease) label [0].

This is akin to a logistic regression risk prediction model that uses demographic properties as input variables [1,2]

It is also arguably an instance of *direct discrimination* [3-5].

[0] Banerjee et al. (2023), “Shortcuts” Causing Bias in Radiology Artificial Intelligence: Causes, Evaluation, and Mitigation, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacr.2023.06.025>

[1] Diao et al. (2024), Implications of Race Adjustment in Lung-Function Equations, NEJM

[2] Zink et al. (2024), Race adjustments in clinical algorithms can help correct for racial disparities in data quality, PNAS

[3] Deck et al. (2024), Implications of the AI Act for Non-Discrimination Law and Algorithmic Fairness, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.20089>

[4] Gerards and Borgesius (2021), Protected Grounds and the System of Non-Discrimination Law in the Context of Algorithmic Decision-Making and Artificial Intelligence, Colorado Technology Law Journal

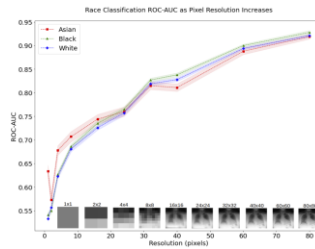
[5] Wachter et al. (2021), Bias Preservation in Machine Learning: The Legality of Fairness

Metrics under EU Non-Discrimination Law, West Virginia Law Review  
[I am not a lawyer...]

## Demographic shortcuts

Models can identify self-reported race/ethnicity with high AUROC

- Far better than using only clinical metadata
- Far better than clinicians
- After removing (clipping) bone density information
- After severely high/low-pass filtering or downscaling
- From almost all individual parts of an image
- From only the grayscale histogram
- On external datasets





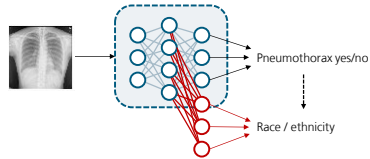
## Demographic shortcuts

Models can identify self-reported race/ethnicity with high AUROC... *but do they actually do that?*

Many (incl. me ☺) investigate „demographic encoding“:

### ! Caution !

1. If race/ethnicity can be „predicted“ from  $y$  (target label) it can also be predicted with at least the same accuracy from the embeddings of any perfect disease classifier!  
→ Baseline, higher for higher-cardinality  $y$  (multi-label or image targets – seg, synth) or in case of strong label shifts (prevalence diffs)
2. „Encoding“ stronger than this does *not* necessarily imply that the model *uses* this info! (Models can ignore parts of embeddings.)



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See e.g.

- Petersen et al., „Are demographically invariant models and representations in medical imaging fair?“, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.01397>
  - Brown et al., „Detecting shortcut learning for fair medical AI using shortcut testing“, <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-023-39902-7>
  - Glocker et al., „Algorithmic encoding of protected characteristics in chest X-ray disease detection models“, [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/ebiom/article/PIIS2352-3964\(23\)00032-4](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/ebiom/article/PIIS2352-3964(23)00032-4)
- ... among many others.

## Demographic shortcuts

Models can identify self-reported race/ethnicity. Do they?

True proof: „demographic counterfactual“ (??)

Demographic shortcuts are *diffuse* = especially hard to investigate / visualize / „explain“

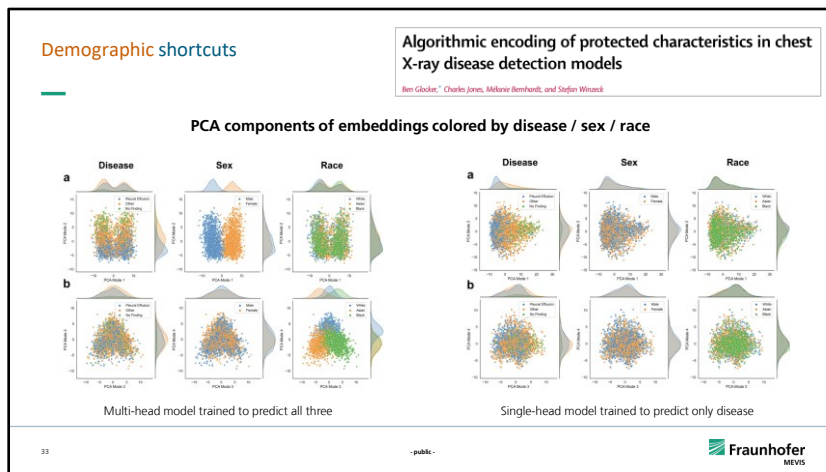
*The inverse direction works: if „encoding“ low, demographics clearly not used!*

### Causes of QoS bias:

- Underrepresentation
- Differences in task difficulty
- Poor performance for other reasons that happen to correlate with group membership (e.g., shortcut learning)
- Label / sampling biases [extra hard since unclear how to detect / measure!]
- **Demographic shortcuts**

For a discussion on demographic counterfactuals + pointers to relevant literature, cf. Petersen et al., „Are demographically invariant models and representations in medical imaging fair?“, <https://arxiv.org/abs/2305.01397>

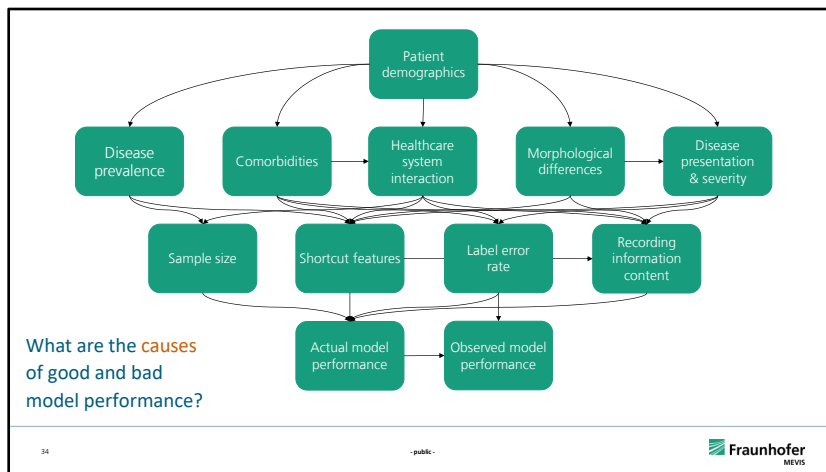
For the fact that shortcuts are diffuse, cf. Gichoya et al., AI Recognition of patient race ...



Empirically, there is actually not so much encoding (this is what the right figure shows) compared to how strongly models *could* encode demographics (this is what the left figure shows)!

I.e., for standard task-specific classifiers, we are clearly not in the „>90% protected attribute classification ability“ space (which would be possible).

That means: the risk is lower than what we may have feared, but it is still non-zero. Do such models exploit demographic properties to *some* degree? We don't really know, and I have not seen an approach to investigate this that I personally find very convincing.

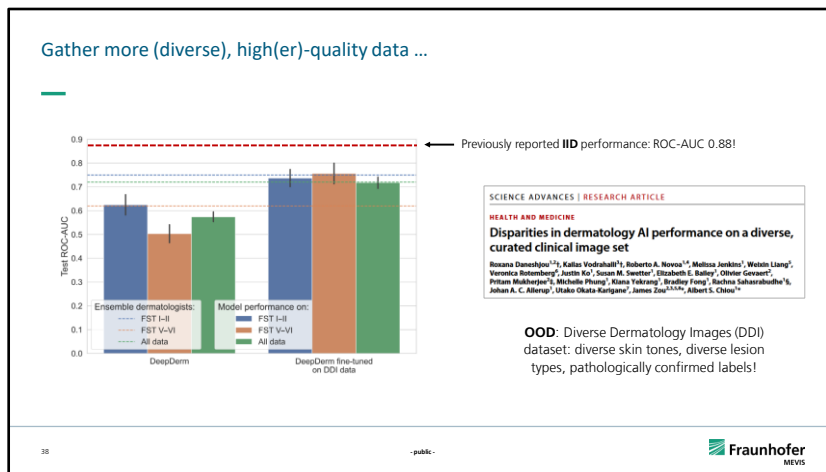


Many things can cause good or bad model performance in a demographic group. Figuring out the relevant cause for an observed disparity is often non-trivial, but it is necessary.

- i. Introduction
- ii. Causes of bias
- iii. **Case study 1**
- iv. Coffee break (10:00 - 10:30)
- v. Case study 2
- vi. Bias mitigation
- vii. Conclusion & recommendations

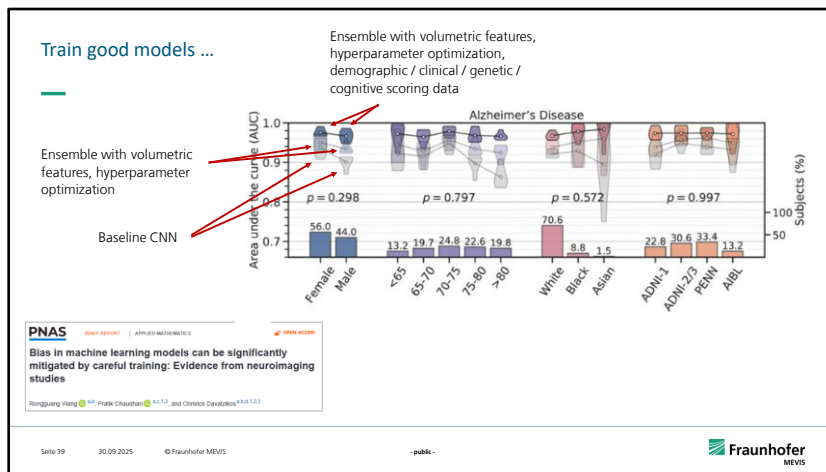
- i. Introduction
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- i. Introduction
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- Diversity matters across *all* dimensions: demographic representation, technical acquisition parameters, disease presentations & subtypes, etc.
- „Higher-quality data“ primarily means: (Diversity and) higher-quality *target labels / outcomes*!
- Clinicians often believe that high-quality image acquisition is of importance, but the opposite is true: models need to see representative real-world images with all the noise, potential confounders, acquisition errors etc. that will inevitably come up in real-world recordings.
- Remark for the plot: The „previous performance“ is on IID data; we are here concerned with the within-OOD-performance comparison.





Plot: **Solid colors**: Ensemble using all data. **Translucent Color**: Only images. **Translucent Gray**: Baseline model. **Conclusion**: Preprocessing/HPT improves performance, but only diverse data achieves level performance in subgroups. [1]

Similar results in our MICCAI 2022 paper: [https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-031-16431-6\\_9](https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-031-16431-6_9)

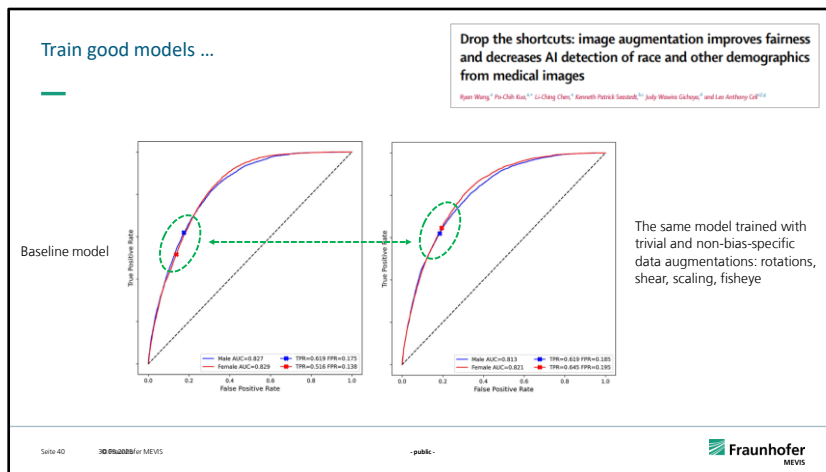
"Normalize away" any **unimportant** group differences wherever possible. (Harmonization, standardization, registration, removal of potential visual confounders, etc.) [2]

Personal, highly unscientific guesstimate: >50% of bias findings reported in the literature are simply a result of models being poorly trained, highly non-robust, and just generally not working very well.

[1] Excerpt from the figure caption: „For Alzheimer’s disease, schizophrenia, and autism spectrum disorder, using data from different studies (e.g., ADNI-1, ADNI-2/3, PENN, and AIBL for Alzheimer’s disease), we built an ensemble that uses **data from multiple sources** (MR imaging features, demographic, clinical variables, genetic factors, and cognitive scores); (SI Appendix). This ensemble was trained using preprocessing and hyperparameter optimization discussed in Materials and Methods. We also trained an ensemble using **only imaging features**. Bar plots denote the size of the subgroup/study (%); in many cases,

there is a strong imbalance in the data. Violin plots denote the test AUC on **five different held-out subsets of data**. Solid colors indicate that models used all features, while translucent colors indicate that models were trained only on imaging features. Translucent gray denotes the AUC of a baseline deep network (without appropriate preprocessing and hyperparameter tuning). White dots denote the average AUC of each subgroup/study. For the ensemble trained on multisource data, the P-values shown in the figure indicate that we cannot reject the null hypothesis that the AUC for different subgroups has the same mean (at significance level  $< 0.01$ ). This is not the case for the baseline deep network.

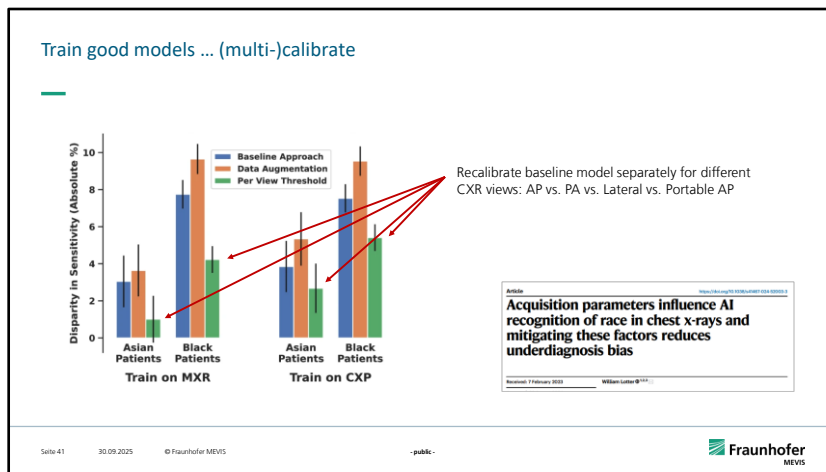
[2] Seoni et al. (2024), All you need is data preparation: A systematic review of image harmonization techniques in Multi-center/device studies for medical support systems, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmpb.2024.108200>.



This is edema detection from CXR.

In the baseline model, men/women end up at very different TPR/FPR operating points in ROC space at the same decision threshold.

In the model trained with trivial data augmentations, the resulting operating points are very similar.



**Ensure robustness to technical variations:** scanner type, field strength, view position, lighting conditions, imaging protocol, potential confounders such as medical implants, ...

**Note:** Data augmentation worsens the performance, while here the thresholds help a lot. Neither use any balancing or „fairness“ methods, don't even need to know sensitive attributes at train time.

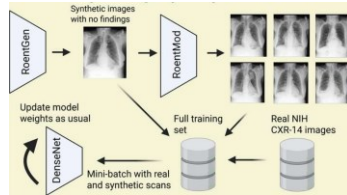
**Note** that here, lower bars are better.



## Mitigate shortcuts ...

### RoentMod: A Synthetic Chest X-Ray Modification Model to Identify and Correct Image Interpretation Model Shortcuts

Lauren H. Cooke, Matthias Jung, Jan M. Brendel, Nora M. Kerkovits, Boris Földi, Michael T. Lu, and Vineet K. Raghu



Outperforms baseline (NIH only) by 0.06 AUROC points (i.i.d.) and 0.04 AUROC points (o.o.d.) on average over 6 disease labels. (Always better.)

Fairness effects: not yet tested. Presumably positive?

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## [RoentMod: A Synthetic Chest X-Ray Modification Model to Identify and Correct Image Interpretation Model Shortcuts | PDF](#)

This is stable diffusion text-to-image (RoentGen) followed by image-to-image (RoentMod).

## Select for fairness / robustness ...

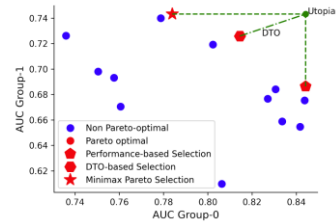
„... [in] ten datasets from different imaging modalities ... we find that **the under-studied issue of model selection criterion can have a significant impact on fairness outcomes**“

Max-min AUROC selection stat. sig. better than default on worst-group AUROC while *not* stat. sig. worse on overall AUROC!

This is (like everything until here) without any explicit „bias mitigation“!

### MEDFAIR: BENCHMARKING FAIRNESS FOR MEDICAL IMAGING

Yongshuo Zeng<sup>1</sup>, Yongxin Yang<sup>1</sup>, Timothy Hospedales<sup>1,2</sup>  
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„Pareto optimal“ = max min AUROC

## Select for fairness / robustness ...

"The standard ... is to choose the model that maximizes accuracy. Using maximum accuracy as a decision criterion for model selection may suggest that there is one model with the best accuracy ... However, ... **there are usually multiple models with equivalent accuracy but significantly different properties.**"

### Model Multiplicity: Opportunities, Concerns, and Solutions

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Solon Barocas  
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Microsoft Research  
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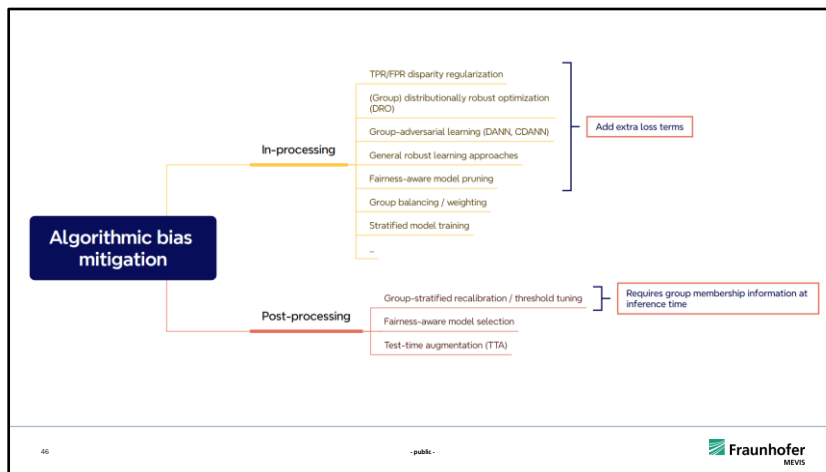
### Amazing Things Come From Having Many Good Models

Cynthia Rudin<sup>1,2</sup> Chao Zhang<sup>1</sup> Leticia Senerre<sup>1</sup> Margot Selzer<sup>1</sup> Ronald Parr<sup>1</sup> Jianchang Liu<sup>1</sup>  
Sohar Katta<sup>1</sup> Jon Donnelly<sup>1</sup> Harry Chen<sup>1</sup> Zachary Bonet<sup>1</sup>

"The **Rashomon Effect** ... describes the phenomenon that there exist many equally good predictive models for the same dataset. This phenomenon happens for many real datasets and when it does, it sparks both magic and consternation, but mostly magic. In light of the Rashomon Effect, this perspective piece proposes reshaping the way we think about machine learning, particularly ... flexibility to address user preferences, such as fairness ..."

Model multiplicity is an emerging and very active field with wide implications for robustness, fairness, interpretability, ...





Many studies find that none of these consistently outperform standard (baseline) empirical risk minimization (ERM) in terms of resulting model fairness.

Personal opinion: I claim that this should *not* be what you spend most of your time on when dealing with potential bias issues. Focus on improving your data / preprocessing / augmentations / task set-up, “simply” training a good, robust model using standard ML best practices, and bias assessment first. *If* important issues remain, come back here.

The most impactful and practical strategy on this slide is probably fairness-aware *model selection*: simply select the model with the best worst-group performance [1,4]

For some overviews and implementations, see e.g.

[1] Zong et al. (2023), MEDFAIR: BENCHMARKING FAIRNESS FOR MEDICAL IMAGING, <https://arxiv.org/pdf/2210.01725>

[2] Yang et al. (2024), The limits of fair medical imaging AI in real-world generalization, <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41591-024-03113-4>

[3] Hort et al. (2024), Bias Mitigation for Machine Learning Classifiers: A Comprehensive Survey, <https://dl.acm.org/doi/full/10.1145/3631326>  
<https://fairlearn.org/>

[4] Black et al. (2022), *Model Multiplicity: Opportunities, Concerns, and Solutions*, <https://doi.org/10.1145/3531146.3533149>.

Limited effectiveness of (some?) „bias mitigation“ methods

MEDFAIR: BENCHMARKING FAIRNESS FOR MEDICAL IMAGING

Yongshuo Zeng<sup>1</sup>, Yinpia Yang<sup>1</sup>, Timothy Hospedales<sup>1,2</sup>  
<sup>1</sup> School of Informatics, University of Edinburgh, <sup>2</sup> Learning AI Centre, Cambridge  
{yongshuo.zeng, yinpia.yang, t.hospedales}@ed.ac.uk

“No method outperforms ERM with statistical significance”

Improving the Fairness of Chest X-ray Classifiers

Haoran Zhang  
Massachusetts Institute of Technology  
Natalie Dillerud  
University of Toronto  
Karsten Roth  
University of Tübingen  
Lauren Oakden-Rayner  
University of Adelaide  
Stephanie Field  
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STEPHANIE.FIELD@STANFORD.EDU  
MARYAM.GHAHMADEI@MIT.EDU

“We find, consistent with prior work on non-clinical data, that methods which strive to achieve better worst-group performance do not outperform simple data balancing. We also find that methods which achieve group fairness do so by worsening performance for all groups.”

### Algorithmic bias mitigation: limitations

Highly narrow framing: keep data, preprocessing, task set-up, model architecture fixed.

Limited empirical success. (Not surprising, given the above?)

Large gains possible outside of this narrow framing, cf. earlier results in this section.

“Fairness-Accuracy Trade-offs”:

1. Some exist (*under the above, very narrow framing*), but there are much fewer practically relevant trade-offs than is often believed.
2. If they exist, trade-offs are often negligible in practice.
3. Observed trade-offs may be illusory if data are biased.
4. *Focus on improving task setup, data quality, model quality, selection strategy before considering supposed trade-offs. In almost all scenarios, performance can be “leveled up”.*

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On „limited empirical success“, cf. e.g. Zong et al and Yang et al cited on the previous slide, + Zhang et al. (2022), Improving the Fairness of Chest X-ray Classifiers, <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v174/zhang22a.html>.

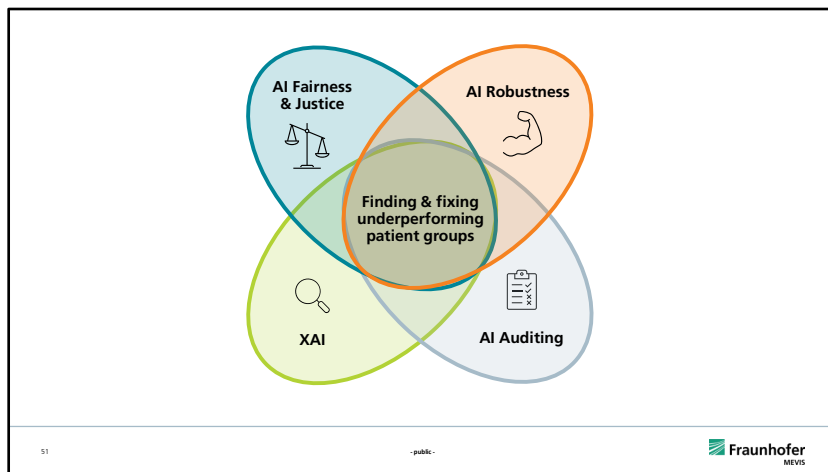
On “empirically negligible trade-offs”, cf. Rodolfa et al. (2021), Empirical observation of negligible fairness–accuracy trade-offs in machine learning for public policy, <https://www.nature.com/articles/s42256-021-00396-x>.

On “fewer trade-offs than often believed”, see e.g. Lazar Reich and Vijaykumar (2021), A Possibility in Algorithmic Fairness: Can Calibration and Equal Error Rates Be Reconciled? <https://arxiv.org/abs/2002.07676>  
Wick et al. (2019), Unlocking Fairness: a Trade-off Revisited, <https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper/2019/hash/373e4c5d8edfa8b74fd4b6791d0cf6dc-Abstract.html>

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*There are no silver bullets in bias assessment and mitigation.* Finding and fixing the causes of underperformance is a nontrivial endeavor but worthwhile.



You *can* be interested in ethics, fairness, etc., but you don't have to be.  
This is still for you if you just want to build good models!  
Models that perform well on all patient groups are robust, trustworthy, and easier to get regulatory approval for.

### Recommendations & Take-home messages

- Gather as much metadata as feasible.
- Perform fine-grained intersectional performance assessment and look for important unlabeled clusters.
- Focus on general data & model quality before using specific bias mitigation methods.
  - Standardize / normalize / harmonize / ... (without normalizing away important biological differences!)
  - Augment extensively
  - Ensure robustness w.r.t. variations in technical parameters
  - Assess & ensure quality of *labels*
  - Consider fairness in model selection
- Performance (and bias) metrics can be misleading if test data are biased, as is often the case. External evaluation is key!
- *There are no silver bullets* in bias assessment and mitigation: Comprehensive root cause investigation is hard detective work.
- But: fixing QoS bias problems will just make your models better!

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Intersectional = considering sub-(sub-)groups, e.g., dark-skinned women aged 20-30y with comorbidity X.

In bias assessments, do not forget to:

- Quantify metric uncertainty: groups become small and performance measures thus more uncertain.
- Correct for multiple hypotheses testing: we are comparing many different groups.
- Correct for known confounding factors that might differ between demographic groups: this will help disentangle the *causes* of performance discrepancies.
- Also compare groups defined by non-demographic properties (e.g., technical acquisition parameters): this will help find other issues related to (a lack of) model robustness.

## Final recommendation

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[www.faimi.org](http://www.faimi.org)

- Newsletter!
- Free virtual online symposium in Nov
- These slides 😊
- Resources on FAIMI topics



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A reading list. Some that we referenced here, some that are good introductory reading material, some on more specific topics, some of our own prior work in this area.

Please reach out if looking for a reference on a particular topic!

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