Stability of Black Box Algorithms

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Outline

- Background on algorithmic stability
- Part 1: hardness of testing stability¹
- Part 2: stability for bagged algorithms²

Collaborators:



¹Kim & B., <u>Black-box tests for algorithmic stability</u>, arXiv:2111.15546

²Soloff, B., & Willett, <u>Bagging provides assumption-free stability</u>, arxiv:2301.12600

Data $(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{\text{algorithm } \mathcal{A}}$ Fitted model \widehat{f}



Concentration / consistency: $\widehat{f} \approx \widehat{f'}$ if we resample entire data set

Stability: $\widehat{f} \approx \widehat{f'}$ if we resample small fraction of data set

Background: algorithmic stability

Definition

 ${\mathcal A}$ is $(\epsilon,\delta)\text{-stable}$ with respect to distribution P & sample size n if

$$\mathbb{P}_{P}\left\{ \left| \widehat{f}(X_{n+1}) - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(X_{n+1}) \right| > \epsilon \right\} \leq \delta \text{ for } (X_{j}, Y_{j}) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} P$$

 $\mathcal{A} \text{ trained on } \{(X_j, Y_j); j \in [n]\} \qquad \mathcal{A} \text{ trained on } \{(X_j, Y_j) : j \in [n] \setminus i\}$

Notes:

• We assume $\mathcal A$ treats training data symmetrically

$$\mathcal{A}((X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)) = \mathcal{A}((X_{\sigma(1)}, Y_{\sigma(1)}), \ldots, (X_{\sigma(n)}, Y_{\sigma(n)}))$$

 $\bullet\,$ Framework & results allow for a randomized ${\cal A}$

Stability has implications for:

- Generalization [Bousquet & Elisseeff 2002; Elisseeff et al 2005]
- Learnability [Shalev-Shwartz et al 2010]
- Predictive inference

[Steinberger & Leeb 2018; B., Candès, Ramdas, Tibshirani 2021]

Motivation for algorithmic stability — generalization

After training a model $\widehat{f} = \mathcal{A}((X_i, Y_i)_{i \in [n]})...$

- Want to estimate $L(\hat{f})$, where $L(f) = \mathbb{E}[\ell(f(X), Y)]$
- Leave-one-out estimate $L_{\text{LOO}}(\hat{f}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(\hat{f}^{\setminus i}(X_i), Y_i)$

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Stability leads to generalization: [Bousquet & Elisseeff 2002]

- If ℓ is bounded and ${\mathcal A}$ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left|\ell(\widehat{f}(X_{n+1}), Y_{n+1}) - \ell(\widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(X_{n+1}), Y_{n+1})\right|\right] \leq \epsilon$$

then

$$L(\widehat{f}) \leq L_{LOO}(\widehat{f}) + \mathcal{O}_P\left(n^{-1/2} + \epsilon^{1/2}\right).$$

Definition: distribution-free predictive set

A map from data $(X_i, Y_i)_{i \in [n]}$ to a prediction band \widehat{C}_n s.t.

$$\mathbb{P}_{(X_i,Y_i)_{\sim}^{\mathrm{iid}}P}\left\{Y_{n+1}\in\widehat{C}_n(X_{n+1})\right\}\geq 1-\alpha$$

for every distribution P.

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Methods:

- Conformal prediction high computational cost [Vovk et al 2005]
- Split conformal (i.e., holdout set) less precise b/c split data
- Jackknife a.k.a. leave-one-out cross-validation is it distrib.-free?

Motivation for algorithmic stability — predictive inference

Jackknife: fix any regression algorithm \mathcal{A} , then compute

$$\widehat{f} = \mathcal{A}\big((X_i, Y_i)_{i \in [n]}\big), \quad \widehat{f}^{\setminus i} = \mathcal{A}\big((X_j, Y_j)_{j \in [n] \setminus \{i\}}\big)$$

Prediction interval for Y_{n+1} given $X_{n+1} = x$:

$$\widehat{C}_n(x) = \widehat{f}(x) \pm Q_{1-\alpha}(R_i)$$

where $R_i = |Y_i - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(X_i)| = i$ th leave-one-out residual

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Is this method distribution-free?

- No assumption-free guarantees \widehat{f} & $\widehat{f}^{\setminus i}$ may behave differently
- If A is (ε, δ)-stable, guarantees w/o any assumptions on P
 [Steinberger & Leeb 2018; B., Candès, Ramdas, Tibshirani 2021]

At a high level...

We want methods that are valid with no untestable assumptions

- We can't test whether *P* satisfies distributional assumptions (e.g., parametric model / smoothness / etc)
- Some robust methods (e.g., jackknife) instead assume ${\cal A}$ is stable
- But, is this another untestable assumption?

Some algorithms are known to satisfy stability:

• Nearest neighbors:

$$\widehat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in k-\mathsf{NN}(x)} Y_i$$

Stable if we choose $k \ll n$

• Ridge regression:

$$\widehat{f} = \phi(x; \widehat{\beta}_n) \text{ where } \widehat{\beta}_n = \arg\min_{\beta} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(Y_i; \phi(X_i; \beta)) + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2 \right\}$$

Stable if f and ℓ are Lipschitz

Exhibit A: least squares – known to be unstable if $d \approx n$



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Aren't most algorithms stable?

Exhibit B: modern ML methods - too complex to prove stability



Figure from <u>A Survey of Deep-Learning Applications in Ultrasound: Artificial Intelligence-Powered Ultrasound for</u> Improving Clinical Workflow, Akkus et al 2019 Exhibit C: some methods have instability built in

- Lasso (glmnet R package): glmnet(x,y,..., lambda.min.ratio = ifelse(nobs < nvars,0.01,1e-04) ,...)
- Highly adaptive Lasso (hal9001 R package):
 SL.hal(Y,X,..., nfolds = ifelse(length(Y) <= 100,20,10) ,...)
- Multiple imputation (mice & midastouch R package): In an old version of the code: outout <- ifelse(nobs>250,FALSE,TRUE)
- . . .

The black box setting: we learn how \mathcal{A} works by running it on data, e.g.:

- $\bullet\,$ Run ${\mathcal A}$ on samples bootstrapped from available real data
- $\bullet\,$ Run ${\cal A}$ on semisynthetic data obtained by perturbing the real data
- Run ${\mathcal A}$ on simulated data obtained by fitting a model to real data
- Etc.

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But, we cannot "look inside the black box" of A or of a fitted \hat{f} :

- Cannot compute $\sup_{(x',y')} |[\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D})](x) [\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D} \cup (x',y'))](x)|$
- Cannot check if $\widehat{f} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D})$ is Lipschitz
- Etc.

We want to construct a test $\widehat{T} = \widehat{T}_{n,\epsilon,\delta}(\mathcal{A}, \overset{\checkmark}{\mathcal{D}}_{\ell}, \overset{\checkmark}{\mathcal{D}}_{u})$ that:

Returns 1 if we are confident that (A, P, n) is (ϵ, δ) -stable Returns 0 otherwise

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 $\begin{cases} \text{Returns 1 if we are confident that } (\mathcal{A}, P, n) \text{ is } (\epsilon, \delta) \text{-stable} \\ \text{Returns 0 otherwise} \end{cases}$

• We require $\widehat{\mathcal{T}}$ to be a valid distribution-free test of (ϵ, δ) -stability:

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mathcal{K}}\left\{\widehat{T}_{n,\epsilon,\delta}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}_{\ell}, \mathcal{D}_{u}) = 1\right\} \leq \alpha \text{ for any } (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n) \text{ that is } \underline{\text{not}} (\epsilon, \delta) \text{-stable}$$
with respect to data $\mathcal{D}_{\ell}, \mathcal{D}_{u}$ drawn i.i.d. from \mathcal{P}

• We want $\widehat{\mathcal{T}}$ to have high power for detecting stability:

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}_{n,\epsilon,\delta}(\mathcal{A},\mathcal{D}_{\ell},\mathcal{D}_{u})=1\right\}\overset{???}{\gg}\alpha \text{ for } (\epsilon,\delta)\text{-stable } (\mathcal{A},\mathcal{P},n)$$

Definition: black-box test

available labeled & unlabeled data

 $\widehat{T} = \widehat{T}(\mathcal{A}, \overset{\vee}{\mathcal{D}}_{\ell}, \overset{\vee}{\mathcal{D}}_{u})$ is a <u>black-box test</u> if it can be defined as follows:

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• At step r = 1, generate a new dataset (e.g., via subsampling/bootstrap/simulation)

$$(\mathcal{D}_{\ell}^{(1)},\mathcal{D}_{u}^{(1)})=f^{(1)}[\mathcal{D}_{\ell},\mathcal{D}_{u}],$$

and train and evaluate the model,

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• At step r = 2, generate a new dataset

$$(\mathcal{D}_{\ell}^{(2)},\mathcal{D}_{u}^{(2)})=f^{(2)}\big[\mathcal{D}_{\ell},\mathcal{D}_{u},\mathcal{D}_{\ell}^{(1)},\mathcal{D}_{u}^{(1)},\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(1)}\big],$$

and train and evaluate the model,

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• Repeat for *r* = 3, 4, ...

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$$\widehat{f}^{(2)} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D}_{\ell}^{(2)}), \quad \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(2)} = \widehat{f}^{(2)}(\mathcal{D}_{u}^{(2)}).$$

- Repeat for *r* = 3, 4, . . .
- Finally, define $\widehat{T} = g\left[\mathcal{D}_{\ell}, \mathcal{D}_{u}, (\mathcal{D}_{\ell}^{(r)})_{r \geq 1}, (\mathcal{D}_{u}^{(r)})_{r \geq 1}, (\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}^{(r)})_{r \geq 1}\right].$ 16/40

Binomial test

Let
$$\kappa = \min\left\{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n}, \frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}| + |\mathcal{D}_{u}|}{n+1}\right\}$$

 \rightsquigarrow can construct $\lfloor \kappa \rfloor$ many data sets $(X_{1}^{k}, Y_{1}^{k}), \dots, (X_{n}^{k}, Y_{n}^{k}), X_{n+1}^{k}$

A simple binomial test

Binomial test

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A simple binomial test

• For each data set $k=1,\ldots,\lfloor\kappa
floor$, fit models

$$\widehat{f}_k = \mathcal{A}\big((X_i^k, Y_i^k)_{i \in [n]}\big), \quad \widehat{f}_k^{\setminus n} = \mathcal{A}\big((X_i^k, Y_i^k)_{i \in [n-1]}\big)$$

& compare predictions:

$$\Delta_k = \left| \ \widehat{f_k}(X_{n+1}^k) - \widehat{f_k}^{\setminus n}(X_{n+1}^k) \ \right|$$

• Compare against Binom($\lfloor \kappa \rfloor$, δ) at level α :

$$\widehat{\mathcal{T}} = \mathbf{1} \Big\{ \sum_{k} \mathbf{1}_{\Delta_k > \epsilon} \le the lpha-quantile of \mathsf{Binom}(\lfloor \kappa
floor, \delta) \Big\}$$

Theorem: validity of the simple binomial test

If $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n)$ is not (ϵ, δ) -stable, then

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\}\leq\alpha.$$

Theorem: power of the simple binomial test

If $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n)$ is (ϵ, δ) -stable, & either $\delta_{\epsilon}^* = 0$ or $\delta \leq 1 - \alpha^{1/\lfloor \kappa \rfloor}$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} = \left\{\alpha \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\lfloor \kappa \rfloor}\right\} \wedge 1$$

 $\delta_{\epsilon}^* = \min\{\delta : (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n) \text{ is } (\epsilon, \delta) \text{-stable}\}$

- The binomial test has validity, but power is low
- Unsurprising b/c it doesn't make efficient use of the data can we improve power by extracting more info from the data?

Recall
$$\kappa = \min\left\{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n}, \frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}| + |\mathcal{D}_{u}|}{n+1}\right\}$$

Theorem: upper bound on power

Let \widehat{T} be any black-box test of stability that is valid at level $\leq \alpha$. If $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n)$ is (ϵ, δ) -stable,

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} \leq \left\{\alpha \cdot \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\kappa}\right\} \wedge 1.$$

Interpretation:

- Every valid black-box test has low power: if $\kappa = O(1)$ and $\delta = o(1)$ then power $\approx \alpha$
- Can't improve on the power of the simple binomial test
- No information can be gained from additional calls to A or from resampling/bootstrapping/simulating/modeling/etc

Suppose $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, n)$ is (ϵ, δ) -stable.

Proof idea: construct $(\mathcal{A}', \mathcal{P}', n)$ that is not stable, such that:

- $P \approx P'$ so that $d_{TV}(\text{data from } P, \text{data from } P')$ is small
- And, if data \sim P, then ${\cal A}$ and ${\cal A}'$ return the same output

• So,
$$\mathbb{P}_{(\mathcal{A}, P, n)}\left\{\widehat{T} = 1\right\} \approx \mathbb{P}_{(\mathcal{A}', P', n)}\left\{\widehat{T} = 1\right\} \leq \alpha$$

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} \leq \alpha \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n}}$$

| $\int (X, Y)$ | with probability $1-c$ |
|----------------|------------------------------|
| $\Big(X, y_*)$ | with probability c, |
| | for a small constant $c > 0$ |

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Algorithm \mathcal{A}' : Given data $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)$ & test point x_{m+1} ,

- If m = n and $y_i = y_*$ for any *i*, return a corrupted prediction
- Otherwise, return $[\mathcal{A}((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m))](x_{m+1})$

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} \leq \alpha \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n}}$$

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$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} \leq \alpha \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n}} \text{ and } \mathbb{P}\left\{\widehat{T}=1\right\} \leq \alpha \left(\frac{1-\delta_{\epsilon}^{*}}{1-\delta}\right)^{\frac{|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|+|\mathcal{D}_{\ell}|}{n+1}}$$

 $\begin{cases} (X, Y) & \text{with probability } 1 - c \\ (\chi, \chi) & (x_*, Y) & \text{with probability } c, \\ & \text{for a small constant } c > 0 \end{cases}$ Algorithm \mathcal{A}' : Given data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)$ & test point x_{m+1} , $x_i = x_*$ • If m = n and $y'_1/\#/y'_*$ for any i, return a corrupted prediction

• Otherwise, return $[\mathcal{A}((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m))](x_{m+1})$

Our results:

- The simple binomial test uses the data very inefficiently, but can still be the most powerful distribution-free test of stability
- More sophisticated strategies (simulating/bootstrapping/etc) do not help to determine stability

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Open questions:

- Are there mild assumptions on \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P} that make stability testable?
- Are we using a definition of stability that's too strong?
- Is there a way to convert any algorithm into a stable algorithm, with a pre- or post-processing step?

Part 2: Stability of bagged algorithms

Question inspired by Part 1

• Is there a way to convert any algorithm into a stable algorithm?

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• Is there a way to convert any algorithm into a stable algorithm?

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Bagging

- Sample subsets $S_b \subseteq [n]$ for $b = 1, \ldots, B$
- Fit models $\widehat{f}_b = \mathcal{A}((X_i, Y_i) : i \in S_b)$
- \mathcal{A}_{bag} returns aggregated model \widehat{f} :

$$\widehat{f}(x) := \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b} \widehat{f}_{b}(x)$$

The most common options:

• Classical bagging = subsets S_b of size m, sampled w/ replacement

$$p = \mathbb{P}\left\{i \in S_b\right\} = 1 - (1 - 1/n)^m$$

• Subbagging = subsets S_b of size m < n, sampled w/o replacement

$$p = \mathbb{P}\left\{i \in S_b\right\} = m/n$$

Bagging appears in:

- Random forests [Breiman 2001]
- Variable selection in regression [Meinshausen & Bühlmann 2010]
- Classification in the presence of class imbalance [Li 2007]
- Robust Bayesian inference (BayesBag) [Huggins & Miller 2023]
- & many more

Many results on theoretical properties— Bagging induces smoothness, reduces variance, creates robustness [Bühlmann&Yu 2002, Grandvalet 2004, Friedman&Hall 2000, Elisseeff et al 2005, ...]

Some results show stability of bagging in limited regimes ($m \ll {\it n})$

[Poggio et al 2002, Chen et al 2022]

Bagging helps stability



Re-defining stability

Definition from Part 1

 \mathcal{A} is (ϵ, δ) -stable if

$$\mathbb{P}_{P}\left\{ \left| \widehat{f}(x) - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x) \right| > \epsilon \right\} \leq \delta$$

when trained on $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} P$, and tested on $x \sim P_X$

Re-defining stability

Definition from Part 1

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Updated definition (strictly stronger)

 \mathcal{A} is (ϵ, δ) -stable if

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbb{1}\{\left|\widehat{f}(x)-\widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)\right|>\epsilon\}\leq\delta$$

when trained on any $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$, and tested on any x

Main result: stability guarantee

Recall
$$p = \mathbb{P}\left\{i \in S_b\right\} = \begin{cases} m/n & \text{for subbagging} \\ 1 - (1 - 1/n)^m & \text{for classical bagging} \end{cases}$$

Theorem

Let \mathcal{A} be any base algorithm that returns predictions in [0, 1]. For any n, m, as $B \to \infty$, \mathcal{A}_{bag} satisfies (ϵ, δ) -stability for every

$$\delta\epsilon^2 \geq \frac{1}{4(n-1)} \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}$$

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$$\delta\epsilon^2 \geq \frac{1}{4(n-1)} \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}$$

- Framework & results allow for a randomized ${\cal A}$
- Results extend to finite *B* (use Hoeffding's inequality)
- Can also extend to models with unbounded output, via either clipping predictions, or letting ϵ adapt to the range of \widehat{f}

Regimes for subbagging:

- Proportional sampling: m = O(n)Stability is guaranteed for $\delta \epsilon^2 \gtrsim n^{-1}$
- Massive subsampling: $m = O(n^{\beta})$ for $0 < \beta < 1$ Stability is guaranteed for $\delta \epsilon^2 \gtrsim n^{-(2-\beta)}$

[See also existing stability guarantees by Chen, Syrgkanis, Austern 2022]

• Minimal subsampling: $m = n - O(n^{\beta})$ for $0 < \beta < 1$ Stability is guaranteed for $\delta \epsilon^2 \gtrsim n^{-\beta}$

Proof sketch

Suppose $S \subset [n]$ contains δn "bad" data points:

 $|\widehat{f}(x) - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)| \ge \epsilon$

where $\hat{f} = \mathcal{A}_{bag}(\mathcal{D})$ averages over all bags S_b , while $\hat{f}^{\setminus i} = \mathcal{A}_{bag}(\mathcal{D}_{-i})$ averages over all bags $S_b \not\ni i$.

Proof sketch

Suppose $S \subset [n]$ contains δn "bad" data points:

 $|\widehat{f}(x) - \widehat{f}^{i}(x)| \ge \epsilon$

where $\hat{f} = \mathcal{A}_{bag}(\mathcal{D})$ averages over all bags S_b , while $\hat{f}^{\setminus i} = \mathcal{A}_{bag}(\mathcal{D}_{-i})$ averages over all bags $S_b \not\ni i$.

Proof idea: a double counting argument for $L = \sum_{i \in S} |\hat{f}(x) - \hat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)|$

- Summing over *i*, we see $L \ge \epsilon \cdot |S| = \delta \epsilon n$
- We can also rewrite L by summing over bags b, because

$$\widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[\widehat{f}_b(x) \mid i \notin S_b\right] = \frac{1}{1-p} \mathbb{E}\left[\widehat{f}_b(x)\mathbb{1}_{i \in S_b}\right]$$

where expectation is taken over a randomly drawn bag S_b .

Neural networks



Regression trees



Logistic regression + ridge penalty with $\lambda=0.001$



Is the guarantee tight?

Theorem: a matching bound for subbagging

There exists a base algorithm \mathcal{A} that returns predictions in [0, 1], such that as $B \to \infty$, \mathcal{A}_{bag} is not (ϵ, δ) -stable for any

$$\delta\epsilon^2 < \frac{1}{c(n-1)} \cdot \frac{p}{1-p}$$

for a constant c, as long as $1/n \ll \delta \leq 1/2$ and $\min\{p,1-p\} \gg 1/n.$

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Illustration for n = 500, m = 250:

Proof sketch: a "voting" algorithm

- Let $X_i = 1$ for δn many $i \in [n]$, otherwise $X_i = 0$
- Want to construct \mathcal{A} so that $|\widehat{f}(x) \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)| \ge \epsilon$ for all i with $X_i = 1$

Proof sketch: a "voting" algorithm

- Let $X_i = 1$ for δn many $i \in [n]$, otherwise $X_i = 0$
- Want to construct \mathcal{A} so that $|\widehat{f}(x) \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)| \ge \epsilon$ for all i with $X_i = 1$
- Let $\widehat{f}_b(x) = \mathbb{1}_{\sum_{i \in b} X_i \ge t}$ for some $t \approx p\delta$
 - If $X_i = 1$, then $i \in S_b \Rightarrow \widehat{f}_b(x)$ is a bit more likely to be 1
 - If $X_i = 0$, then $i \in S_b \Rightarrow \widehat{f}_b(x)$ is a bit more likely to be 0
 - Exact probabilities calculated via the HyperGeometric distrib

Compare to a more strict definition of stability:

Worst-case stability

 ${\mathcal A}$ is ϵ -worst-case-stable if

$$\max_{i} \left| \widehat{f}(x) - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x) \right| \leq \epsilon \quad \leftarrow \text{ rather than } \sum_{i} \mathbb{1}_{|\widehat{f}(x) - \widehat{f}^{\setminus i}(x)| > \epsilon} \leq \delta n$$

when trained on any data set $\mathcal{D},$ and tested on any \boldsymbol{x}

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Results (with $B \to \infty$):

- For any A, A_{bag} is *p*-worst-case-stable
- For any $\epsilon < p$, there exists an A s.t. A_{bag} is not ϵ -worst-case-stable

Our results:

- Classical bagging & subbagging can be applied to <u>any</u> algorithm *A* to achieve an assumption-free stability guarantee
- Downstream, this verifies generalization, predictive inference, etc properties for bagged algorithms

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Open questions:

- How does bagging perform relative to other definitions of stability?
- Guarantees for aggregation procedures aside from averaging?
- Guarantees for structured prediction problems ($\mathcal{Y} \not\subseteq \mathbb{R}$)?