Weak to Strong Learning from Aggregate Labels

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Abstract

In learning from aggregate labels, the training data consists of sets or "bags" of feature-vectors (instances) along with an aggregate label for each bag derived from the (usually $\{0, 1\}$ -valued) labels of its constituent instances. In the *learning from label proportions* (LLP) setting, the aggregate label of a bag is the average of the instance labels, whereas in *multiple instance learning* (MIL) it is the OR. The goal is to train an instance-level predictor, which is typically achieved by fitting a model on the training data, in particular one that maximizes the accuracy which is the fraction of *satisfied* bags i.e., those on which the model's induced labels are consistent with the target aggregate label. A weak learner in this context is one which has at a constant accuracy < 1 on the training bags, while a strong learner's accuracy can be arbitrarily close to 1. We study the problem of using a weak learner on such training bags with aggregate labels to obtain a strong learner, analogous to supervised learning for which boosting algorithms are known. Our first result shows the impossibility of boosting in the LLP setting using weak classifiers of any accuracy < 1 by constructing a collection of bags for which such weak learners (for any weight assignment) exist, while not admitting any strong learner. A variant of this construction also rules out boosting in MIL for a non-trivial range of weak learner accuracy.

In the LLP setting however, we show that a weak learner (with small accuracy) on large enough bags can in fact be used to obtain a strong learner for small bags, in polynomial time. We also provide more efficient, sampling based variant of our procedure with probabilistic guarantees which are empirically validated on three real and two synthetic datasets. Our work is the first to theoretically study weak to strong learning from aggregate labels, with an algorithm to achieve the same for LLP, while proving the impossibility of boosting for both LLP and MIL.

1. Introduction

In traditional, fully supervised learning, the training data consists of a collection of labeled feature-vectors (i.e., training examples) $\{(\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{X}, y_i = y(\mathbf{x}_i))\}_{i=1}^n$, for some domain \mathcal{X} where the mapping y provides the feature-vector labels. In this paper we will consider the binary setting i.e., the labels are $\{0, 1\}$ -valued. The usual training goal is to find a good classifier $f : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$ which maximizes the training accuracy $|\{i : f(\mathbf{x}_i) = y_i\}|/n$. In recent times however, due to privacy [40] or feasibility [7] constraints, in many applications the training label for each training example is not available. Instead, the training data consists of sets or *bags* of feature-vectors along with only the *average* or equivalently *sum* of the labels for each bag since bag size is known. This is called *learning from label proportions* (LLP) in which the training goal is to fit a good classifier $f : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$ where $B_j \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ and $\overline{y}_j = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in B_j} y(\mathbf{x})$. The training goal is to fit a good classifier $f : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$ on this bag-level training data. A related problem is *multiple instance learning* (MIL) in which the

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label for each bag is the OR of the boolean labels of its constituent feature vectors, while the goal of fitting a good feature-vector classifier remains the same. A natural metric for the goodness of fit in the LLP setting is to maximize the bag-level accuracy i.e., the fraction of *satisfied* training bags, where a bag (B, \overline{y}) is satisfied if $\overline{y} = (\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in B} f(\mathbf{x}))$. An analogous notion of accuracy for MIL is if $\overline{y} = (\bigvee_{\mathbf{x} \in B} f(\mathbf{x}))$. Recent works [42, 43] have studied the computational learning aspect of LLP and MIL, and in particular showed that the problem of finding classifiers (even in the realizable case) of high bag-level accuracy can be NP-hard.

In supervised classification, *boosting* (see [19, 46]) is a well known meta-technique which, given a training dataset uses an ensemble (typically a majority) of *weak* classifiers (on reweighed data) to output a hypothesis which has accuracy arbitrarily close to 1 i.e., a *strong* classifier. In the $\{0, 1\}$ -labels case a weak classifier has accuracy at least $(1/2 + \varepsilon)$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$, while that for a strong classifier is $(1 - \nu)$ where ν can be made arbitrarily small. Note that the threshold of 1/2 for weak classification is the expected accuracy of random prediction on the training set.

To address the algorithmic learning problems in LLP and MIL, one could hope to apply boosting techniques to LLP and MIL settings as well. Here, we can define a weak classifier having some constant accuracy on the bags, while the notion of a strong classifier remains the same: that with an arbitrarily high accuracy. A natural question to ask is: *is there a way to do boosting using weak-classifiers to obtain a strong classifier in learning from aggregate labels?*

In this work we show that the above is *impossible* even on 2-sized bags for (i) LLP using weak classifiers of any accuracy < 1, and (ii) for MIL using weak classifiers of any accuracy < 2/3. Specifically, we construct a collection of bags such that any reweighing of the bags admits a weak classifier of the desired accuracy while the original collection does not admit *any* strong classifier i.e., any labeling to the underlying feature vectors satisfies at most some constant < 1 fraction of the bags. We note that on bags of size 2, for both LLP and MIL the worst-case accuracy obtained by using the random or any constant-valued classifier (all 0s or all 1s), is 1/2. So, even for MIL we rule out boosting using weak classifiers with non-trivial accuracy in [1/2, 2/3). Our impossibility of boosting stands in contrast to previous work (e.g. [2, 35]) which empirically evaluate boosting heuristics for LLP and MIL – our results are the first to show that such algorithms cannot provably yield a strong classifier. While these impossibility results are applicable to the boosting framework, one can ask: *is there some other way to derive a strong classifier from weak classifiers*?

Our next result answers this question in the affirmative for LLP: a weak classifier (of any constant accuracy $\gamma > 0$) on large bags can be used to derive a strong classifier on a training set of (smaller) bags. These large bags are each a union of t training bags, where t depends only on γ and the desired accuracy of the strong classifier. While on m training bags, the number of ($\approx m^t$) unions are polynomial-time for constant t, we also provide a significantly more efficient sampling version of this approach which provides the same guarantees with high probability. These are to the best of our knowledge the first methods obtaining strong classifiers from weak classifiers for LLP. For MIL on the other hand the question of such weak to strong learning remains open.

As detailed discussion on previous related work is included in Appendix D.

Problem Definition. Let $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ for some $d \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ be the space of feature-vectors, while a *bag* B is a finite subset of \mathcal{X} . Let $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be the space of feature-vector labels, and $\overline{\mathcal{Y}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be the space of bag-level aggregate labels with some aggregation function Agg mapping finite \mathcal{Y} -valued tuples to $\overline{\mathcal{Y}}$. We say that a bag $B = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_q)$ with aggregate label σ is *satisfied* by a classifier $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ if $Agg(f(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}_q)) = \sigma$. For convenience we use bag to refer to a bag and its aggregate-label.

An *m*-sized training set \mathcal{B} is a collection $\{(B_j, \sigma_j) \in 2^{\mathcal{X}} \times \overline{\mathcal{Y}}\}_{j=1}^m$ of *m* bags and their aggregatelabels along with weights $w_j \ge 0$ for bag B_j (j = 1, ..., m) such that $\sum_{j=1}^m w_j = 1$. The accuracy of a classifier on \mathcal{B} is the weighted fraction of bags satisfied by it. We define a weak classifier to be one with constant accuracy $\gamma > 0$, and a ν -strong classifier to have an accuracy $(1 - \nu)$. For ease of exposition we call the latter a strong classifier when ν can be taken to be an arbitrarily small positive constant.

For this study, the underlying feature-vector level task is binary classification, so $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. For multiple instance learning (MIL) the aggregation function is OR i.e., the boolean disjunction and therefore $\overline{\mathcal{Y}} = \{0, 1\}$. On the other hand, in learning from label proportions (LLP) we take the aggregation function to be SUM i.e., the real sum of labels, and therefore $\overline{\mathcal{Y}} = \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$. Note that for LLP we could have equivalently taken average as the aggregation (since the size of any bag is known), however for convenience we use SUM.

We also define the $\text{Trv}_{\text{LLP}}(\mathcal{B})$ for a collection of LLP bags, to denote the trivial accuracy threshold on \mathcal{B} . Specifically, it is the minimum weighted accuracy given by the best among the random classifier and the two constant valued classifiers (all 0s and all 1s classifiers), over all possible weight assignments to the bags \mathcal{B} . For a collection of MIL bags \mathcal{B} , $\text{Trv}_{\text{MIL}}(\mathcal{B})$ is defined analogously.

We shall also use the *halfspace* classifier whose value at point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is given by $pos(\langle \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + c)$ for some $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$ where pos(a) = 1 if a > 0 and 0 otherwise. We say that the halfspace passes through the origin i.e., is *homogeneous* if c = 0.

Given a collection of bags and aggregate labels, a prototypical boosting algorithm (given in Figure 1) in the aggregate label setting, involves repeating certain steps over some number of rounds: in each round the training data is reweighed, for which a weak classifier is computed. The final output is some function over the ensemble of computed weak classifiers.

Input: $\mathcal{B} = (B_i, \bar{y_i})_{i=1}^m$: Collection of bags and aggregate labels, $D_1(i) = 1/m$: initial weight distribution associated with each bag, T: Number of steps of boosting. **1.** for $t \in [T]$: **1.1** Train a weak classifier $h_t : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$ for the bag distribution D_t .

1.2 Using $\{h_r\}_{r=1}^t$, compute a new distribution D_{t+1} over \mathcal{B} .

2. For some g, output $h^* = g(h_1, \ldots, h_T)$ as a (presumably) strong classifier for \mathcal{B} .

Figure 1: Boosting for aggregate label setting

Our Results. The following theorem, coupled with the definition of the boosting meta algorithm (Section C.1) implies our result on the impossibility of boosting in LLP.

Theorem 1 (Impossibility of boosting in LLP) Let $\alpha \in [1/2, 1)$ be any constant. Then, for any arbitrarily small constant $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $d, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and a collection of bags $\mathcal{B} = \{B_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d\}_{j=1}^m$ where $|B_j| = 2$ and the aggregate label (i.e. sum of labels in LLP setting) of B_j is 1 (j = 1, ..., m) and the following properties are satisfied:

(Existence of weak halfspace classifiers): For any assignment of weights w_j to B_j (j = 1, ..., m) such that $\sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j = 1$, for the weighted collection of bags there is a halfspace classifier with accuracy α .

(No Strong Classifier): For the unweighted set of bags $\{B_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d\}_{j=1}^m$ there is no classifier $f : \bigcup_{i=1}^m B_j \to \{0,1\}$ having accuracy greater than $\alpha + \varepsilon$.

Theorem 1, proved in Section 2 using the Max-Cut construction of [16], is optimal from multiple perspectives. Firstly, the bags are of size at most 2 whereas when bags are all of size 1 (i.e., supervised learning) boosting is indeed possible, showing that as soon as we transition from the fully supervised to the LLP setting in terms of bag size, boosting becomes impossible. Secondly, the result shows that even if weak learners of *any* constant accuracy in [1/2, 1) exist, there is no classifier with even a slightly greater accuracy, thus ruling out any non-trivial advantage of boosting, let alone obtaining a strong classifier. In Appendix E we give a simple argument showing that $\text{Trv}_{\text{LLP}}(\mathcal{B}) = 1/2$ for the bags \mathcal{B} constructed in the above theorem. We state our result on the impossibility of boosting in the MIL setting in Appendix A.

Next we state our results (proved in Section 3) in the LLP setting for obtaining a strong classifier on a collection of bags using a weak classifier on a derived collection of larger bags. In this case we consider unweighted collection of bags, since a weighted collection of m bags can easily be converted into an unweighted collection of Tm bags while preserving the accuracy of any classifier up to an additive error of O(1/T) (see Appendix G). To state our result we assume that there is an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{q,\alpha}(\overline{\mathcal{B}})$ which given weighted collection of bags $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$ along with their aggregate labels, where each bag has size at most q, outputs a classifier f with weighted accuracy α on $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$.

Theorem 2 (Weak to Strong LLP Learning) For parameters $\alpha, \varepsilon > 0$ there exists $t = O(1/(\varepsilon \alpha^2))$, and algorithms A_1 and A_2 s.t. given an unweighted collection of m bags \mathcal{B} , where $k = \max_{(B,\sigma)\in\mathcal{B}} |B|$ and $n := |\cup_{(B,\sigma)\in\mathcal{B}} B|$, and assuming that $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}$ exists,

- \mathcal{A}_1 creates a weighted collection $\overline{\mathcal{B}}_1$ of at most m^{t+1} bags each of size at most kt such that $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}(\overline{\mathcal{B}}_1)$ outputs a classifier which has accuracy (1ε) on \mathcal{B} .
- for any $\delta > 0$, \mathcal{A}_2 creates a random collection $\overline{\mathcal{B}}_2$ of $s = O\left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\left(n + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)\right)$ each of size at most kt such that $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}(\overline{\mathcal{B}}_2)$ has accuracy (1ε) on \mathcal{B} with probability at least (1δ) . If $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}$ is guaranteed to output a classifier of VC dimension r then $s = O\left(\frac{r}{\alpha}\log\left(\frac{n}{r}\right) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)$ suffices.

Theorem 2 presents algorithms that, when applied to collections of bags in the LLP setting, yields high-accuracy classifiers by employing weak classifiers trained on a reasonably sized collections of large bags. This can in particular be achieved by an efficient randomized algorithm A_2 . We also conduct experiments (see Section K) – on both real and synthetic datasets – to demonstrate the effectiveness of A_2 . We use it to construct a limited collection of large bags from a given collection of small bags and experimentally show that a weak classifier on the large bags yields one with significantly higher accuracy on the constituent small bags. For all our results, we provide an informal overview of our techniques in Appendix B to aid the readers' understanding.

2. Impossibility of Boosting in LLP

The Max-Cut problem is: given an undirected graph G(V, E) find a cut given by the assignment $g: V \to \{0, 1\}$ which separates the maximum number of edges in E i.e., maximizes $|\{e = \{u, v\} \in E | g(u) \neq g(v)\}|$. We shall use the following construction of graph $G_{FS}(V_{FS}, E_{FS})$ given in Sec. 3.1 of [16]: Let $\alpha \pi = \theta \in [\pi/2, \pi)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ be an arbitrarily small parameter such that $\theta + \varepsilon \pi < \pi$. Let $d = O(1/\varepsilon \log(1/\varepsilon))$ and $\gamma = \varepsilon^2/(2d)$. Divide the (d-1)-dimensional unit sphere \mathbb{S}^{d-1} into $\left(\frac{O(1)}{\gamma}\right)^d$ equal sized cells of diameter at most γ each (this is shown to be possible in Lemma 21 of [16]). From each cell pick an arbitrary point \mathbf{v} and add it to V_{FS} . Add an edge $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\}$ to E_{FS} for each pair of points $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V_{FS}$ whose angle is between θ and $\theta + \varepsilon$. Section 3.1 of

[16] shows[†] for any $g: V_{\text{FS}} \to \{0, 1\}$ that

$$\Pr_{\{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}\}\in E_{\mathrm{FS}}}[g(\mathbf{u})\neq g(\mathbf{v})]\leq \theta/\pi+O(\varepsilon^2)=\alpha+O(\varepsilon^2).$$
(1)

Proof of Theorem 1: Let $G_{FS}(V_{FS}, E_{FS})$ be the graph constructed above using $\theta = \alpha \pi \in [\pi/2, \pi)$ and let ε taken to be the same as that in the statement of Theorem 1. Taking V_{FS} to be the underlying set feature-vectors, let the set of bags \mathcal{B} be E_{FS} i.e., each edge $\{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{v}\}$ is a bag. All aggregate labels are 1, so that any bag is satisfied by $g: V_{FS} \to \{0, 1\}$ iff the corresponding edge is separated by g. Now, for any bag $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\}$ in \mathcal{B} , from the construction of $G_{FS}(V_{FS}, E_{FS})$, the angle between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is at least θ . Thus, a random homogeneous halfspace (given by pos $(\mathbf{r}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x})$ for \mathbf{r} chosen uniformly at random from \mathbb{S}^{d-1}) satisfies the bag with probability at least $\theta/\pi = \alpha$.

Thus for any assignment of weights w_B for bags $B \in \mathcal{B}$, the expected weight of bags satisfied by a random homogeneous halfspace is $\sum_B w_B \Pr_{\mathbf{r} \leftarrow \mathbb{S}^{d-1}} [B \text{ is satisfied by pos } (\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{x})] = \alpha \sum_B w_B$ by linearity of expectation. Therefore, there is one classifier with weighted accuracy α . The upper bound on the accuracy of *any* classifier on \mathcal{B} follows directly from (1) and small enough $\varepsilon > 0$.

3. Weak to Strong Classification in LLP

Given $\alpha, \varepsilon > 0$ we set t to be $\frac{32}{\varepsilon} \left(\frac{C_0}{\alpha}\right)^2$ where $C_0 > 0$ is an absolute constant to be decided. We begin by defining in Fig. 2 a distribution \overline{D} over bags $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})$ where \overline{B} is the union of at most t bags from \mathcal{B} and $\overline{\sigma}$ is the sum of their aggregate labels.

Input: : Bags \mathcal{B} , t. Steps:

- 1. Independently for i = 1, ..., t, let $\mathcal{P}_i = (B_i, \sigma_i)$ where (B_i, σ_i) is sampled u.a.r. from \mathcal{B} .
- 2. Independently for i = 1, ..., t: set $Q_i = P_i$ w.p. 1/2 and set $Q_i = \star$ w.p. 1/2.
- 3. Output $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})$ where $\overline{B} = \bigcup_{\{i \mid Q_i = (B_i, \sigma_i) \neq \star\}} B_i$, and $\overline{\sigma} = \sum_{\{i \mid Q_i = (B_i, \sigma_i) \neq \star\}} \sigma_i$

Figure 2: Distribution \overline{D} .

To aid our subsequent analysis we shall use the following two lemmas proved in Appendix I.

Lemma 3 If $S \subseteq B$ and $\kappa \in [0, 1]$ s.t. $|S| \ge \kappa |B|$, in Fig. 2, $\Pr[|\{i \mid (B_i, \sigma_i) \in S\}| < \kappa t/2] \le \exp(-\kappa t/8)$.

Lemma 4 Let
$$h : \mathcal{X} \to \{0, 1\}$$
 be a classifier such that h has accuracy $< (1 - \zeta)$ on \mathcal{B} . Then,

$$\Pr_{(\overline{B},\overline{\sigma})\leftarrow\overline{D}}\left[\sum_{\mathbf{x}in\overline{B}}h(\mathbf{x})=\overline{\sigma}\right] \leq C_0/\sqrt{\zeta t} + \exp(-\zeta t/8), \text{ for some absolute constant } C_0 > 0.$$

Figure 3 describes the deterministic algorithm A_1 using[†] the distribution \overline{D} defined in Figure 2. Suppose for a contradiction that the output h^* of A_1 has accuracy $< (1 - \varepsilon)$ on \mathcal{B} . Then, from

^{†.} While [16] state the proof of (1) for a specific value of θ , the proof applies to all values of $\theta \in [\pi/2, \pi)$.

[†]. We include in Appendix H an explanation on computing the probabilities under \overline{D} .

Input: : Bags \mathcal{B} , $k = \max_{(B,\sigma) \in \mathcal{B}} |B|$, $\alpha > 0$, t, oracle $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}$. Steps:

- 1. Let supp (\overline{D}) be the support of \overline{D} (Fig. 2), and for each $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma}) \in \text{supp}(\overline{D})$ let its weight $w_{(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})}$ be its probability under \overline{D} . Let \overline{B} be supp (\overline{D}) with weights $w_{(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})}$.
- 2. Output the classifier h^* given by $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}(\overline{\mathcal{B}})$.

Figure 3: Algorithm A_1 .

Lemma 4 we obtain that the probability that $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})$ sampled from \mathcal{D} is satisfied by h^* is at most $C_0/\sqrt{\varepsilon t} + \exp(-\varepsilon t/8)$ which – upon plugging in the value of t – is at most $\alpha/2$ which contradicts the accuracy of h^* on $\overline{\mathcal{B}}$. We defer the description and analysis of the algorithm \mathcal{A}_2 to Appendix J.

4. Overview of Experiments

In our experiments, we generate collections of small q-sized bags as training data using fully supervised real and synthetic datasets. We use a fixed value of $q \in \{5, 15\}$. For real datasets, we use the tabular UCI binary classification datasets: Australian [37], Adult [3] and Heart [23]. We randomly partition the datasets into bags of size q. We also generate two types of synthetic datasets:

- 1. *Random*: In this case each *q*-sized bag is created by randomly sampling points uniformly from the unit sphere as its constituent feature vectors.
- 2. *Hard Bags*: For these bags we first randomly construct pairs of points on the unit-sphere which are either (i) very close but have different labels under f^* , or (ii) nearly antipodal but have the same label. Each bag consists of several such randomly constructed pairs and one random point (since q is odd).

For each collection of training bags, and an appropriate choice of t and s (Figure 5) we form a collection of s large bags by sampling each iid from the distribution \overline{D} given in Figure 2. Further details about the datasets and bag creation are in Appendix K. We validate our proposed algorithm using a simple model training setup, by training a linear model g(x) until convergence on the large bags, with sigmoid activation using MSE loss between the bag label and aggregate prediction.

Results. In all experiments (Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix K), even with low accuracy on large bags we obtain classifiers with high accuracy on the constituent small bags and even higher accuracy on the instance-level test set. For example, on synthetic random bags with q = 5, t = 50 and s = 5000, an accuracy of just 21.3% on large bags yields an accuracy of 85.5% on small bags and 96.4% on the test set. On the Adult dataset, with q = 15, t = 50 and s = 80000, with accuracy of just 0.044% on large bags, we obtain a classifier with accuracy of 21.5% on small bags and 82.2% on the test set.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, our study is the first to demonstrate the impossibility of boosting weak classifiers to a strong classifier in the LLP and MIL settings. For LLP our work rules out boosting using weak classifiers of any accuracy < 1, while for MIL the possibility of boosting weak classifiers with accuracy < 2/3 is eliminated. Complementing these findings in the LLP context, we propose an algorithm that converts a weak classifier for large bags into a strong classifier for an input collection of small bags.

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Appendix A. Impossibility of Boosting in MIL

Theorem 5 (Impossibility of boosting in MIL) For any arbitrarily small constant $\varepsilon > 0$ there exist $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and a collection of bags $\mathcal{B} = \{B_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d\}_{j=1}^m$ along with the aggregate labels σ_j for B_j where $|B_j| = 2$ (j = 1, ..., m) and the following properties are satisfied:

(Existence of weak halfspace classifiers): For any assignment of weights w_j to B_j (j = 1, ..., m) such that $\sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j = 1$, for the weighted collection of bags there is a halfspace classifier with accuracy $2/3 - \varepsilon$.

(No Strong Classifier): For the unweighted set of bags $\{B_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d\}_{j=1}^m$ there is no classifier $f : \bigcup_{i=1}^m B_j \to \{0,1\}$ having accuracy greater than 3/4.

The above theorem shows that in the MIL setting, weak classifiers with any accuracy < 2/3 cannot be boosted to a strong classifier with accuracy > 3/4. As shown in Appendix E, $\text{Trv}_{\text{MIL}}(\mathcal{B}) = 1/2$ for the bags \mathcal{B} of the above theorem, and therefore our result applies to any non-trivial weak classifier accuracy in (1/2, 2/3). The proof of Theorem 5 is deferred to Appendix F.

Appendix B. Overview of Techniques

Impossibility of Boosting in LLP (Theorem 1). Our construction follows from the well-known *semi-definite programming* (SDP) integrality gap of Feige and Schechtman [16] for the Max-Cut problem. In this, for some arbitrarily small $\varepsilon > 0$, with d depending on ε , the vertices of the graph are given by points on the (d - 1)-dimensional unit sphere \mathbb{S}^{d-1} . For any constant $\alpha \in [1/2, 1)$, each edge is between points that are at an angle of at least $\alpha \pi$. Using techniques related to spherical isoperimetry and concentration of measure in high dimensions, the authors prove that there is no cut in the graph separating more than $(\alpha + \varepsilon)$ -fraction of the edges. By creating a 2-sized bag corresponding to each edge with latter's two end-points being the bag's two feature-vectors, we create a collection of bags, and for each one we assign an aggregate label 1 i.e., any bag is satisfied if exactly one of its feature-vectors is labeled 1 or equivalently the corresponding edge is separated. The cut upper bound of $(\alpha + \varepsilon)$ thus directly gives us the upper bound on the best possible accuracy of any classifier. On the other hand, since the angle between the feature-vectors of any edge is at least $\alpha \pi$, a random halfspace passing through the origin – given by pos $(\mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{x})$ for a random unit vector \mathbf{r} – has expected accuracy α .

Impossibility of Boosting in MIL (Theorem 5). Since the aggregation function is OR the Max-Cut construction of [16] is not applicable. Instead we hand-craft the set of bags as follows. The set of feature-vectors is all points on the unit circle \mathbb{S}^1 and for some $\alpha \in (1/2, 1)$, we create a bag with two points if the angle between them is exactly $\alpha \pi$ and give an aggregate label 1 to all such two sized bags (let us call them 1-bags). We also construct 2-sized bags with aggregate label 0 when the angle between two points is exactly $(1 - \alpha)\pi$ (called as 0-bags). If we consider any reweighted collection of these bags then a simple threshold based case-analysis yields weak classifier of accuracy $2/3 - (1 - \alpha)/2$. To rule out any strong classifier, we consider a labeling where z-fraction of the points in \mathbb{S}^1 are labeled as 1. We show that the maximum accuracy possible is 3/4 which is achieved at z = 1/2. We choose $\alpha = 1 - \varepsilon$ while losing an additional error of $\varepsilon/2$ in the weak-classifier accuracy due to discretization to obtain the desired bounds.

Weak to Strong LLP Learning (Theorem 2). The main idea is, given a target collection of bags \mathcal{B} , to construct all possible bags which are unions of up to t bags from \mathcal{B} . Note that the aggregate

label for the union is simply the sum of the aggregate labels of the constituent bags, and the error of a classifier w.r.t. the aggregate label on the union of bags is the sum of errors on the constituent bags. Let f be a classifier with accuracy $\gamma > 0$ on these larger bags, and assume for a contradiction that f has accuracy less than $(1 - \varepsilon)$ on \mathcal{B} , for some $\varepsilon > 0$. Call those bags in \mathcal{B} on which f has a non-zero error $\in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ w.r.t. the aggregate label, as the *error* bags. Now, if t is large enough then a random set of t bags from \mathcal{B} has, with high probability $\approx \varepsilon t$ error bags. Using a sampling argument we show that the error on the union of t random bags from \mathcal{B} is distributed like a random Bernoulli combination of the errors on $\approx 2\varepsilon t$ bags. We then apply the Littlewood-Offord-Erdős anti-concentration lemma to obtain that with probability at least $(1 - O(1/(\sqrt{\varepsilon t})))$, the the union of the bags has non-zero error induced by f. By choosing t large enough we obtain a contradiction with the accuracy of α on the large bags. Standard sampling techniques can be applied to obtain a more efficient procedure with high probability guarantees.

Appendix C. Preliminaries

Lemma 6 (Chernoff Bounds) Let $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$, where $X_i = 1$ with probability p_i and $X_i = 0$ with probability $1 - p_i$, and all X_i are independent. Let $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$. Then (i) Lower Tail: $\Pr[X \le (1 - \eta)\mu] \le e^{-\eta^2 \mu/2} \forall 0 < \eta < 1$, and (ii) Upper Tail: $\Pr[X \le (1 + \eta)\mu] \le e^{-\eta^2 \mu/(2+\eta)} \forall 0 \le \eta$.

Lemma 7 (Littlewood-Offord-Erdős Lemma [15]) Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be i.i.d $\{0, 1\}$ -Bernoulli random variables with Pr[1] = 1/2, and let $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $|a_i| \ge 1$, $\forall i \in [n]$. Then, there exists an absolute constant C > 0 such that

$$\Pr_{X_1,\dots,X_n}\left[\left|\sum_{i\in[n]}a_iX_i+\theta\right|\le 1\right]\le \frac{C}{\sqrt{n}}$$

for any constant θ .

Theorem 8 (Theorem 3.7 from [1]) For a $\{0,1\}$ -valued class \mathcal{H} of functions with VC-dimension VC-dim $(\mathcal{H}) = v$, let $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n)$ denote the maximum number of possible $\{0,1\}$ -labelings to any set of n points from the domain of \mathcal{H} . If $n \leq v$, $\Pi_{H}(n) \leq 2^{n}$ and for n > v, $(\frac{en}{v})^{v}$. Refer to Section 3.3 of [1] for more details on VC Dimension.

C.1. Boosting meta algorithm for aggregate label setting

Given a collection of bags and aggregate labels, a prototypical boosting algorithm (given in Figure 1) in the aggregate label setting, involves repeating certain steps over some number of rounds: in each round the training data is reweighed, for which a weak classifier is computed. The final output is some function over the ensemble of computed weak classifiers.

Appendix D. Previous Related Work

Multiple Instance Learning (MIL). The study by Dietterich et al. [13] introduced MIL for drug activity detection, where the bag label is modeled as an OR of its (unknown) instance labels, all labels are $\{0, 1\}$ -valued. The goal, given such a dataset of bags, is to train a classifier for instance

labels. Theoretically, Blum and Kalai [4] proved that noise tolerant PAC learnability implies MIL PAC learnability for iid bags, and generalization bounds for the classification error on bags were provided by Sabato and Tishby [41]. Methods including logistic regression, maximum likelihood and boosting with differentiable approximations to the OR function [38, 39, 54] have been proposed. Diverse-density (DD) method [29] and its EM-based variant, EM-DD [56] are specialised MIL techniques. Over the years this approach has found many applications in numerous areas, including drug discovery [29], analysis of videos [47], medical images [51], time series [28] and information retrieval [27].

Learning from Label Proportions (LLP). A variety of specialized LLP methods have been introduced till date: de Freitas and Kück [11] and Hernández-González et al. [21] developed MCMC techniques, Musicant et al. [31] adapted traditional supervised learning techniques like *k*-NN and SVM, while clustering based methods were proposed by Chen et al. [9] and Stolpe and Morik [48]. Further, Quadrianto et al. [36] and Patrini et al. [34] devised specialized learning algorithms using bag-label mean estimates, and [52] developed an SVM approach with bag-level constraints. Newer methods involve deep learning [14, 24, 26, 32] and others leverage characteristics of the distribution of bags [6, 8, 44, 55]. The theoretical foundations of LLP were investigated by [53], who defined the problem within the PAC framework and established bounds on the generalization error for the label proportion regression task. Recent work by Saket [42], Saket [43] and Brahmbhatt et al. [5] addressed bag-classification using linear classifiers, providing algorithmic and hardness bounds. Applications of LLP include privacy in online advertising [33], high energy physics [12] and IVF predictions [22].

Boosting. The first boosting algorithm was given by Schapire [45] which was followed by a more efficient algorithm by Freund [17] and subsequently the famous AdaBoost algorithm [19]. Further work [10, 18, 50] resulted in the development of several boosting techniques, while Mason et al. [30] showed that several boosting algorithms (including AdaBoost [19] and LogitBoost [20]) implicitly perform gradient descent in the functional space and fall into the AnyBoost framework.

If we consider bags themselves as examples, one can directly apply existing boosting frameworks to obtain strong bag-level classifiers (see for e.g. [25]). However, our goal is to obtain feature-vector level strong classifiers with high accuracy on bags. Previous works have adapted a subset of the above mentioned boosting approaches to LLP [2, 35, 49] – however they are empirically evaluated heuristics and not guaranteed to output strong classifiers.

Appendix E. Trivial Accuracy in the LLP and MIL

First consider the LLP bags \mathcal{B} from Theorem 1, each bag is of size 2 with aggregate label 1 i.e., it is satisfied if exactly one of its feature-vectors is labeled 1. Now consider just one bag from \mathcal{B} . This bag is not satisfied by the constant 0 or constant 1 classifier. On the other hand the expected accuracy of random labeling is 1/2, and therefore $\text{Trv}_{\text{LLP}}(\mathcal{B}) = 1/2$.

Next, let \mathcal{B} be the MIL bags from Theorem 5. These are bags of size 2 each and some of them have aggregate label 0 and some have aggregate label 1. Consider just two bags one with aggregate label 0 and the other with aggregate label 1. Now, the constant a labeling satisfies the bag with aggregate label a and does not satisfy the bag with aggregate label (1 - a), for $a \in \{0, 1\}$. On the other hand the random labeling satisfies the 0 aggregate label bag with probability 1/4 and the bag with aggregate label 1 with probability 3/4. Thus, the expected number of bags satisfied is the random labeling is 1. Therefore, $\text{Trv}_{MIL}(\mathcal{B}) = 1/2$.

Appendix F. Proof of Theorem 5

Along similar lines as the proof of Theorem 1, we provide a geometric construction of MIL on 2-sized bags. We begin with a continuous set of points which we analyze and subsequently discretize while preserving its key properties. We fix a parameter $\alpha \in (1/2, 1)$.

Construction. Let \mathcal{X}_c be set of all points on the unit circle \mathbb{S}^1 . For any two points that subtend an angle of exactly $\alpha \pi$ we create a 2-sized bag with aggregate label 1 (we call it a 1-bag) containing those points. Similarly, bags with aggregate label 0 (which we call 0-bags) are formed by pairs of points at an angle of $(1 - \alpha)\pi$. By mapping a 1-bag to the mid-point of the smaller arc subtended by the two points in the bag (end-points), and noting that all the 1-bags have unique mid-points, we obtain that the measure of the set of 1-bags is same as that of \mathbb{S}^1 . Similarly, this holds true for the set of 0-bags. In particular, the set of 0-bags and the set of 1-bags are of equal measure. Let \mathcal{B}_c be this infinite (continuous) collection of 1-bags and 0-bags.

Existence of Weak Classifier. Observe that the constant 0 classifier given by pos(-1) will satisfy all 0-bags and none of the 1-bags.

Now, consider a random homogeneous halfspace given by $pos(\mathbf{r}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x})$ for \mathbf{r} uniformly sampled from \mathbb{S}^1 . The two points of a 0-bag will not be separated w.p. α and with a further 1/2 both will be assigned 0, implying that any 0-bag will be satisfied with probability $\alpha/2$. On the other hand, both the points of a 1-bag will be assigned 0 w.p. $(1 - \alpha)/2$ implying that it will be satisfied w.p. $(1 + \alpha)/2$.

Let there be any probability measure on \mathcal{B}_c s.t. the measure of the 0-bags is p and that of the 1-bags is (1-p). If $p \ge 2/3$ then the constant 0 classifier satisfies all the 0-bags yielding an accuracy of $p \ge 2/3$. If not, then the random homogeneous halfspace satisfies in expectation

$$p\alpha/2 + (1-p)(1+\alpha)/2 = (1+\alpha)/2 - p/2$$

$$\geq 1/2 + \alpha/2 - 1/3$$

$$= 2/3 - (1-\alpha)/2$$
(2)

Therefore, there is always a weak classifier, for any reweighing of the bags, of accuracy $2/3 - (1 - \alpha)/2$.

No Strong Classifier. Consider any $\{0, 1\}$ -labeling of \mathbb{S}^1 . Let $z \in [0, 1]$ represent the fraction of points on G_c labeled as 1, with the remaining fraction 1 - z labeled as 0. Sampling a 0-bag u.a.r. and randomly choosing one of its points yields the uniform distribution over \mathbb{S}^1 . Thus, the probability that a random 0-bag is satisfied is $\leq 1 - z$. The two points of all the 1-bags cover \mathbb{S}^1 twice, so the probability that in a random 1-bag at least one of its points is labeled 1 is at most min $\{2z, 1\}$.

Therefore, the probability that a random bag from \mathcal{B}_c is satisfied by the labeling is at most

$$\frac{1-z+\min\{2z,1\}}{2} = \begin{cases} 1-z/2 & \text{if } z \ge 1/2\\ 1/2+z/2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(3)

which attains a maximum of 3/4 at z = 1/2. Thus, no classifier can have accuracy > 3/4 on \mathcal{B}_c **Discretization.** Let T be a large positive integer, and divide \mathbb{S}^1 into 2T continuous, non-overlapping arcs $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{2T}$ of length $\delta\pi$ each, where $\delta = 1/T$. We choose T large enough so that $2\delta < \min\{(2\alpha - 1), (1 - \alpha)\}$, ensuring that:

(i) there is no segment that contains both endpoints of any bag in \mathcal{B}_c , and

(ii) for any pair of segments A_i and A_j , if there is a 0-bag in \mathcal{B}_c with one point in A_i and another

in A_j , then there is no such 1-bag, and similarly if there is a 1-bag in \mathcal{B}_c with one point in A_i and another in A_j , then there is no such 0-bag.

Using property (ii) above, let us construct a discrete set of bags \mathcal{B}_d as follows. If a pair of segments A_i and A_j are such that there is a 0-bag in \mathcal{B}_c with one point in A_i and another in A_j , then add $\{A_i, A_j\}$ as 0-bag with weight as the measure of all the bags in \mathcal{B}_c (which are necessarily 0-bags) with one point in A_i and another in A_j . Analogously, add pairs of segments as 1-bags. Note that from property (i), all bags in \mathcal{B}_d have size 2.

Let us first consider any $\{0, 1\}$ -labeling to $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{2T}$. This directly corresponds to a $\{0, 1\}$ -labeling to \mathbb{S}^1 by assigning a point the label of the segment containing it. Further, from its construction, the weight of the bags \mathcal{B}_c satisfied by the labeling to the segments equals the measure of the bags in \mathcal{B}_c satisfied by the corresponding labeling to \mathbb{S}^1 which, as shown above, is at most 3/4.

In particular, the above argument also shows that the measure of bags in \mathcal{B}_d satisfied by the constant 0 labeling to $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{2T}$ is the same as that in \mathcal{B}_c satisfied by the constant 0 labeling to \mathbb{S}^1 .

Lastly, we translate the labeling by a homogeneous halfspace on \mathbb{S}^1 to a labeling for $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^{2T}$ by assigning each A_i the label of its mid-point. Consider the *error* set of points in \mathbb{S}^1 whose label given by the homogeneous halfspace differs from the label of the segment containing it. For any homogeneous halfspace, the error set is entirely contained within the two diametrically opposite segments intersected by the halfspace. Similarly, the *error* bags in \mathcal{B}_c are those whose aggregate label given by the homogeneous halfspace differs from the aggregate label of the corresponding bag in \mathcal{B}_d .

The *error* bags in \mathcal{B}_c are a subset of those which have at least one end-point in the the error set of points. Given any bag in \mathcal{B}_c the probability over a random homogeneous halfspace that it is an error bag is at most the probability that one of its endpoints is in a segment intersected by the halfspace. By symmetry, a segment is intersected with probability 1/T. So the probability that any bag in \mathcal{B}_c is an error bag is at most $2/T = 2\delta$.

Thus, from (2) we obtain that for any weighing of the bags in \mathcal{B}_d , there is a classifier of accuracy $2/3 - (1 - \alpha)/2 - 2\delta$.

F.0.1. COMPLETING THE PROOF OF THEOREM 5.

For this, we can take ε to be small enough, say $\varepsilon \in (0, 0.1)$ and set $\alpha = 1 - \varepsilon$ along with $T = \lceil 4/\varepsilon \rceil$ so that $\delta \le \varepsilon/4$ and $2\delta < \min\{(2\alpha - 1), (1 - \alpha)\}$ and $2/3 - (1 - \alpha)/2 - 2\delta \ge 2/3 - \varepsilon$.

Appendix G. Weighted bags to unweighted bags

The algorithm to convert a weighted collection of bags to an unweighted collection is given in Fig. 4. First, observe that $|\mathcal{B}| = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lceil w_i(T-1) \rceil \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} (w_i(T-1)+1) \leq (T-1)m + m = Tm$, where we use $\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i = m$. On the other hand, $|\mathcal{B}| = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lceil w_i(T-1) \rceil \geq (T-1)m$.

Now, to see that the error in accuracy is at most O(1/T), observe that for any subset $I \subseteq [m]$, $\sum_{i \in I} w_i(T-1) \leq \sum_{i \in I} [w_i(T-1)] \leq \sum_{i \in I} w_i(T-1) + |I|$. Therefore, the normalized error in the weight corresponding to I is at most $|I|/((T-1)m) \leq m/((T-1)m) \leq 1/(T-1) = O(1/T)$ for T > 1. Input: : Bags $\mathcal{B}_w = (B_i, w_i)_{i=1}^m, T$. Steps: 1. Normalize the weight with a factor Z such that $\sum_{i=1}^m w_i = m$. 2. Define \mathcal{B} to be the unweighted collection of bags and initialize it to \emptyset . 3. for $i \in [m]$: 3.1 Define $n_i = \lceil w_i(T-1) \rceil$. 3.2 Add n_i copies of B_i to \mathcal{B} . Output: Output \mathcal{B} .

Figure 4: Weighted to unweighted collection of bags

Appendix H. Probabilities for the support of D

In Step 2 of Figure 2, the for a fixed configuration $\{Q_i\}_{i=1}^t$ with $r : |\{i \in [t] \mid Q_i = \star\}|$, its probability under \overline{D} is $\frac{m^r}{m^t} \frac{1}{2^r}$, since the number of choices for the \star -coordinates is m^r , while the total number of choices is m^t . Further, with $(1/2)^t$ probability we have the specific choices of the r coordinates with \star in Step 2. Iterating over all possible configurations $\{Q_i\}_{i=1}^t$ and assigning theur probabilities to the resultant $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})$ in Step 3, yields the support of \overline{D} along with their probabilities.

Appendix I. Proofs from Section 3

Proof (of Lemma 3). Since each (B_i, σ_i) independently belongs to S w.p. κ , $\Pr[(B_i, \sigma_i) \in S] \ge \kappa$ and therefore $\mu := \mathbb{E}[|\{i \mid (B_i, \sigma_i) \in S)\}|] \ge \kappa t$. Thus, $\Pr[|\{i \mid (B_i, \sigma_i) \in S)\}| < \kappa t/2] \le \Pr[|\{i \mid (B_i, \sigma_i) \in S)\}| < \mu/2] \le \exp(-\mu/8) \le \exp(-\kappa t/8)$, where we use the Chernoff Tail Bound (Lemma 6) using $\eta = 1/2$ and the lower bound of κt for μ .

Proof (of Lemma 4). Let \mathcal{B}_{err} be the *error* bags $(B, \sigma) \in \mathcal{B}$ on which $\sum_{\mathbf{x}\in B} h(\mathbf{x}) \neq \sigma$, so that $|\mathcal{B}_{err}| \geq \zeta |\mathcal{B}|$. For convenience, we shall abuse the notation h(B) to denote $\sum_{\mathbf{x}\in B} h(\mathbf{x})$, and therefore, for an error bag B, $|h(B) - \sigma| \geq 1$. Depending on the choices in Step 1. of Fig. 2, define the set $I := \{i \mid (B_i, \sigma_i) \in \mathcal{B}_{err})\}$ and let E_0 be the event that the following occurs: $\{|I| \geq \zeta t/2\}$. Further, let E_1 be the event that the following occurs:

$$h(\overline{B}) = \bar{\sigma} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{\{i \mid Q_i = (B_i, \sigma_i) \neq \star\}} (h(B_i) - \sigma_i) = 0$$
(4)

where $(\overline{B}, \overline{\sigma})$ is the output in Step 3. Now,

Since $|\mathcal{B}_{\text{err}}| \geq \zeta |\mathcal{B}|$, Lemma 3 yields that $\Pr[\neg E_0] \leq \exp(-\zeta t/8)$. On the other hand, fix the set I and bags $\{(B_i, \sigma_i)\}_{i \in I}$ and let $a_i := h(B_i) - \sigma_i$ (i = 1, ..., t). Defining $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ to be i.i.d $\{0, 1\}$ -valued Bernoulli random variables which are 1 w.p. 1/2, we obtain that $\Pr[E_1] = \Pr[\sum_{i \in I} a_i X_i = 0] \leq C/\sqrt{|I|}$ by applying Lemma 7. Therefore, $\Pr[E_1|E_0] \leq C/\sqrt{(\zeta/2)t}$ and using the above bounds, $\Pr[E_1] \leq C/\sqrt{(\zeta/2)t} + \exp(-\zeta t/8)$.

Appendix J. Randomized algorithm A_2

Input: : Bags \mathcal{B} , $k = \max_{(B,\sigma)\in\mathcal{B}} |B|$, $\alpha > 0$, t, oracle $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}$, $s \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$. Steps: 1. Let $\hat{\mathcal{B}} = \{(\hat{B}_j, \hat{\sigma}_j)\}_{i=1}^s$ be s i.i.d. samples from \overline{D} (Fig. 2).

- ((j), j) = 1
- 2. Output the classifier \tilde{h} given by $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}(\hat{\mathcal{B}})$.

Figure 5: Algorithm A_2 .

Figure 5 provides the algorithm \mathcal{A}_2 . Fix any h that has accuracy $\langle (1 - \varepsilon)$ on \mathcal{B} . Then, by Lemma 4, and our setting of t we obtain that $\Pr_{(\hat{B},\hat{\sigma})\leftarrow\overline{D}}[(\hat{B},\hat{\sigma}) \text{ satisfied by } h] \leq \alpha/2$. Therefore, in Step 1 of \mathcal{A}_2 it is easy to see by monotonicity that

$$\Pr\left[\left|\{j \in [s] \mid (\hat{B}_j, \hat{\sigma}_j) \text{ satisfied by } h\}\right| \ge \alpha s\right]$$

$$\le \qquad \mathsf{P}\left[\sum_{\ell=1}^{s} X_\ell \ge \alpha s\right] \tag{5}$$

where each X_{ℓ} ($\ell = 1, ..., s$) is an independent $\{0, 1\}$ -valued Bernoulli random variable taking value 1 with probability $\alpha/2$. Therefore, using Chernoff Upper Tail bound from Lemma 6 we can upper bound the LHS of (5) by $\exp(-\alpha s/6)$ which is the upper bound on the probability that *h* has accuracy $\geq \alpha$ on $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$.

Let C be the classifier class to which the output of $\mathcal{O}_{kt,\alpha}$ is guaranteed to belong. With n being the total number of distinct feature-vectors in the bags \mathcal{B} , $\Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(n)$ (as given in Theorem 8) is the number of possible $\{0, 1\}$ -assignments to n points induced by classifiers in C. Taking a union-bound over all of them, we obtain that with probability at most $\Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(n)\exp(-\alpha s/6)$ the output of \mathcal{A}_2 has accuracy at least $(1 - \varepsilon)$ on \mathcal{B} .

When C is unrestricted then $\Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(n) \leq 2^n$ and therefore $\Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(n)\exp(-\alpha s/6) \leq \delta$ is ensured by taking $s = O\left((n + \log(1/\delta))/\alpha\right)$. On the other hand if the VC dimension of C is at most r, then $\Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(n) \leq (en/r)^r$ (from Theorem 8), and therefore taking $s = O\left(\frac{r}{\alpha}\log\left(\frac{n}{r}\right) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)$ suffices.

Appendix K. Experiments

In our experiments, we generate a collection of small q-sized bags as training data using fully supervised datasets. We use a fixed value of $q \in \{5, 15\}$.

Synthetic Datasets. In this case we experiment in the realizable setting for which we select a random linear classifier f^* passing though the origin to provide $\{0, 1\}$ -labels to the feature-vectors. For a given bag-size $q \in \{5, 15\}$, we generate two types of bag collections as follows:

- 1. *Random*: In this case each *q*-sized bag is created by randomly sampling points uniformly from the unit sphere as its constituent feature vectors.
- 2. *Hard Bags*: For these bags we first randomly construct pairs of points on the unit-sphere which are either (i) very close but have different labels under f^* , or (ii) nearly antipodal but have the same label. Each bag consists of several such randomly constructed pairs and one random point (since q is odd).

In both the above cases, the aggregate label of a bag is the sum of the labels of its feature-vectors given by f^* . We also have a test-set of labeled feature-vectors whose distribution is given by sampling each u.a.r. from a random training bag.

Real Datasets. We use the following supervised UCI datasets: *Heart* (303 instances, Janosi and Detrano [23]), *Australian* (690 instances, Quinlan [37]) and *Adult* (48842 instances, Becker and Kohavi [3]) which have previously been used in [34] to evaluate LLP methods. The feature-vector labels are available and the bags are created by partitioning the training-set into -sized bags. The test-set is given by a random subset of 15% of the dataset.

Applying Algorithm A_2 . For each collection of training bags, and an appropriate choice of t and s (see Figure 5) we create a collection of s large bags by sampling each iid from the distribution \overline{D} given in Figure 2.

Model Training. We train a linear model $g(\mathbf{x})$ with a sigmoid activation function on the large bags using bag-level mse loss between the aggregate label of a bag and its aggregate prediction. In particular, for a large bag \overline{B} and aggregate label $\overline{\sigma}$ the contribution to the loss is $(\overline{\sigma} - \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \overline{B}} g(\mathbf{x}))^2$. and the total loss is the sum over the large bags in collection. The optimization is done using a mini-batch training with 512 bags in each mini-batch. The learning rate is 1e-2 with SGD optimizer for all experiments, and the model is trained till it reaches convergence on the instance-level test set. **Results.** Tables 1 and 2 have the experimental results for the synthetic, Heart, Australian and Adult datasets respectively. For each setting of q, t and s, we report the mean accuracy and standard deviation on the training set for both large bags and their constituent small bags, along with the accuracy on test instances, averaged over 15 runs. The main takeaways from the experimental results are:

- 1. In all experiments, even with low accuracy on large bags we obtain classifiers with high accuracy on the constituent small bags and even higher accuracy on the instance-level test set. For example, on synthetic random bags with q = 5, t = 50 and s = 5000, an accuracy of just 21.3% on large bags yields an accuracy of 85.5% on small bags and 96.4% on the test set. On the Adult dataset, with q = 15, t = 50 and s = 80000, with accuracy of just 0.044% on large bags, we obtain a classifier with accuracy of 21.5% on small bags and 82.2% on the test set.
- 2. For a given q and t, increasing the number of large bags s improves performance across the board, consistent with our theoretical bounds.
- 3. The bag-level performance scores are noticeably lower on the hard bags case as compared to the random bags case, even though both are from the realizable setting.
- 4. Accuracy scores on large bags decrease with increasing q or t. This is understandable since this results in increased size of larger bags, making them more difficult to satisfy.

The above observations, especially points 1 and 2, demonstrate that Algorithm A_2 does indeed provide a way to use weak classifiers on large bags to obtain strong classifiers on small bags, which in turn are strong classifiers at the instance-level. The scalability of our techniques is also validated by the experiments on the substantially sized Adult dataset.

Implementational Details. For each dataset, the small bags were fixed, and large bags were sampled for each repeated run of the experiment. For the synthetic, Heart, and Australian datasets, the model was trained for 160 epochs, while for the Adult dataset, it was trained for 60 epochs. Each experiment was run on a single NVIDIA A100 40GB GPU and 2x Intel Broadwell 22 cores 44 threads CPU. Each of these experiments took less than 12 hrs, and most completed within an hour.

q	t	s	Large	Random Bags Small	Test Instance	Large	Hard Bags Small	Test Instance
5	10	5000 15000	52.891 ± 5.196 72 295 + 5 275	85.357 ± 3.085 93.089 ± 2.057	96.067 ± 1.218 97.840 ± 0.829	32.629 ± 3.439 47 276 + 5 241	68.374 ± 4.428 81 802 ± 3 789	91.120 ± 1.978 95.160 ± 1.365
	50	5000	21.330 ± 3.110 32.890 ± 5.032	85.513 ± 3.434 93.076 ± 1.466	96.453 ± 0.780 97.867 ± 0.626	$\frac{11.210 \pm 0.211}{12.789 \pm 2.192}$ $\frac{18.311 \pm 2.544}{18.000}$	$\frac{68.463 \pm 5.828}{82.562 \pm 3.637}$	91.427 ± 1.785 95.560 ± 1.299
15	10	5000 15000	$\begin{array}{c} 21.792 \pm 3.189 \\ 32.259 \pm 3.444 \end{array}$	$\frac{50.133 \pm 7.520}{68.733 \pm 4.334}$	$\frac{93.037 \pm 1.674}{96.566 \pm 0.890}$	$\begin{array}{c} 10.011 \pm 2.011 \\ 14.731 \pm 2.337 \\ 17.115 \pm 1.501 \end{array}$	$\frac{31.600 \pm 5.138}{40.067 \pm 5.189}$	$\frac{86.855 \pm 2.638}{89.939 \pm 1.921}$
	50	5000 15000	$\begin{array}{c} 8.674 \pm 1.537 \\ 11.106 \pm 3.042 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 52.400 \pm 7.079 \\ 67.467 \pm 4.389 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 93.778 \pm 2.060 \\ 96.067 \pm 1.412 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5.252 \pm 1.715 \\ 6.409 \pm 1.457 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 34.000 \pm 5.438 \\ 40.800 \pm 6.753 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 85.657 \pm 3.132 \\ 91.677 \pm 2.336 \end{array}$

Table 1: Results on the Synthetic Datasets.

Table 2: Results on the Real Datasets.

q	t	s	Large Bags	Small Bags	Test Instance				
	Heart								
	10	2500	24.207 ± 4.418	55.407 ± 8.419	79.911 ± 4.349				
5		10000	31.337 ± 5.363	65.333 ± 8.516	77.956 ± 3.767				
5	50	2500	5.356 ± 2.715	47.407 ± 8.172	78.400 ± 3.676				
		10000	9.128 ± 3.192	59.556 ± 8.021	77.689 ± 5.622				
	10	2500	12.950 ± 7.030	35.111 ± 15.006	71.378 ± 7.870				
15		10000	20.539 ± 8.041	49.778 ± 16.498	69.156 ± 7.089				
15	50	2500	0.803 ± 1.521	26.222 ± 16.226	73.867 ± 5.829				
		10000	1.946 ± 2.143	30.667 ± 10.328	72.178 ± 6.852				
Australian									
	10	3500	24.956 ± 3.709	55.962 ± 5.783	84.275 ± 2.626				
5		10000	29.774 ± 2.600	62.692 ± 4.319	84.039 ± 1.999				
3	50	3500	5.454 ± 4.127	53.846 ± 9.449	82.039 ± 3.015				
		10000	9.303 ± 2.806	58.141 ± 6.510	82.431 ± 2.837				
	10	3500	10.396 ± 4.906	28.190 ± 8.072	75.313 ± 6.233				
15		10000	15.746 ± 4.950	37.524 ± 10.792	78.222 ± 5.824				
15	50	3500	0.257 ± 0.596	24.190 ± 7.233	74.707 ± 5.073				
		10000	1.342 ± 1.910	30.095 ± 8.215	77.657 ± 4.000				
Adult									
	10	10000	11.169 ± 1.156	41.418 ± 2.684	80.234 ± 2.526				
5		80000	17.055 ± 0.591	47.873 ± 0.716	83.802 ± 0.243				
3	50	10000	0.168 ± 0.148	34.396 ± 2.668	75.651 ± 3.222				
		80000	2.161 ± 0.306	46.835 ± 1.060	83.111 ± 0.831				
	10	10000	1.515 ± 0.853	13.000 ± 1.970	76.005 ± 3.249				
15		80000	5.801 ± 0.760	22.878 ± 1.316	83.461 ± 0.822				
15	50	10000	0.001 ± 0.003	8.797 ± 5.715	75.077 ± 2.638				
		80000	0.044 ± 0.036	21.498 ± 0.667	82.185 ± 0.908				