

Learning preferences

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Ridge – Montevideo Nov 2024

What is a normal martian?



What is a normal martian?

Each Martian has a weight w and a height h , so you imagine them on the plane (h, w) .

There is a normal height interval $[h^1, h^2]$, and a normal weight interval $[w^1, w^2]$

So that a Martian (h, w) is **normal** iff $(h, w) \in [h^1, h^2] \times [w^1, w^2]$.

You have no idea what h^i and w^i are.

You also have no idea what the population distribution μ is of pairs (h, w) .

What is a normal martian?

You want to learn to predict when a martian is normal.

Given a data on martians, and someone to tell you which ones are normal (a Virgil who accompanies you on your journey).

Learn which ones are normal.

So when presented with a new martian drawn from μ you can with high prob classify them accurately.

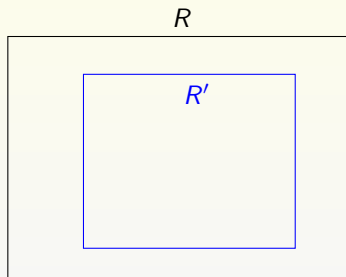
What is a normal martian?

Now, you are presented with a finite sample of Martians (h_i, w_i) , $i = 1, \dots, n$ and you are told whether each one is normal.

There is a true rectangle $R = [h^1, h^2] \times [w^1, w^2]$.

Given your sample, you construct a minimal rectangle R' that exactly contains the points you have been labeled to be normal.

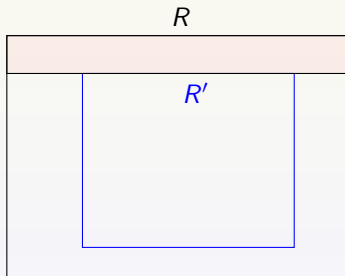
What is a normal martian?



You want to make sure that the probability according to μ of the difference $R \setminus R'$ is smaller than ε .

What is a normal martian?

Consider the difference between R and R' along the northern direction.



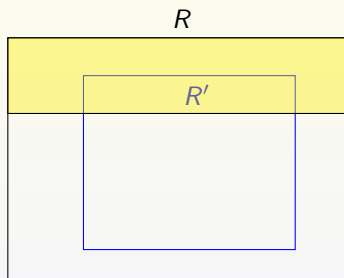
What is a normal martian?

We want to make sure that this area has probability less than or equal to $\varepsilon/4$.

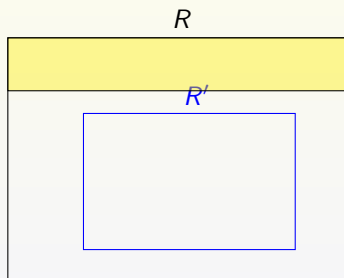
If we can ensure that this is true for the North, East, West and South direction, this means that the difference $R \setminus R'$ has probability less than or equal to ε (the overcounting of the overlapping area goes in our favor).

Consider the yellow rectangle that we obtain as we sweep R from its Northern boundary going south until we have an area of μ -probability at most $\varepsilon/4$ (assume μ is non-atomic).

What is a normal martian?



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But for this to happen, we would have had to not observe any point in our sample in the yellow area. The probability that all n sample points miss the yellow area is $(1 - \varepsilon/4)^n$.

Consider the four slices (East, West, North and South).

The probability that we miss at least one of the yellow slices, each of μ -weight $\varepsilon/4$, is at most (by union bound¹) $4(1 - \varepsilon/4)^n$.

For n large enough we can ensure that this probability is as small as we want.

¹ $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$.

What is a normal martian?

How large must n be?

Recall that $(1 - \varepsilon) \leq e^{-\varepsilon}$.

Then $4(1 - \varepsilon/4)^n \leq 4e^{-n\varepsilon/4}$.

Set $\delta = 4e^{-n\varepsilon/4}$.

Then we need that

$$n \geq \frac{4 \ln(4/\delta)}{\varepsilon}.$$

What is a normal martian?

This is pretty good.

The sample size grows lineary with $1/\varepsilon$ and logarithmically with $1/\delta$.

For example, if $\delta = \varepsilon = 0.05$, then we have $n \geq 80 \ln 80 \simeq 351$.

PAC learning



Given is:

- ▶ A measure space (X, Σ) , termed the **instance space**.
- ▶ A probability distribution μ on (X, Σ) .
- ▶ A subset $c^* \subseteq X$ is the **target concept**.

For ex:

- ▶ X is a set of strings of text.
- ▶ c^* the set of text with a particular political message.

For ex:

- ▶ $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ is the space of torax x-ray images (encoded as d -dimensional vectors).
- ▶ c^* the set of images with a tumor

Want to learn c^* from an iid sample $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, taken according to μ on X .

Where we are told whether each $x_i \in c^*$.

In other words, each x_i is **labeled**.

A class \mathcal{H} of subsets of X is called the **hypothesis class**.

We may or may not have $c^* \in \mathcal{H}$.

Given $h \in \mathcal{H}$, the **true error** of the hypothesis h is

$$\mathcal{E}_\mu(h) = \mu(c^* \triangle h).$$

Given a sample S drawn according to μ , the **training error** is

$$\mathcal{E}_S(h) = \frac{|S \cap (c^* \triangle H)|}{|S|}.$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and denote by $\mathcal{H}_\varepsilon \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ the set of all hypotheses that have true error greater than ε .

If $h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon$, what is the probability that h will have training error = 0 given a sample S ?

In other words, what is the probability that $\mathcal{E}_S(h) = 0$ when $\mathcal{E}_\mu(h) \geq \varepsilon$?

This is at most

$$(1 - \varepsilon)^{|S|}.$$

If \mathcal{H}_ε is finite, then the probability that *at least one* $h \in \mathcal{H}_\varepsilon$ has $\mathcal{E}_S(h) = 0$ is (by union bound) at most $|\mathcal{H}_\varepsilon| (1 - \varepsilon)^{|S|}$.

We want this number to be small.

So if δ = the prob. that at least one hypothesis with true error $\geq \varepsilon$ has training error = 0, and we assume that \mathcal{H} is finite, then:

$$\delta \leq |\mathcal{H}| e^{-\varepsilon|S|}$$

(using that $1 - \varepsilon \leq e^{-\varepsilon}$).

Set $n = |S|$ to be the sample size.

So $\ln(\delta) \leq \ln(|\mathcal{H}|) - \varepsilon n$, or

$$\frac{\ln(1/\delta) + \ln(|\mathcal{H}|)}{\varepsilon} \geq n.$$

Theorem

Let \mathcal{H} be a finite hypothesis class. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta \in (0, 1)$, if

$$n \geq \frac{\ln(1/\delta) + \ln(|\mathcal{H}|)}{\varepsilon}$$

then with probability at least $1 - \delta$ all hypotheses with training error = 0 have true error $< \varepsilon$.

But what if there is no hypothesis with zero training error?

Suppose instead that we would like $\mathcal{E}_S(h)$ and $\mathcal{E}_\mu(h)$ to be close for all h .

This is a kind of uniform convergence results, and follows along similar lines:

Theorem

Let \mathcal{H} be a finite hypothesis class. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta \in (0, 1)$, if

$$n \geq \frac{\ln(2/\delta) + \ln(|\mathcal{H}|)}{2\varepsilon^2}$$

then, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, $|\mathcal{E}_\mu(h) - \mathcal{E}_S(h)| < \varepsilon$ for all $h \in \mathcal{H}$.

Application: Occam's razor

We can use these ideas to formalize Occam's razor: the notion that the simplest explanations are more likely to be correct.

Suppose that \mathcal{H} is described using some language that takes at most b bits. The idea being that the smaller is b the simpler the explanation.

Then we have that $|\mathcal{H}| \leq 2^b$.

As long as we set $n \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} [b \ln(2) + \ln(1/\delta)]$, then with probability $\geq 1 - \delta$, any hypothesis that can be described with b bits and has a training error of zero must have true error $< \varepsilon$.

What if \mathcal{H} is not finite?

The previous ideas generalize.

The theory is more involved (but interesting!).

VC dimension plays the role of $|\mathcal{H}|$.

We shall see this in the context of our application.

Learning preferences



PAC learning is about classification.

Now to economics.

What is the connection?

Learning preferences

Well, a preference is a hypothesis.



\mathcal{Y} is the **set** of (x, y) s.t. x is chosen over y .

Let X be a set of objects of choice.

For example, a set of consumption vectors ($X = \mathbb{R}_+^d$).

\mathcal{P} a class of preferences on X .

Then each $\succeq \in \mathcal{P}$ is a subset of $X \times X$.

Statistical model

1. In a choice problem, alternatives drawn iid according to **sampling distribution** λ .
2. Subjects make “mistakes.”
Upon deciding on $\{x, y\}$, a subject with preference \succeq chooses x over y with probability $q(\succeq; x, y)$ (**error probability function**).
3. Only assumption: if $x \succ y$ then $q(\succeq; x, y) > 1/2$.
4. “Spatial” dependence of q on x and y is arbitrary.

Kemeny-minimizing estimator: find a preference in \mathcal{P} that minimizes the number of observations inconsistent with the preference.

- ▶ “Model free:” to compute estimator don't need to assume a specific q or λ .
- ▶ May be computationally challenging (depending on \mathcal{P}).

Assumptions

Assumption 1: X is a locally compact Polish space.

Assumption 2: \mathcal{P} is a closed set of locally strict preferences.

Assumption 3: λ has full support and for all $\succeq \in \mathcal{P}$, $\{(x, y) : x \sim y\}$ has λ -probability 0.

Second main result

Theorem

Under Assumptions (1), (2), (3'), if the subject's preference is $\underline{\gamma}^* \in \mathcal{P}$ and $\underline{\gamma}_n$ is the Kemeny-minimizing estimator for Σ_n , then, $\underline{\gamma}_n \rightarrow \underline{\gamma}^*$ in probability.

The **VC dimension** of \mathcal{P} is the largest cardinality of an experiment that can always be rationalized by \mathcal{P} .

A measure of how flexible \mathcal{P} ; how prone it is to overfitting.

Convergence rates: Digression

- ▶ Think of a game between Alicia and Roberto
- ▶ Alicia defends \mathcal{P} ; Roberto questions it.
- ▶ Given is k
- ▶ Alicia proposes a choice experiment of size k
- ▶ Roberto fills in choices adversarially.
- ▶ Alicia wins if she can rationalize the choices using \mathcal{P} .
- ▶ The VC dimension of \mathcal{P} is the largest k for which Alicia always wins.

Convergence rates

- ▶ Let ρ be a metric on preferences.

Theorem

Under the same assumptions as in prev. thm,

$$N(\eta, \delta) \leq \frac{2}{r(\eta)^2} \left(\sqrt{2/\delta} + C\sqrt{\text{VC}(\mathcal{P})} \right)^2$$

with C a universal constant.

Convergence rates

- ▶ Let ρ be a metric on preferences.
- ▶ $N(\eta, \delta)$: smallest value of N such that for all $k \geq N$, and all subject preferences $\succeq^* \in \mathcal{P}$,

$$\Pr(\rho(\succeq_k, \succeq^*) < \eta) \geq 1 - \delta.$$

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- ▶ $\mu(\succeq'; \succeq)$: prob. that choice w/preference \succeq is consistent w/ \succeq' .

$$r(\eta) = \inf \{ \mu(\succeq; \succeq) - \mu(\succeq'; \succeq) : \succeq, \succeq' \in \mathcal{P}, \rho(\succeq, \succeq') \geq \eta \}.$$

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- ▶ $\text{VC}(\mathcal{P})$ the VC dimension of the class \mathcal{P} .

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Expected utility

1. X is the set of lotteries over d prizes.
2. \mathcal{P} is the set of **nonconstant** EU preferences: there are always lotteries p, p' such as p is strictly preferred to p' .

This preference environment satisfies Assumptions 1 and 2.

Suppose: there is $L > 0$ and $m > 0$ s.t

$$q(x, y; \succ) \geq \frac{1}{2} + L(v \cdot x - v \cdot y)^m,$$

when $x \succ y$ and v represents \succ .

Under these assumptions, we can bound $r(\eta)$ and $VC(\mathcal{P})$, which implies

$$N(\eta, \delta) = O\left(\frac{1}{\delta\eta^{4d-2}}\right).$$

Other examples: Cobb-Douglas, CES, and CARA subjective EU preferences, and intertemporal choice with discounted, Lipschitz-bounded utilities.

Monotone preferences

- ▶ K be a compact set in $X \equiv \mathbb{R}_{++}^d$, and fix $\theta > 0$.
- ▶ \mathcal{P} has finite VC-dimension and is identified on K
- ▶ λ is the uniform probability measure on $K^{\theta/2}$,
- ▶ q satisfies: probability of choosing y instead of x when $x \succ y$ is a function of $\|x - y\|$,

Theorem

The Kemeny-minimizing estimator is consistent and, as $\eta \rightarrow 0$ and $\delta \rightarrow 0$,

$$N(\eta, \delta) = O\left(\frac{1}{\eta^{2d+2}} \ln \frac{1}{\delta}\right).$$

- ▶ Kearns and Vazirani “An introduction to computational learning theory” MIT press (1994).
- ▶ Blum, Hopcroft and Kannan “Foundations of data science” Cambridge University Press (2020).
- ▶ Chambers, Echenique and Lambert “Recovering preferences from finite data” *Econometrica* v. 89 No. 4 (2021).