LEARNING TO HELP IN MULTI-CLASS SETTINGS

Anonymous authors
Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

Deploying complex machine learning models on resource-constrained devices is challenging due to limited computational power, memory, and model retrainability. To address these limitations, a hybrid system can be established by augmenting the local model with a server-side model, where samples are selectively deferred by a rejector and then sent to the server for processing. The hybrid system enables efficient use of computational resources while minimizing the overhead associated with server usage. The recently proposed Learning to Help (L2H) model proposed training a server model given a fixed local (client) model. This differs from the Learning to Defer (L2D) framework which trains the client for a fixed (expert) server. In both L2D and L2H, the training includes learning a rejector at the client to determine when to query the server. In this work, we extend the L2H model from binary to multi-class classification problems and demonstrate its applicability in a number of different scenarios of practical interest in which access to the server may be limited by cost, availability, or policy. We derive a stage-switching surrogate loss function that is differentiable, convex, and consistent with the Bayes rule corresponding to the 0-1 loss for the L2H model. Experiments show that our proposed methods offer an efficient and practical solution for multi-class classification in resource-constrained environments.

1 INTRODUCTION

Machine Learning (ML) models deployed on local devices often face significant limitations in terms of computational resources and retrainability. Local devices are typically constrained by limited processing power, memory, and battery life (Ajani et al., 2021; Biglari & Tang, 2023), which can impede the model's ability to handle large-scale data or perform complex computations in real-time. Furthermore, once a local model is deployed, it may be difficult to retrain or update (Hanzlik et al., 2021), leading to a potential degradation in performance over time when data distribution drifts (Lu et al., 2019).

To address these issues, one strategy is to augment the local machine learning system (a "client") with an external model hosted on a remote server. This approach, seen in recent applications like *Apple Intelligence* (Gunter et al., 2024), enhances the overall system performance by leveraging the server's superior computational power and capacity for model updates. Recent studies have shown that efficient fine-tuning methods, like few-shot learning (Brown et al., 2020) and parameter-efficient fine-tuning (Fu et al., 2023), can achieve competitive performance, making it a feasible choice for server-side model deployment. Those methods utilize the pre-trained model's capabilities while requiring minimal computational resources, allowing for easy and cost-effective updates to adapt to specific tasks or data distributions. Consequently, it enables the deployment of powerful models on servers without the high costs of comprehensive model training.

While training a server model can be relatively inexpensive, extensive use of server-side models can be costly due to data transfer, latency, instability connection, and service fees. Moreover, server operators may wish to limit the frequency of offloaded inferences from clients by imposing costs or access constraints. In the presence of such restrictions, the practical solution for clients to use a *rejector* that selectively defers/offloads only the most challenging and uncertain samples to the server for processing, thereby optimizing the balance between usage cost and performance. Informally, the rejector is defined as a decision function to either select the local model or server model for a sample (a rigorous definition is given in Sec. 2).

A framework for training a rejector and server model given a fixed "legacy" device-bound model was recently proposed for binary classification models under the name "Learning to Help" (L2H) (Wu & Sarwate, 2024). In this work, we extend and generalize this framework to encompass a variety of problems of more practical interest. We can identify several scenarios that can arise in the context of building ML systems in those settings with a fixed local model. In particular, we demonstrate how to handle various restrictions on the use of the server:

- PAY-PER-REQUEST (PPR): the device must pay a cost each time the rejector defers to the server; as an example, the server can be thought of as a consultant who offers their services at a cost.
- INTERMITTENT AVAILABILITY (IA): in the PPR model, the rejection rule must also account for the server being potentially unavailable; for example, this can occur when the internet connection is unstable, or the server is busy servicing requests of other devices.
- BOUNDED REJECT RATE (BRR): instead of PPR, the rate of rejections/deferrals per unit time may not exceed a predefined upper limit; for example, there is a limit on the usage of some LLMs even with a paid subscription.

The L2H model is a natural complement to prior works on two-party decision systems, including *Learning with Abstention* (LWA) and *Learning to Defer* (L2D). These models either assume that rejected samples can be discarded at a fixed cost or that the server is a pre-trained "expert" and optimize decision rules for the device/rejector. As ML/AI decision systems become integrated into physical devices and infrastructure, issues of sustainability will require newer server systems to support pre-existing legacy models which can allow only partial retraining. Relatively little attention has been given to this scenario: we address the extreme case where only the rejection rule can be updated with the server.

Existing work (Wu & Sarwate, 2024) on the L2H model only studies binary classification in the PPR model. In this work, we further extend the L2H framework to multi-class problems and show how to train systems under the three scenarios mentioned above. More specifically, we propose a generalized (non-differentiable) 0-1 loss to measure the prediction system's performance and find the Bayes rule for this loss. We then provide a surrogate loss function which is convex and differentiable and show that its minimizer is consistent with the Bayes rule for the generalized 0-1 loss.

We then design algorithms which can optimize rules for training multi-class predictors in the three scenarios mentioned earlier: PPR, IA, and BRR. To guarantee BRR we use a "post-hoc" method to control the rejection rate. We show experimentally that incorporating a server model with a rejector enhances the overall performance of the ML system in all three scenarios. Training with our surrogate loss function, the rejector helps in identifying the challenging and uncertain samples, while balancing the accuracy and usage of the server model.

RELATED WORKS

Hybrid ML systems. The hybrid ML systems that consist of client side and server side, have been of substantial research in many fields, including federated learning (Zhang et al., 2021; McMahan et al., 2017), distributed learning (Cao et al., 2023a; Horváth et al., 2023), and decentralized learning (Sun et al., 2022; Fang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2024; Li & Han, 2023). However, those frameworks only focus on interaction between different sides during the training process. Once the training is done, no more communication is needed among them. In this work, we are interested in the collaboration between client and server both in the training and inference phases.

Learning with Abstention (LWA). The foundational work that first considered extra options for recognition tasks was proposed by Chow (1957) and Chow (1970). Herbei & Wegkamp (2006) revisit the framework in classification tasks and propose a score-based reject method. Subsequent works extend this framework to different types of classifiers (Rigollet, 2007; Wegkamp, 2007; Bartlett & Wegkamp, 2008; Wegkamp & Yuan, 2011). Cortes et al. (2016) consider a separate function to make reject decisions in binary classification. Zhu & Nowak (2022b;a) introduce the reject option in active learning. Cortes et al. (2018) add abstention to online learning. Zhang et al. (2024) consider the rejection rule when the data distribution contains noisy labels. Yin et al. (2024)

use rejection for ensuring fairness. Mao et al. (2024d) and Mao et al. (2024c) analyze the theoretical bounds and algorithms for score-based and predictor-rejector-based methods, respectively.

Unlike the setting where rejection incurs an extra cost, few works focus on scenarios with no extra cost for rejection, but the reject rate is bounded. Pietraszek (2005) construct the rejection rule using ROC analysis. Denis & Hebiri (2020) derive the Bayes optimal classifier for the bounded reject rate setting. Shekhar et al. (2020) consider binary classification with bounded reject rates in the active learning setting. In LWA, although there are works that can identify data samples that are uncertain or challenging for the local model to predict, the subsequent action is merely to discard those samples without providing an answer. While this framework can indeed improve prediction accuracy, the system still cannot handle the samples that are challenging for the local model.

Learning to Defer (L2D). Building upon LWA, Madras et al. (2018) were the first to consider a subsequent expert can process the rejected samples. Raghu et al. (2019) consider binary classification with expert deferral using uncertainty estimators. Mozannar & Sontag (2020a) propose the first method that jointly trains the local model and rejector in multi-class classification. Verma & Nalisnick (2022); Mozannar et al. (2023); Hemmer et al. (2023); Cao et al. (2023b) propose different surrogate loss functions for L2D. Okati et al. (2021) and Narasimhan et al. (2022) add post-hoc algorithms to the cases where the reject decision incurs extra cost.

Seeking help from multiple experts has been explored in different machine learning models (Kerrigan et al., 2021; Keswani et al., 2021; Corvelo Benz & Gomez Rodriguez, 2022; Hemmer et al., 2022). Verma et al. (2022) extend the one-vs-all-parameterized L2D to the multiple experts case. Mao et al. (2023) study a two-stage scenario for L2D with multiple experts. Mozannar et al. (2023) provide a linear-programming formulation that optimally solve L2D in the linear setting. Verma et al. (2023) incorporate a conformal inference technique for multiple experts. Tailor et al. (2024) formulate a L2D system that can cope with never-before-seen experts. Mao et al. (2024b) introduce regression with deferral to multiple experts. Mao et al. (2024a) present a theoretical study of surrogate losses and algorithms for L2D with multiple experts. L2D complements the missing part of LWA; that is, after a reject decision, instead of being discarded, samples are sent to remote experts for predictions. However, in L2D, the experts on the server side are assumed to be either human or well-trained ML models, which are fixed during the training process. L2D focuses on training the local model and the rejector under the existence of expert models. This framework cannot handle the cases described in Sec. 1, where local models are legacy systems that have been deployed to the client side, and retraining the local models is not available.

Learning to Help (L2H). Learning to Help (L2H) (Wu & Sarwate, 2024) is a complementary model to L2D whose aim is to train a server model and rejector to enhance the usability of systems containing a "legacy" local ML model that is unavailable for updating or retraining. The prior work focused on binary classification in the PPR setting and proposes a surrogate loss function that requires model-based calibration. This cannot be directly extended to multi-class problems due to issues with differentiability. In this work we generalize this model to multi-class problems and more scenarios (see Appendix A for a comparison).

2 Problem Formulation

We consider a decision system with two parties: a *client* and the *server*. We think of the client as a device with relatively limited computational power while the server has access to more computing resources. We study a multi-class problem in which the goal is to learn a prediction function $f\colon \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$, where $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^l$ is a space of instances/feature vectors with l dimensions and $\mathcal{Y} = [K] \triangleq \{1, 2, \ldots, K\}$ is a set of labels.

The L2H decision system (See Fig. 1) is constrained to have a certain architecture: in operation, the client receives an input x and has two options: it can either make a prediction $\hat{y}_{\text{local}}$ locally on the client or forward the input ("defer") x to the remote server which produces a response $\hat{y}_{\text{remote}}$. We can represent this system by a tuple of functions $(r(x), m(x), e(x))$, where the client side has a reject function $r(x)$ and prediction function $m(x)$ and the server has a prediction function $e(x)$. The function $r(x)$ makes a binary choice representing the client's choice to use from those two options and then lets either $m(x)$ or $e(x)$ make a prediction for x.

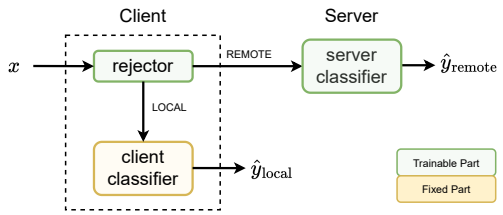

Figure 1: Diagram of learning to help framework.

We assume that the training algorithm has access to training set $\{(x_i, y_i) : i \in [n]\}$ of n feature-label pairs in $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. For the purposes of analysis we make the standard assumption (Vapnik, 2010; Shalev-Shwartz & Ben-David, 2014) that random variables of feature vector X and label Y are sampled independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.) according to an unknown distribution $\mathcal{D}$.

The function $r\colon \mathcal{X} \to \{\text{LOCAL}, \text{REMOTE}\}$, known as the *rejection rule* or *rejector*, determines whether the client should label the input locally or send it to the remote server for labeling. Formally, if $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$, the client uses the local classifier $m(x)$ to provide a label. Conversely, if $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$, the client forwards sample x to the server, which then labels the input using remote classifier $e(x)$.

For the functions $r(x)$, $m(x)$, and $e(x)$, there are four possible outcomes for a given sample (x, y). The first event occurs when $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$ and $m(x) = y$, representing a correct decision by the client. The second event is when $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$ and $m(x) \neq y$ indicate an error by the client. The third event occurs when $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$ and $e(x) = y$, representing a correct decision by the server. The fourth event is when $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$ and $e(x) \neq y$, indicate an error by the server. We define the costs associated with each of these outcomes as c_{cc}, c_{ce}, c_{sc}, and c_{se}, respectively. For the scenarios discussed in Sec. 1, our goal is to provide accurate predictions, satisfying $c_{\text{cc}} \leq c_{\text{ce}}$ and $c_{\text{sc}} \leq c_{\text{se}}$, as well as instant predictions, satisfying $c_{\text{cc}} \leq c_{\text{sc}}$ and $c_{\text{ce}} \leq c_{\text{se}}$. Based on four outcomes and corresponding costs, the general loss function of this two-side framework given sample (x, y) is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} L(r, e, x, y, m) = {} & c_{\text{cc}} \mathbf{1}_{m(x)=y} \mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{LOCAL}} + c_{\text{ce}} \mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq y} \mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{LOCAL}} \\ & + c_{\text{sc}} \mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y} \mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{REMOTE}} + c_{\text{se}} \mathbf{1}_{e(x)\neq y} \mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{REMOTE}}, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{1}_{[\cdot]}$ is the indicator function. The expected loss, also known as risk, is defined as $R(r, m, e) \triangleq \mathbf{E}_{(X,Y)\sim\mathcal{D}}[L(r, e, x, y, m)]$. The *Bayes Classifiers* then defined as: $r^B, m^B, e^B \in \arg\min_{r,m,e} R(r, m, e)$. Jointly training all three functions is trivial because the Bayes classifiers satisfy $m^B = e^B = \arg\max_i \eta_i(x)$, where

$$\eta_i(x) = P(Y = i \mid X = x) \tag{2}$$

represents the regression function for i-th class. The proof is similar with Proposition 2 derived by Mozannar & Sontag (2020b). Since the Bayes client classifier equals the Bayes server classifier, together with the cost constraints stated above, we have $r^B(x) = \text{LOCAL}$, for all x. No input will be sent to the server.

Since jointly training three functions leads to a trivial solution, we focus on a constrained but still interesting case, *learning to help* (L2H), where the client classifier cannot be updated or retrained (Fig. 1). While the prior work on L2H only considers binary classification, in this paper we extend the approach to multi-class problems.

2.1 GENERALIZED 0-1 LOSS FOR MULTI-CLASS CLASSIFICATION

To extend L2H to multi-class classification, we consider a special case of the general loss function (equation 1), often referred to as the generalized 0-1 loss in binary classification for L2H. In the generalized 0-1 loss, the parameters are defined as follows: $c_{\text{cc}} = 0$, $c_{\text{ce}} = 1$, $c_{\text{sc}} = c_{\text{e}}$, and $c_{\text{se}} = c_{\text{e}} + c_1$. The idea behind this setup is that there is no cost when the local prediction is correct, but a cost of 1 is incurred when the local prediction is incorrect. Therefore, we set $c_{\text{cc}} = 0$ and $c_{\text{ce}} = 1$. Additionally, recall the interesting settings we mentioned in Sec. 1; requesting

assistance from a remote server is not free. Once a sample is sent to the server, a constant *reject cost* c_{e} is incurred, regardless of the server's prediction. Therefore, $c_{\mathrm{sc}} = c_{\mathrm{e}}$. Furthermore, if the server prediction is incorrect, an additional penalty *inaccuracy cost* c_1 is imposed to account for the mistake. It is important to note that c_1 may be greater than 1, especially in critical scenarios such as medical diagnoses, where expert misdiagnoses can lead to more severe consequences. As a result, we set $c_{\mathrm{se}} = c_{\mathrm{e}} + c_1$. In summary, the generalized 0-1 loss for multi-class classification for L2H is defined as:

$$L_{\mathrm{general}}(r, e, x, y; m) = \mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\mathrm{LOCAL}} + c_{\mathrm{e}}\mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\mathrm{REMOTE}} + (c_{\mathrm{e}} + c_1)\mathbf{1}_{e(x)\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\mathrm{REMOTE}}. \tag{3}$$

As discussed previously, we assume that $m(x)$ is fixed while jointly training $r(x)$ and $e(x)$. The risk of equation 3 is defined as $R_{\mathrm{general}} \triangleq \mathbf{E}_{(X,Y)\sim\mathcal{D}}[L_{\mathrm{general}}(r, e, x, y; m)]$ and the *Bayes Classifiers for multi-class L2H* is defined as:

$$r^B, e^B \in \arg\min_{r,e} R_{\mathrm{general}}(r, e; m). \tag{4}$$

The existence of these two Bayes classifiers will be proved in the next subsection.

2.2 Bayes optimal rejector and server classifier

In this subsection, we derive the Bayes classifiers as defined in equation 4 for both rejector and server classifier with a fixed client classifier $m(x)$ under generalized 0-1 loss function in equation 3. As mentioned at the beginning of Sec. 2, the task we considered is multi-class classification. The client classifier $m(x)$ and server classifier $e(x)$ are multi-class classifiers with output to be one label among K classes. The rejector $r(x)$ is a binary classifier with two possible labels: LOCAL and REMOTE, which means either making a prediction on the client or on the server. The rejector $r(x)$ will give a label LOCAL to x if $r(x) > 0$ and give a label REMOTE to x when $r(x) \leq 0$. Without loss of generality, we assume that for the Bayes classifier of rejector, $r^B(x) \in \{+1, -1\}$.

As discussed after equation 3, we consider the case where the client classifier m is given and fixed during training. The output of the client classifier depends on input sample x, which can either be deterministic or stochastic, depending on the machine learning model of m. We formally consider the case where the client classifiers consist of K sub-functions, say $[m_1(x), m_2(x), \cdots, m_K(x)]$. The i-th sub-function $m_i(x)$ represents the score for i-th class on sample x. Then the prediction of client classifier is $\arg\max_i m_i(x)$. For simplicity, we assume that $\arg\max_i m_i(x)$ is unique. Choosing the class that has the highest output score as prediction is a standard operation for multi-class classification. In the following analysis, we assume that the output of client is a random variable M conditioned on the input x (Neal, 2012).

Theorem 2.1. *Given a client classifier $m(x)$, the solutions of Bayes classifiers (defined in equation 4) for generalized 0-1 loss under the space of all measurable functions are:*

$$e^B = \arg\max_i \eta_i(x), \tag{5}$$

where $\eta_i(x)$ is defined in equation 2 and

$$r^B = \mathbf{1}[\eta_{j^*(x)}(x) > (1 - c_e - c_1) + c_1 \max_i \eta_i(x)] \cdot 2 - 1, \tag{6}$$

where $j^*(x) \triangleq \arg\max_j m_j(x)$.

The proof is given in Appendix C. By Theorem 2.1, we find that the Bayes classifier for the servers e^B is the same as the Bayes classifier for single classifiers (right side of equation 5). Also, the Bayes classifier for rejector r^B compares the posterior risk (expected loss) for two different decisions: predicting on the client classifier or predicting on the server classifier. The function $\eta_{j^*(x)}(x)$ is the regression function for class predicted by client classifier $m(x)$, while $\max_i \eta_i(x)$ is the regression function of the class predicted by server classifier. A larger value of the regression function tends to pull a sample to the classifier corresponding to the $\eta_i(x)$ because the regression function here means how likely that a sample belongs to the class predicted either by $m(x)$ or $e^B(x)$. If we write the right-hand side of the inequality inside the indicator (from equation 6) in another form:

$(1 - c_e - c_1) + c_1 \max_i \eta_i(x) = 1 - c_e - c_1(1 - \max_i \eta_i(x))$, it's clear that larger c_e and c_1 would impede reject decision. This result coincides with the intuition in scenarios we are interested in: if inquiring servers are likely to be more costly, we tend to finish tasks without asking for help too often.

However, we cannot directly get the Bayes classifiers (e^B, r^B) in real-world tasks. To see this, in reality, we don't have the knowledge of the distribution $\mathcal{D}$ of the data set. Furthermore, we cannot approach the Bayes optimal classifiers through gradient-based methods because the generalized 0-1 loss (equation 3) is not differentiable since it contains variables in the indicator function. To solve this problem, we propose a surrogate loss function in Sec. 3. We show that the surrogate loss function is differentiable and convex, and optimal solutions of this surrogate loss function are consistent with the Bayes optimal classifiers.

3 STAGE-SWITCHING SURROGATE LOSS FUNCTION

In Sec. 2.2, the Bayes classifiers we derived minimize the risk of generalized 0-1 loss (equation 3). Since the distribution of the data set is unknown and the loss function is not differentiable, it's computationally intractable to get (e^B, r^B) by solving equation 4. Another potential concern comes from the framework of the client-server system. In this system, the rejector is placed on the client side while the server classifier is placed on the server side, which requires synchronous updates between two sides while searching for the solution of the problem equation 4. In scenarios where the connection between the client and server is unstable, or bandwidth is limited as discussed in Sec. 1, continuously synchronizing the client and server during training becomes costly. These conditions necessitate that both the rejector and server classifier be capable of being trained in an asynchronous setting.

Similar with the definition of client classifier $m(x)$ in Sec. 2.2, we consider the case where server classifier $e(x)$ also consists of K sub-functions, denoted as $[e_1(x), e_2(x), \cdots, e_K(x)]$. The prediction of the server classifier is $\arg\max_i e_i(x)$ and assumed to be unique. We further consider the case that the rejector consists of 2 sub-functions, say $[r_1(x), r_2(x)]$, where r_1 stands for the score of LOCAL while r_2 stands for the score of REMOTE. In accordance with the space of r^B as stated in Sec. 2.2, the output of the rejector is defined as $r(x) \triangleq \mathbf{1}[r_1(x) > r_2(x)] \cdot 2 - 1$. Based on the definitions stated above, we propose a *stage-switching* surrogate loss function, which is differentiable and can be used in both synchronous and asynchronous settings. The surrogate loss function is defined as:

$$L_{\mathrm{S}}(r, e, x, y; m) = L_1(e, x, y) + L_2(r, e, x, y; m) \tag{7}$$

where

$$L_1(e, x, y) = -\ln \frac{\exp(e_y(x))}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \exp(e_j(x))}, \tag{8}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} L_2(r, e, x, y; m) = &-(1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y}) \ln \frac{\exp(r_2(x))}{\exp(r_2(x)) + \exp(r_1(x))} \\ &- \mathbf{1}_{m(x)=y} \ln \frac{\exp(r_1(x))}{\exp(r_2(x)) + \exp(r_1(x))}. \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Similarly, the surrogate risk is defined as

$$R_{\mathrm{S}} \triangleq \mathbf{E}_{(X,Y)\sim\mathcal{D}}[L_{\mathrm{S}}(r, e, x, y; m)]. \tag{10}$$

The surrogate loss function is designed as the summation of two sub-loss functions, L_1 and L_2 [1]. In the training process, we iteratively update the rejector or the server classifier while keeping the other fixed under each sub-loss function at one stage. Specifically, in *server stage*, we update the parameters of the server classifier under the sub-loss function L_1 while keeping the rejector unchanged, and in *rejector stage*, we update the parameters of rejector r under sub-loss function L_2 while

[1] Minimizing R_{S} now becomes an additive composite optimization problem (Boyd et al., 2011; He & Yuan, 2012; Nesterov, 2013; Li & Han, 2022).

keeping server classifier unchanged. The way of switching stages depends on specific synchronous or asynchronous settings. Notice that the client classifier $m(x)$ is always fixed in all stages in the L2H framework. Detailed comparison with previous surrogate loss function for binary L2H is in Appendix A and comparison with direct extensions from other proposed surrogate loss functions in LWA and L2D is attached in Appendix B. The results show that previous works can not fully cover the settings that we are interested in.

Based on the stage-switching training method, the surrogate loss function is differentiable in all stages. In the server stage, the sub-surrogate loss function L_1 is the same as the cross-entropy loss function. In the rejector stage, for each given input sample x with true label y, the indicator $\mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y}$ and $\mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y}$ are constants, that is, either one or zero. In either case, L_2 is differentiable since only the r_1 and r_2 are variables in this stage, and we can calculate the gradient with respect to r_1 and r_2. What's more, both L_1 and L_2 are convex w.r.t. e as shown in the following subsection.

3.1 Convexity and Monotonicity of the Surrogate Loss Function

In the following proposition, we show that in both stages, the sub-surrogate loss function L_1 and L_2 are both convex or monotone.

Proposition 3.1. *For each given (x, y), the loss function L_1 is convex over $e_i(x)$, for any $i \in [K]$; and the loss function L_2 is:*

- *convex over $r_1(x)$ and $r_2(x)$, when $1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1\mathbf{1}_{e=y} > 0$;*
- *monotonically decreasing over r_1 and monotonically increasing over r_2 when $1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1\mathbf{1}_{e=y} \leq 0$.*

The proof is given in Appendix D. The convexity of a function ensures that we can find the global minimizer through gradient-related optimization methods (Boyd & Vandenberghe, 2004; Nesterov, 2014). As for the monotonicity of L_2 when $1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1\mathbf{1}_{e=y} \geq 0$, we will show that in Theorem 3.2, this property can help for solving the corner case in the proof. Based on differentiability, convexity, or monotonicity, we prove in Sec. 3.2 that our proposed surrogate loss function is consistent, that is, any minimizer of the surrogate risk (equation 10) also minimizes the generalized 0-1 risk of equation 3, referring to the consistency defined in Section 2.2 by Cao et al. (2023b).

3.2 Consistency of Surrogate Loss Function

In this subsection, we verify the consistency between the surrogate loss function (equation 7) and the generalized 0-1 loss function (equation 3). Formally, we prove the following theorem:

Theorem 3.2. *Under the space of all measurable functions, the surrogate loss function (equation 7) is consistent with the generalized 0-1 loss function (equation 3), that is, the minimizer of the risk of surrogate loss function also minimizes the risk of original loss function:*

$$r^*, e^* \in \arg\min_{r,e} R_{\text{general}}(r, e; m),$$

for all $r^*, e^* \in \arg\min_{r,e} R_{\text{S}}(r, e; m)$.

The proof is given in Appendix E. As shown in Theorem 3.2, the function spaces for server classifier e and rejector r are both spaces of all measurable functions; training our model with this stage-switching surrogate loss function would eventually lead to Bayes classifiers, which is the global optimal solution.

In summary, we propose a stage-switching surrogate loss function, which is differentiable, convex, or monotone, and theoretically prove that this surrogate loss function is consistent. Based on those properties of our surrogate loss function, practical optimization methods can be conducted to derive the empirical minimizer of surrogate risk R_{S}, as defined in equation 10, with a finite number of data samples in real-world scenarios. In the next section, we propose computationally feasible algorithms for different settings PPR, IA, and BRR discussed in Sec. 1.

4 COMPUTATIONALLY FEASIBLE ALGORITHMS FOR LEARNING TO HELP

The stage-switching surrogate loss function that we propose in equation 7 ensures the usability of gradient-based optimization methods to train the rejector and server classifiers with flexibility in three settings we discuss in Section 1: PPR, IA, and BRR settings.

The training in the server stage is the same for all three settings since L_1 is only a function of the server classifier; no knowledge of the rejector or client classifier is needed. In the rejector stage, we set up different algorithms based on the constraints in different settings. Besides, for BRR settings, we propose post-hoc Algo. 4 and 5 after standard training. Since the stage-switching surrogate loss function is differentiable, any gradient-based optimization method can be used for training our model. To reduce the computation, we use Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) for presentation.

Pay-Per-Request (PPR) Recall the scenarios we depict in Section 1, in the PPR setting, we consider that the client is always connected with the server; that is, the rejector has instant access to the latest version of server classifier $e(x)$ during the whole training phase. This setting works for scenarios where the connection is in real-time, and the bandwidth is ample and free during training, but each request conducts payment.

We design a synchronized algorithm, Algo. 1, that works for the PPR setting. The algorithm iteratively runs in the server stage, and in the rejector stage for each pair of samples and labels (x, y). In the server stage, the server classifier $e(x)$ is updated by the sub-loss L_1. In the rejector stage, the current $e(x)$ is instantly shared with the rejector. Together with the outputs of the fixed client classifier and current server classifier, the sub-loss L_2 is calculated to update the rejector.

Algorithm 1 Optimization With Our Surrogate Loss Function

Input: Training set $\{(x_i, y_i) : i \in [n]\}$, Fixed client classifier m, Rejector r^0, Sever classifier e^0, Constant cost c_1 and c_e.

1: **for** $t = 1$ to n **do**
2: $\quad L_1^t(x_t, y_t) = -\ln \frac{\exp(e_{y_t}(x_t))}{\sum_j \exp(e_j(x_t))}$
3: $\quad e^t \leftarrow \texttt{SGD}(L_1^t(x_t, y_t), e^{t-1})$
4: $\quad L_2^t(x_t, y_t) = -\mathbf{1}_{m(x_t)=y_t} \ln \frac{\exp(r_1(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))} - (1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e^t(x_t)=y_t}) \ln \frac{\exp(r_2(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))}$
5: $\quad r^t \leftarrow \texttt{SGD}(L_2(x_t, y_t), r_{t-1})$
6: **end for**
7: **return** r^n, e^n

Intermittent Availability (IA) In the IA setting, the connection between the client and the server is not always available. This scenario may happen in any distributed system that is connected to the public network because of traffic control. Also in private networks, connection may be lost due to instability of the network. If we still train our model with synchronized algorithm 1, the training process will be postponed once the connection is delayed or lost. Holding the status of both the rejector and server classifier will cause a waste of resources and time.

Our stage-switching surrogate loss function in equation 7 consists of two sub-loss functions. An asynchronized algorithm is best to tackle those issues. The idea is to separately train the server classifier with L_1 on the server side and train the rejector with L_2 while keeping a temporary version of the server classifier e^- on the client side. The e^- will be updated only when the intermittent connection between client and server is built. Considering that the client and server only connect every S time slot we propose the asynchronized training algorithm in Algo. 2. In line 4 of Algo. 2, the server connects with the client and sends the current server classifier e as the latest e^-. In line 5, we calculate the L_2 loss with stored server classifier e^-.

Bounded-Reject-Rate (BRR) While a few works focus on the BRR setting in L2D and L2H frameworks, the setting is indeed realistic. For example, subscribers of `ChatGPT` or other AI assistants don't pay extra money for each inquiry to advanced models, but they are allowed to only

Algorithm 2 Asynchronous Optimization With Our Surrogate Loss Function

Input: Training set $\{(x_i, y_i) \mid i \in [n]\}$, Fixed client classifier m, Rejector r^0, Sever classifier e^0, Constant cost c_1 and c_e, Synchronization interval S, .

for $t = 1$ to n **do**
  $L_1^t(x_t, y_t) = -\ln \frac{\exp(e_{y_t}(x_t))}{\sum_j \exp(e_j(x_t))}$
  $e^t \leftarrow \mathtt{SGD}(L_1^t(x_t, y_t), e^{t-1})$
  if $t \bmod S = 1$ **then** $e^- \leftarrow e^t$ **end if**
  $L_2^t(x_t, y_t) = -(1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e^-(x_t)=y_t}) \ln \frac{\exp(r_2(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))} - \mathbf{1}_{m(x_t)=y_t} \ln \frac{\exp(r_1(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))}$
  $r^t \leftarrow \mathtt{SGD}(L_2(x_t, y_t), r_{t-1})$
end for
return r^n, e^n

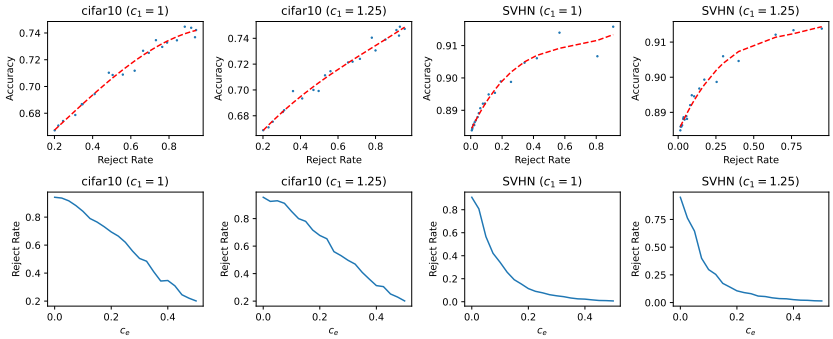

Figure 2: Impact of c_e nad c_1 on accuracy and reject rate. First row: change of accuracy as reject rate changes; Second row: change of reject rate as reject cost c_e changes.

ask an assigned number of questions each hour during peak hours. In this setting, we consider that making a reject decision and sending samples to the server is free, but the number of samples that can be sent to the server in units of time, i.e., reject rate, has a fixed upper bound q. There are two concerns in this setting: a) the rejector should actively pick up the samples that have higher accuracy on the server classifier compared to the client classifier; b) the actual reject rate in the inference phase should be bounded.

To address the concerns stated above, we propose stochastic post-hoc algorithms in Algo. 3, 4, and 5. These algorithms sample random variables to decide either sending extra samples to server when empirical reject rate is lower than upper bound q or keep a portion of rejected samples locally when it's higher than upper bound q. By conducting this stochastic post-hoc algorithm, we can ensure the bounded reject rate while making the best use of server classifier. The detailed discussions and algorithms are in Appendix F.

5 Experiment

In this section, we test the proposed surrogate loss function in equation 7 and algorithms for different settings on CIFAR-10 (Krizhevsky & Hinton, 2009), SVHN (Netzer et al., 2011) , and CIFAR-100 (Krizhevsky & Hinton, 2009) datasets.

In our experiments, the base network structure for the client classifier and the rejector is LeNet-5, and the server classifier is either AlexNet or ViT. The client classifier is trained solely and works as a fixed model in the following process. Since Algo. 1 is the basic algorithm for our multi-class L2H framework, we start from the evaluation for the PPR setting.

Trade-off accuracy and reject rate on reject cost and inaccuracy cost In this experiment, we evaluate the impact of reject cost c_e and inaccuracy cost c_1 on the overall accuracy and reject rate,

Table 1: Contrastive Evaluation Results with $c_1 = 1.25$ and $c_e = 0.25$

	cifar10 (%)				SVHN (%)			
	ratio	m	e	differ.	ratio	m	e	differ.
data with $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	44.11	73.9	81.9	**8.0**	91.71	90.6	93.3	**2.7**
data with $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	55.9	54.5	67.7	**13.2**	8.29	61.2	72.8	**11.6**

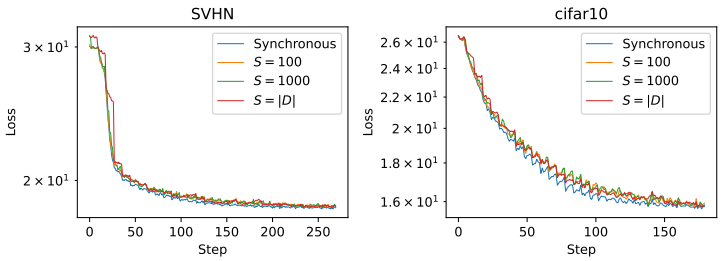

Figure 3: Comparison of the training loss for different synchronized settings.

respectively. Specifically, we choose c_e from an interval between $[0, 0.5]$ with fixed inaccuracy costs $c_1 = 1$ and $c_1 = 1.25$. From Fig. 2 we see that, incorporating a server classifier indeed helps increase the overall accuracy, while both the cost of rejection and inaccuracy on the server will balance the usage of the client classifier and server classifier.

Contrastive evaluation over client and server classifiers To see what the rejector learns in training and how it works in the inference phase, we conduct a contrastive evaluation, where in the inference phase, we split the testing set into a rejected subset and non-rejected subset, according to the output of $r(x)$. We test the accuracy of the rejected and non-rejected subset on both the client classifier $m(x)$ and the server classifier $e(x)$. The result is shown in Table 1, which implies that the rejector mostly only sends the samples that are predicted inaccurately on $m(x)$ while predicted more accurately on $e(x)$ to the server end. Column "ratio" indicates the percentage of samples over dataset have the same $r(x)$. For different c_e and c_1, the results are similar as shown in Appendix G.

Convergence rate comparison over synchronization and asynchronization We compare the convergence rate and accuracy with models trained by Algo. 1 for PPR and that trained by Algo. 2 for IA. The accuracy performances are similar in both algorithms, as compared Table 1 with Table 7 in Appendix G. This result coincides with the comparison in Fig. 3, where a larger synchronization interval S causes a slower convergence rate but converges to the same level of loss. The experiment results are in line with our expectation since the minimizers of our surrogate loss function derived in Theorem 3.2, are independent to specific optimization algorithms.

Experiments for stochastic post-hoc Algorithm 3, 4, and 5, its comparison with randomly reject under BRR settings, experiments on CIFAR-100 with server classifier to be ViT, together with other additional experiment materials, are in Appendix G.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we extend the Learning to Help framework to address multi-class classification with different resource constraints: Pay-Per-Request, Intermittent Availability, and Bounded Reject Rate. By introducing a stage-switching surrogate loss function, we enabled effective training of both the server-side classifier and the rejector with computationally feasible algorithms for three settings. Our experimental results demonstrate that the proposed methods offer a practical and efficient solution for multi-class classification, aligning with the theoretical guarantees we established. This work opens new opportunities for further exploration of multi-party collaboration in hybrid machine learning systems, especially in the era of LLM.

REFERENCES

Taiwo Samuel Ajani, Agbotiname Lucky Imoize, and Aderemi A. Atayero. An overview of machine learning within embedded and mobile devices–optimizations and applications. *Sensors*, 21 (13), 2021. ISSN 1424-8220. doi: 10.3390/s21134412. URL https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/21/13/4412.

Peter L. Bartlett and Marten H. Wegkamp. Classification with a reject option using a hinge loss. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 9:1823–1840, June 2008. ISSN 1532-4435.

Amin Biglari and Wei Tang. A review of embedded machine learning based on hardware, application, and sensing scheme. *Sensors*, 23(4), 2023. ISSN 1424-8220. doi: 10.3390/s23042131. URL https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8220/23/4/2131.

Stephen Boyd and Lieven Vandenberghe. *Convex Optimization*. Cambridge University Press, 2004.

Stephen Boyd, Neal Parikh, Eric Chu, Borja Peleato, and Jonathan Eckstein. Distributed optimization and statistical learning via the alternating direction method of multipliers. *Foundations and Trends® in Machine Learning*, 3(1):1–122, 2011. ISSN 1935-8237. doi: 10.1561/2200000016. URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1561/2200000016.

Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal, Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M. Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, NeurIPS '20, Red Hook, NY, USA, 2020. Curran Associates Inc. ISBN 9781713829546.

Xuanyu Cao, Tamer Başar, Suhas Diggavi, Yonina C. Eldar, Khaled B. Letaief, H. Vincent Poor, and Junshan Zhang. Communication-efficient distributed learning: An overview. *IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications*, 41(4):851–873, 2023a. doi: 10.1109/JSAC.2023.3242710.

Yuzhou Cao, Hussein Mozannar, Lei Feng, Hongxin Wei, and Bo An. In defense of softmax parametrization for calibrated and consistent learning to defer. In A. Oh, T. Naumann, A. Globerson, K. Saenko, M. Hardt, and S. Levine (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 36, pp. 38485–38503. Curran Associates, Inc., 2023b. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2023/file/791d3337291b2c574545aeecfa75484c-Paper-Conference.pdf.

C. Chow. On optimum recognition error and reject tradeoff. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 16(1):41–46, 1970. doi: 10.1109/TIT.1970.1054406.

C. K. Chow. An optimum character recognition system using decision functions. *IRE Transactions on Electronic Computers*, EC-6(4):247–254, December 1957. ISSN 0367-9950. doi: 10.1109/TEC.1957.5222035.

Corinna Cortes, Giulia DeSalvo, and Mehryar Mohri. Learning with rejection. In Ronald Ortner, Hans Ulrich Simon, and Sandra Zilles (eds.), *Algorithmic Learning Theory*, pp. 67–82, Cham, 2016. Springer International Publishing. ISBN 978-3-319-46379-7. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-46379-7_5. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46379-7{_}5.

Corinna Cortes, Giulia DeSalvo, Claudio Gentile, Mehryar Mohri, and Scott Yang. Online learning with abstention. In Jennifer Dy and Andreas Krause (eds.), *Proceedings of the 35th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 80 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 1059–1067. PMLR, 10–15 Jul 2018. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v80/cortes18a.html.

Nina L. Corvelo Benz and Manuel Gomez Rodriguez. Counterfactual inference of second opinions. In James Cussens and Kun Zhang (eds.), *Proceedings of the Thirty-Eighth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, volume 180 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp.

453–463. PMLR, 01–05 Aug 2022. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v180/corvelo-benz22a.html.

Thomas M Cover and Joy A Thomas. *Elements of Information Theory*. John Wiley & Sons, 2nd edition, 2005. doi: 10.1002/047174882X. URL https://doi.org/10.1002/047174882X.

Christophe Denis and Mohamed Hebiri. Consistency of plug-in confidence sets for classification in semi-supervised learning. *Journal of Nonparametric Statistics*, 32(1):42–72, January 2020. ISSN 1048-5252. doi: 10.1080/10485252.2019.1689241.

Cheng Fang, Zhixiong Yang, and Waheed U. Bajwa. BRIDGE: Byzantine-Resilient Decentralized Gradient Descent. *IEEE Transactions on Signal and Information Processing over Networks*, 8: 610–626, 2022. ISSN 2373-776X. doi: 10.1109/TSIPN.2022.3188456.

Zihao Fu, Haoran Yang, Anthony Man-Cho So, Wai Lam, Lidong Bing, and Nigel Collier. On the effectiveness of parameter-efficient fine-tuning. *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 37(11):12799–12807, June 2023. ISSN 2374-3468. doi: 10.1609/aaai.v37i11.26505.

Tom Gunter, Zirui Wang, Chong Wang, Ruoming Pang, Andy Narayanan, Aonan Zhang, Bowen Zhang, Chen Chen, Chung-Cheng Chiu, David Qiu, Deepak Gopinath, Dian Ang Yap, Dong Yin, Feng Nan, Floris Weers, Guoli Yin, Haoshuo Huang, Jianyu Wang, Jiarui Lu, John Peebles, Ke Ye, Mark Lee, Nan Du, Qibin Chen, Quentin Keunebroek, Sam Wiseman, Syd Evans, Tao Lei, Vivek Rathod, Xiang Kong, Xianzhi Du, Yanghao Li, Yongqiang Wang, Yuan Gao, Zaid Ahmed, Zhaoyang Xu, Zhiyun Lu, Al Rashid, Albin Madappally Jose, Alec Doane, Alfredo Bencomo, Allison Vanderby, Andrew Hansen, Ankur Jain, Anupama Mann Anupama, Areeba Kamal, Bugu Wu, Carolina Brum, Charlie Maalouf, Chinguun Erdenebileg, Chris Dulhanty, Dominik Moritz, Doug Kang, Eduardo Jimenez, Evan Ladd, Fangping Shi, Felix Bai, Frank Chu, Fred Hohman, Hadas Kotek, Hannah Gillis Coleman, Jane Li, Jeffrey Bigham, Jeffery Cao, Jeff Lai, Jessica Cheung, Jiulong Shan, Joe Zhou, John Li, Jun Qin, Karanjeet Singh, Karla Vega, Kelvin Zou, Laura Heckman, Lauren Gardiner, Margit Bowler, Maria Cordell, Meng Cao, Nicole Hay, Nilesh Shahdadpuri, Otto Godwin, Pranay Dighe, Pushyami Rachapudi, Ramsey Tantawi, Roman Frigg, Sam Davarnia, Sanskruti Shah, Saptarshi Guha, Sasha Sirovica, Shen Ma, Shuang Ma, Simon Wang, Sulgi Kim, Suma Jayaram, Vaishaal Shankar, Varsha Paidi, Vivek Kumar, Xin Wang, Xin Zheng, Walker Cheng, Yael Shrager, Yang Ye, Yasu Tanaka, Yihao Guo, Yunsong Meng, Zhao Tang Luo, Zhi Ouyang, Alp Aygar, Alvin Wan, Andrew Walkingshaw, Andy Narayanan, Antonie Lin, Arsalan Farooq, Brent Ramerth, Colorado Reed, Chris Bartels, Chris Chaney, David Riazati, Eric Liang Yang, Erin Feldman, Gabriel Hochstrasser, Guillaume Seguin, Irina Belousova, Joris Pelemans, Karen Yang, Keivan Alizadeh Vahid, Liangliang Cao, Mahyar Najibi, Marco Zuliani, Max Horton, Minsik Cho, Nikhil Bhendawade, Patrick Dong, Piotr Maj, Pulkit Agrawal, Qi Shan, Qichen Fu, Regan Poston, Sam Xu, Shuangning Liu, Sushma Rao, Tashweena Heeramun, Thomas Merth, Uday Rayala, Victor Cui, Vivek Rangarajan Sridhar, Wencong Zhang, Wenqi Zhang, Wentao Wu, Xingyu Zhou, Xinwen Liu, Yang Zhao, Yin Xia, Zhile Ren, and Zhongzheng Ren. Apple intelligence foundation language models, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.21075.

Lucjan Hanzlik, Yang Zhang, Kathrin Grosse, Ahmed Salem, Maximilian Augustin, Michael Backes, and Mario Fritz. Mlcapsule: Guarded offline deployment of machine learning as a service. In *2021 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops (CVPRW)*, pp. 3295–3304, 2021. doi: 10.1109/CVPRW53098.2021.00368.

Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, and Jerome Friedman. *The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction*, volume 2 of *Springer Series in Statistics*. Springer New York, New York, NY, USA, second edition, 2009. doi: 978-0-387-84858-7. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-84858-7.

Bingsheng He and Xiaoming Yuan. On the $o(1/n)$ convergence rate of the douglas–rachford alternating direction method. *SIAM Journal on Numerical Analysis*, 50(2):700–709, 1 2012. doi: 10.1137/110836936. URL https://doi.org/10.1137/110836936.

Patrick Hemmer, Sebastian Schellhammer, Michael Vössing, Johannes Jakubik, and Gerhard Satzger. Forming effective human-ai teams: Building machine learning models that complement the capabilities of multiple experts. In Lud De Raedt (ed.), *Proceedings of the Thirty-First*

International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI-22, pp. 2478–2484. International Joint Conferences on Artificial Intelligence Organization, 7 2022. doi: 10.24963/ijcai.2022/344. URL https://doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2022/344. Main Track.

Patrick Hemmer, Lukas Thede, Michael Vössing, Johannes Jakubik, and Niklas Kühl. Learning to defer with limited expert predictions. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pp. 6002–6011, 6 2023. doi: 10.1609/aaai.v37i5.25742. URL https://ojs.aaai.org/index.php/AAAI/article/view/25742.

Radu Herbei and Marten H. Wegkamp. Classification with reject option. *The Canadian Journal of Statistics / La Revue Canadienne de Statistique*, 34(4):709–721, 2006. ISSN 03195724. URL http://www.jstor.org/stable/20445230.

Samuel Horváth, Dmitry Kovalev, Konstantin Mishchenko, Peter Richtárik, and Sebastian Stich. Stochastic distributed learning with gradient quantization and double-variance reduction. *Optimization Methods and Software*, 38(1):91–106, 2023. doi: 10.1080/10556788.2022.2117355. URL https://doi.org/10.1080/10556788.2022.2117355.

Gavin Kerrigan, Padhraic Smyth, and Mark Steyvers. Combining human predictions with model probabilities via confusion matrices and calibration. In M. Ranzato, A. Beygelzimer, Y. Dauphin, P.S. Liang, and J. Wortman Vaughan (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 34, pp. 4421–4434. Curran Associates, Inc., 2021. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2021/file/234b941e88b755b7a72a1c1dd5022f30-Paper.pdf.

Vijay Keswani, Matthew Lease, and Krishnaram Kenthapadi. Towards unbiased and accurate deferral to multiple experts. In *Proceedings of the 2021 AAAI/ACM Conference on AI, Ethics, and Society*, AIES '21, pp. 154–165, New York, NY, USA, 2021. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 9781450384735. doi: 10.1145/3461702.3462516. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/3461702.3462516.

Alex Krizhevsky and Geoffrey Hinton. Learning multiple layers of features from tiny images. Technical Report 0, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, 2009. URL https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~kriz/learning-features-2009-TR.pdf.

Yansong Li and Shuo Han. Accelerating model-free policy optimization using model-based gradient: A composite optimization perspective. In Roya Firoozi, Negar Mehr, Esen Yel, Rika Antonova, Jeannette Bohg, Mac Schwager, and Mykel Kochenderfer (eds.), *Proceedings of The 4th Annual Learning for Dynamics and Control Conference*, volume 168 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 304–315. PMLR, 23–24 Jun 2022. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v168/li22a.html.

Yansong Li and Shuo Han. Solving strongly convex and smooth stackelberg games without modeling the follower. In *2023 American Control Conference (ACC)*, pp. 2332–2337, 2023. doi: 10.23919/ACC55779.2023.10156010.

Zonghong Liu, Salim El Rouayheb, and Matthew Dwyer. The entrapment problem in random walk decentralized learning. In *2024 IEEE International Symposium on Information Theory (ISIT)*, pp. 3660–3665, 2024. doi: 10.1109/ISIT57864.2024.10619692.

Jie Lu, Anjin Liu, Fan Dong, Feng Gu, João Gama, and Guangquan Zhang. Learning under concept drift: A review. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, 31(12):2346–2363, 2019. doi: 10.1109/TKDE.2018.2876857. URL https://doi.org/10.1109/TKDE.2018.2876857.

David Madras, Toni Pitassi, and Richard Zemel. Predict responsibly: Improving fairness and accuracy by learning to defer. In S. Bengio, H. Wallach, H. Larochelle, K. Grauman, N. Cesa-Bianchi, and R. Garnett (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 31. Curran Associates, Inc., 2018. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2018/file/09d37c08f7b129e96277388757530c72-Paper.pdf.

Anqi Mao, Christopher Mohri, Mehryar Mohri, and Yutao Zhong. Two-stage learning to defer with multiple experts. In *Thirty-seventh Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2023. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=GIlsH0T4b2.

Anqi Mao, Mehryar Mohri, and Yutao Zhong. Principled approaches for learning to defer with multiple experts. In Reneta P. Barneva, Valentin E. Brimkov, Claudio Gentile, and Aldo Pacchiano (eds.), *Artificial Intelligence and Image Analysis*, pp. 107–135, Cham, 2024a. Springer Nature Switzerland. ISBN 978-3-031-63735-3. doi: 10.1007/978-3-031-63735-3{_}7. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-63735-3{_}7.

Anqi Mao, Mehryar Mohri, and Yutao Zhong. Regression with multi-expert deferral. In *Forty-First International Conference on Machine Learning*, 7 2024b. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=5NTTCCO74S.

Anqi Mao, Mehryar Mohri, and Yutao Zhong. Predictor-rejector multi-class abstention: Theoretical analysis and algorithms. In Claire Vernade and Daniel Hsu (eds.), *Proceedings of The 35th International Conference on Algorithmic Learning Theory*, volume 237 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 822–867. PMLR, 25–28 Feb 2024c. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v237/mao24a.html.

Anqi Mao, Mehryar Mohri, and Yutao Zhong. Theoretically grounded loss functions and algorithms for score-based multi-class abstention. In Sanjoy Dasgupta, Stephan Mandt, and Yingzhen Li (eds.), *Proceedings of The 27th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 238 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 4753–4761. PMLR, 02–04 May 2024d. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v238/mao24a.html.

Brendan McMahan, Eider Moore, Daniel Ramage, Seth Hampson, and Blaise Aguera y Arcas. Communication-Efficient Learning of Deep Networks from Decentralized Data. In Aarti Singh and Jerry Zhu (eds.), *Proceedings of the 20th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 54 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 1273–1282. PMLR, 20–22 Apr 2017. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v54/mcmahan17a.html.

Hussein Mozannar and David Sontag. Consistent estimators for learning to defer to an expert. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*, ICML'20. JMLR.org, 2020a.

Hussein Mozannar and David Sontag. Consistent Estimators for Learning to Defer to an Expert. In *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 7076–7087. PMLR, November 2020b.

Hussein Mozannar, Hunter Lang, Dennis Wei, Prasanna Sattigeri, Subhro Das, and David Sontag. Who should predict? exact algorithms for learning to defer to humans. In Francisco Ruiz, Jennifer Dy, and Jan-Willem van de Meent (eds.), *Proceedings of The 26th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 206 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 10520–10545. PMLR, 25–27 Apr 2023. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v206/mozannar23a.html.

Harikrishna Narasimhan, Wittawat Jitkrittum, Aditya K Menon, Ankit Rawat, and Sanjiv Kumar. Post-hoc estimators for learning to defer to an expert. In S. Koyejo, S. Mohamed, A. Agarwal, D. Belgrave, K. Cho, and A. Oh (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 35, pp. 29292–29304. Curran Associates, Inc., 2022. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2022/file/bc8f76d9caadd48f77025b1c889d2e2d-Paper-Conference.pdf.

Radford M Neal. *Bayesian Learning for Neural Networks*, volume 118 of *Lecture Notes in Statistics*. Springer New York, New York, NY, USA, 2012. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4612-0745-0. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-0745-0.

Yurii Nesterov. Gradient methods for minimizing composite functions. *Mathematical Programming*, 140(1):125–161, August 2013. ISSN 1436-4646. doi: 10.1007/s10107-012-0629-5. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/s10107-012-0629-5.

Yurii Nesterov. *Introductory Lectures on Convex Optimization: A Basic Course*. Applied Optimization. Springer New York, NY, New York, NY, USA, 1 edition, 2014. ISBN 1461346916. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4419-8853-9. URL https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-8853-9.

Yuval Netzer, Tao Wang, Adam Coates, Alessandro Bissacco, Bo Wu, and Andrew Y. Ng. Reading digits in natural images with unsupervised feature learning. In *NIPS Workshop on Deep Learning and Unsupervised Feature Learning 2011*, 2011. URL http://ufldl.stanford.edu/housenumbers/nips2011_housenumbers.pdf.

Nastaran Okati, Abir De, and Manuel Rodriguez. Differentiable learning under triage. In M. Ranzato, A. Beygelzimer, Y. Dauphin, P.S. Liang, and J. Wortman Vaughan (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 34, pp. 9140–9151. Curran Associates, Inc., 2021. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2021/file/4c4c937b67cc8d785cea1e42ccea185c-Paper.pdf.

Tadeusz Pietraszek. Optimizing abstaining classifiers using ROC analysis. In *Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Machine Learning*, ICML '05, pp. 665–672, New York, NY, USA, 2005. Association for Computing Machinery. ISBN 1595931805. doi: 10.1145/1102351.1102435. URL https://doi.org/10.1145/1102351.1102435.

Maithra Raghu, Katy Blumer, Greg Corrado, Jon Kleinberg, Ziad Obermeyer, and Sendhil Mullainathan. The algorithmic automation problem: Prediction, triage, and human effort, 2019. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/1903.12220.

Philippe Rigollet. Generalization error bounds in semi-supervised classification under the cluster assumption. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 8(49):1369–1392, 2007. URL http://jmlr.org/papers/v8/rigollet07a.html.

Shai Shalev-Shwartz and Shai Ben-David. *Understanding Machine Learning: From Theory to Algorithms*. Cambridge University Press, USA, 2014. ISBN 1107057132.

Shubhanshu Shekhar, Mohammad Ghavamzadeh, and Tara Javidi. Active learning for classification with abstention. In *2020 IEEE International Symposium on Information Theory (ISIT)*, pp. 2801–2806, 2020. doi: 10.1109/ISIT44484.2020.9174242.

Yuwei Sun, Hideya Ochiai, and Hiroshi Esaki. Decentralized deep learning for multi-access edge computing: A survey on communication efficiency and trustworthiness. *IEEE Transactions on Artificial Intelligence*, 3(6):963–972, 2022. doi: 10.1109/TAI.2021.3133819. URL https://doi.org/10.1109/TAI.2021.3133819.

Dharmesh Tailor, Aditya Patra, Rajeev Verma, Putra Manggala, and Eric Nalisnick. Learning to defer to a population: A meta-learning approach. In Sanjoy Dasgupta, Stephan Mandt, and Yingzhen Li (eds.), *Proceedings of The 27th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 238 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 3475–3483. PMLR, 02–04 May 2024. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v238/tailor24a.html.

Vladimir N Vapnik. *The Nature of Statistical Learning Theory*. Information Science and Statistics. Springer New York, NY, New York, NY, USA, second edition, 2010. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4757-3264-1. URL 10.1007/978-1-4757-3264-1.

Rajeev Verma and Eric Nalisnick. Calibrated learning to defer with one-vs-all classifiers. In Kamalika Chaudhuri, Stefanie Jegelka, Le Song, Csaba Szepesvari, Gang Niu, and Sivan Sabato (eds.), *Proceedings of the 39th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 162 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 22184–22202. PMLR, 17–23 Jul 2022. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v162/verma22c.html.

Rajeev Verma, Daniel Barrejón, and Eric Nalisnick. On the calibration of learning to defer to multiple experts. In *ICML Workshop on Human-Machine Collaboration and Teaming*, 2022. URL https://icml.cc/virtual/2022/20034.

Rajeev Verma, Daniel Barrejon, and Eric Nalisnick. Learning to defer to multiple experts: Consistent surrogate losses, confidence calibration, and conformal ensembles. In Francisco Ruiz,

Jennifer Dy, and Jan-Willem van de Meent (eds.), *Proceedings of The 26th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, volume 206 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 11415–11434. PMLR, 25–27 Apr 2023. URL https://proceedings.mlr.press/v206/verma23a.html.

Marten Wegkamp. Lasso type classifiers with a reject option. *Electronic Journal of Statistics*, 1:155–168, 2007. doi: 10.1214/07-EJS058. URL https://doi.org/10.1214/07-EJS058.

Marten Wegkamp and Ming Yuan. Support vector machines with a reject option. *Bernoulli*, 17(4), November 2011. ISSN 1350-7265. doi: 10.3150/10-BEJ320. URL https://doi.org/10.3150/10-BEJ320.

Yu Wu and Anand Sarwate. Learning to help: Training models to assist legacy devices, 9 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2409.16253.

Tongxin Yin, Jean-Francois Ton, Ruocheng Guo, Yuanshun Yao, Mingyan Liu, and Yang Liu. Fair classifiers that abstain without harm. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=jvveGAbkVx.

Chen Zhang, Yu Xie, Hang Bai, Bin Yu, Weihong Li, and Yuan Gao. A survey on federated learning. *Knowledge-Based Systems*, 216:106775, March 2021. ISSN 0950-7051. doi: 10.1016/j.knosys.2021.106775. URL https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2021.106775.

Yikai Zhang, Songzhu Zheng, Mina Dalirrooyfard, Pengxiang Wu, Anderson Schneider, Anant Raj, Yuriy Nevmyvaka, and Chao Chen. Learning to abstain from uninformative data. *Transactions on Machine Learning Research*, 2024. ISSN 2835-8856. URL https://openreview.net/forum?id=KKARKoPcEA.

Yinglun Zhu and Robert Nowak. Active learning with neural networks: Insights from nonparametric statistics. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 35:142–155, 2022a.

Yinglun Zhu and Robert Nowak. Efficient active learning with abstention. In S. Koyejo, S. Mohamed, A. Agarwal, D. Belgrave, K. Cho, and A. Oh (eds.), *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 35, pp. 35379–35391. Curran Associates, Inc., 2022b. URL https://proceedings.neurips.cc/paper_files/paper/2022/file/e5aa7171449b83f8b4eec1623eac9906-Paper-Conference.pdf.

A COMPARISON WITH BINARY SURROGATE LOSS

In this section, we compare the surrogate loss function proposed in binary case by Wu & Sarwate (2024) with our proposed method in Section 3.

In this work, the formula of the surrogate loss function is:

$$L_{\text{Wu}}(r, e, x, y) = c_1 \exp\left(\frac{\beta}{2}(-ey - r)\right) + c_e \exp(-r) + 1_{m(x)y \leq 0} \exp(\alpha r)$$

where α and β are parameters for calibration. If we directly make the extension to multi-class in our setting, we can keep the same definition of rejector while the output of client classifier and server classifier becomes $\arg\max_i m_i(x)$ and $\arg\max_i e_i(x)$, which results in the surrogate loss:

$$L'_{\text{Wu}}(r, e, x, y) = c_1 \exp\left(\frac{\beta}{2}(-\arg\max_i e_i(x)y - r)\right) + c_e \exp(-r) + 1_{\arg\max_i m_i(x)y \leq 0} \exp(\alpha r)$$

The client classifier part works well since the client classifier is fixed during training. However, this part $\arg\max_i m_i(x)y$ will lead to trouble since both $\arg\max_i m_i(x)$ and y are index numbers of class in multi-class and therefore, the function is not differentiable with respect to $e_i(x)$.

Furthermore, this surrogate loss function requires to calculate calibration parameters α and β, which depends on the estimation of the accuracy of the client classifier, for each input sample x as shown in Theorem 2 in this work (Wu & Sarwate, 2024), which adds more calculations and estimation errors to practical experiments. This surrogate loss function is not available in the IA setting since it's jointly training the rejector and server classifier at the same time.

Compared to the extension of the surrogate loss function proposed by Wu & Sarwate (2024) with our stage-switching surrogate loss function, our method is differentiable in multi-class and more flexible for fitting different settings.

B COMPARISON WITH DIFFERENT SURROGATE LOSS FUNCTIONS

In this section, we justify that previous surrogate loss functions, proposed from LWA and L2D, can not be directly extended to L2H by comparing those surrogate loss functions with our method, shown in Table 2, on the properties that are needed in the settings that we are interested in.

Confindence-LWA (or score-based-LWA) represents the methods in LWA that use the output $m(x)$ or function of output $f(m(x))$ of the client classifier as a metric of confidence on current prediction. If the value of the metric is smaller than a threshold, then the input sample x will be discarded as a result of rejection. The theoretical framework of Confidence-LWA was first proposed by Herbei & Wegkamp (2006). There is no separate rejector in those methods. The rejected samples will be abandoned since there will be no more actions after rejection. Separate rejector-LWA represents those surrogate loss functions in LWA that assume a separate rejector to independently decide whether to reject or not. This kind of method was first proposed by Cortes et al. (2016) and proves the inability of confidence-based methods in special cases, referring to Sec. 2.2 of this work. However, in the LWA framework, the rejection decision only depends on the local classifier m and does not consider the issues after rejection.

In the L2D framework, samples are sent to an expert after rejection. Softmax-L2D, firstly proposed by Mozannar & Sontag (2020b), and OvA-L2D, firstly proposed by Verma & Nalisnick (2022) are two different classes of surrogate loss functions. Softmax-L2D adds a reject option as another class of task to the cross-entropy loss function, while OvA-L2D uses surrogate loss functions that transform multi-class classification into a combination of multi-binary classifiers. However, the output of the rejector on both methods also depends on the output of each class $m_i(x)$ on mobile classifier $m(x)$. Moreover, during training, the client and the server must keep connection with each other.

Two-stage (TS) confidence-L2D and two-stage (TS) separate rejector-L2D are those kinds of surrogate loss functions that consist of different sub-loss functions and can be trained in corresponding stages for both confidence and separate rejector cases, firstly proposed by Mao et al. (2023). Those two methods can be used for IA settings where the training is asynchronized since their surrogate loss

function can be easily split and run in different locations. However, in two-stage confidence-L2D methods, the rejector takes the output of $m(x)$ as input, while in two-stage separate rejector-L2D methods, the rejector only considers the performance of experts on different servers.

For those methods that do not have a separate rejector, the limitation has been proved by Cortes et al. (2016). What's more, usually ML classifiers are more complex than rejectors in scale. In the scenarios of our PPR and IA settings, when the latency is a concern, a system with a separate reject is faster since in a non-separate rejector system, all samples are firstly sent to the client classifier and then decided by the rejector, which may take longer time.

For those methods that the rejector does not learn from client classifier $m(x)$ during training, the reject decision only depends on the performance of server classifier $e(x)$. For those methods that the rejector does not learn from server classifier $e(x)$, the reject decision only depends on the performance of client classifier $m(x)$. In our PPR and IA settings, asking the server for help is not free, so we have to balance the use of the server. A desired rejector should learn the ability to compare the performance of $m(x)$ and $e(x)$ for each input x as shown in the Bayes classifier by 2.1.

Those methods that can not train in asynchronized fields may fail in the IA setting since the connection between client and server is unstable and intermittent.

Based on the settings that are realistic and interesting in real-world scenarios, we require a surrogate loss function for a multi-class L2H system to have a separate rejector, and the rejector learns from the knowledge of both the client classifier and server classifier during training and can operate in asynchronized fashion. Previous works that stem from LWA and L2H can not be directly extended to L2H because they are either technically non-differentiable for training server classifiers or conceptually unmatched with the required properties stated above.

Table 2: Difference among surrogate loss function proposed in LWA and L2D

	Separate rejector	Rejector learns $m(x)$	Rejector learns $e(x)$	Async
Confidence-LWA	×	✓	×	-
Separate rejector-LWA	✓	✓	×	-
Softmax-L2D	×	✓	✓	×
OvA-L2D	×	✓	✓	×
TS confidence-L2D	×	✓	✓	✓
TS separate rejector-L2D	✓	×	✓	✓
Ours	✓	✓	✓	✓

C Proof of Theorem 2.1

The standard approach to deriving the Bayes classifier for any given loss function is to compare the posterior risk associated with each possible decision of the classifier. The decision that minimizes the posterior risk is then chosen as the output. Recall in Section 2.1, the regression function is $\eta_i(x) = P(Y = i|X = x)$ and the generalized 0-1 loss function defined in equation 3 is:

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\text{general}}(r, e, x, y; m) = {} & \mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{LOCAL}} \\ & + c_{\text{e}}\mathbf{1}_{e(x)=y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{REMOTE}} + (c_{\text{e}} + c_1)\mathbf{1}_{e(x)\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r(x)=\text{REMOTE}}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that $m(x)$ is also stochastic, as discussed in Section 2.2. The random variable corresponding to the client classifier is denoted by M. Then, for any given sample x, the posterior risk over the conditional distribution of Y and M of any decision $r' \in \{\text{REMOTE}, \text{LOCAL}\}$ and $e' \in [K]$ is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{y,m|x} L_{\text{general}}(r', e', x, y; m) \\ & \quad = \mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}(\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}} + c_{\text{e}}\mathbf{1}_{e'=y}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}} + (c_e + c_1)\mathbf{1}_{e'\neq y}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}) \\ & \quad = \mathbb{E}_{m|x}(P(Y = e'|X = x)(\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq e'}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}} + c_{\text{e}}\mathbf{1}_{e'=e'}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}) \\ & \qquad + P(Y \in \mathcal{Y}_{e'}|X = x)(\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'}}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}} + (c_{\text{e}} + c_1)\mathbf{1}_{e'\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'}}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}})), \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{Y}_{e'} = \mathcal{Y} \setminus \{e'\}$ is the set of all labels except for e'. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x} L_{\text{general}}(r', e', x, y; m) \\
&\quad = \mathbb{E}_{m|x}(\eta_{e'}(x)(\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq e'}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}} + c_{\text{e}}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}) \\
&\qquad + (1-\eta_{e'}(x))(\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'}}\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}} + (c_{\text{e}}+c_1)\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}})) \\
&\quad = \mathbb{E}_{m|x}(\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}\left(\eta_{e'}(x)\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq e'} + (1-\eta_{e'}(x))\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'}}\right) \\
&\qquad + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}\left(c_e\eta_{e'}(x) + (c_e+c_1)(1-\eta_{e'}(x))\right)) \\
&\quad = \mathbb{E}_{m|x}(\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}(\eta_{e'}(x)\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\neq e'} + (1-\eta_{e'}(x))\mathbf{1}_{m(x)\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'}}) \\
&\qquad + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\eta_{e'}(x)))) \\
&\quad = \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}(\eta_{e'}(x)P(M\neq e' \mid X=x) + (1-\eta_{e'}(x))P(M\notin\mathcal{Y}_{e'} \mid X=x)) \\
&\qquad + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\eta_{e'}(x))) \\
&\quad = \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\eta_{e'}(x))). \qquad (11)
\end{aligned}$$

Also, for any e', the following inequality holds:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\eta_{e'}(x))) \\
&\qquad \geq \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x)) \qquad (12)
\end{aligned}$$

The equality in Inequality 12 holds if and only if the decision e' satisfies $\eta_{e'}(x) = \max_i \eta_i(x)$. By combining this with equation 11, the Bayes classifier e^B defined in equation 4, which minimizes $\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_{\text{general}}(r', e', x, y; m)$, satisfies $\eta_{e^B} = \max_i \eta_i(x)$. Therefore, the Bayes classifier for the local client is:

$$e^B = \arg\max_i \eta_i(x).$$

Recalling the lower bound given by equation 12, the following lower bound can be derived:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{LOCAL}}P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) + \mathbf{1}_{r'=\text{REMOTE}}(c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x)) \\
&\qquad \geq \min\{P(M\neq Y \mid X=x), c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x)\} \qquad (13)
\end{aligned}$$

Inequality 13 implies that for a given x, if $P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) \geq c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x))$, the posterior risk reaches the lower bound when $r' = \text{REMOTE}$. Conversely, if $P(M\neq Y \mid X=x) < c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x))$, the posterior risk reaches the lower bound when $r' = \text{LOCAL}$. By the definition of the rejector, one way to construct the Bayes classifier of the rejector is:

$$\begin{aligned}
r^B &= \mathbf{1}[P(M\neq Y|X=x) < c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x))]\cdot 2 - 1 \\
&= \mathbf{1}[1-P(M=Y|X=x) < c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x))]\cdot 2 - 1 \\
&= \mathbf{1}[1-\eta_{\arg\max_j m_j(x)}(x) < c_e + c_1(1-\max_i \eta_i(x))]\cdot 2 - 1 \\
&= \mathbf{1}[\eta_{\arg\max_j m_j(x)}(x) > (1-c_e-c_1) + c_1\max_i \eta_i(x)]\cdot 2 - 1.
\end{aligned}$$

In summary, the Bayes classifiers for 0-1 generalized loss are

$$e^B = \arg\max_i \eta_i(x)$$

and

$$r^B = \mathbf{1}[\eta_{j^*(x)}(x) > (1-c_e-c_1) + c_1\max_i \eta_i(x)]\cdot 2 - 1,$$

where $j^*(x) \triangleq \arg\max_j m_j(x)$.

D Proof of Proposition 3.1

We first show the convexity of L_1 and L_2 w.r.t e. For L_1 in equation 8, we notice that it equals to cross-entropy loss function for multi-class tasks. Referring to the proof by Cover & Thomas (2005), in which the cross-entropy is transformed into the form of KL divergence, which is convex, we can

directly draw the conclusion that the L_1 is a convex function over $e_i(x)$ for any $i \in [K]$ given (x, y).

Next, we prove the convexity of L_2 w.r.t e. Recall the definition of L_2 in equation 9:

$$L_2 = -(1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e=y}) \ln \frac{\exp(r_2)}{\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1)} - \mathbf{1}_{m=y} \ln \frac{\exp(r_1)}{\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1)}.$$

As described in Section 3, once in the rejector stage, only the rejector r is variable. For convenience, we rewrite L_2 in this form:

$$f(r_1, r_2) = -a \ln \frac{\exp(r_2)}{\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1)} - b \ln \frac{\exp(r_1)}{\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1)},$$

where $a = 1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e=y}$ and $b = \mathbf{1}_{m=y}$, which are depends on (x, y). The analysis can be divided into two cases:

- case (1): $a \leq 0$,
- case (2): $a > 0$.

In case (1), the partial derivative of $f(r_1, r_2)$ are:

$$\frac{\partial f(r_1, r_2)}{\partial r_1} = a \frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))} - b \frac{\exp(r_2)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f(r_1, r_2)}{\partial r_2} = -a \frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))} + b \frac{\exp(r_2)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))}.$$

Since $b = \{+1, -1\}$, we have that:

$$\frac{\partial f(r_1, r_2)}{\partial r_1} \leq a \frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))} \leq 0,$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f(r_1, r_2)}{\partial r_2} \geq -a \frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2) + \exp(r_1))} \geq 0$$

always holds, which means $f(r_1, r_2)$ (or L_2), are non-increasing function of r_1 and non-decreasing function of r_2. For the case $c_e > c_1 = 1$, it is impossible for $a = 0$. Thus, $f(r_1, r_2)$ (or L_2), are monotonically decreasing function of r_1 and monotonically increasing function of r_2.

In case (2), where $a > 0$, we have that $a + b > 0$ always holds. Then we calculate $(f(r_1, z_1) + f(r_1, z_2))/2$ and $f(r_1, (z_1 + z_2)/2)$ for any z_1 and z_2:

$$\begin{aligned}
&(f(r_1, z_1) + f(r_1, z_2))/2 \\
&\quad = \frac{1}{2}(-a(z_1 - \ln(e^{z_1} + e^{r_1})) \\
&\qquad - b(r_1 - \ln(e^{r_1} + e^{z_1})) - a(z_2 - \ln(e^{z_2} + e^{r_1})) - b(r_1 - \ln(e^{r_1} + e^{z_2}))) \\
&\quad = \frac{1}{2}(-az_1 + a \ln(e^{z_1} + e^{r_1}) - 2br_1 \\
&\qquad + b \ln(e^{r_1} + e^{z_1}) - az_2 + a \ln(e^{z_2} + e^{r_1}) + b \ln(e^{z_2} + e^{r_1})) \\
&\quad = \frac{1}{2}(-a(z_1 + z_2) - 2br_1 + (a + b) \ln(e^{z_1+z_2} + e^{r_1+z_2} + e^{r_1+z_1} + e^{2r_1})),
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
f(r_1, (z_1 + z_2)/2) &= -a((z_1 + z_2)/2 - \ln(e^{(z_1+z_2)/2} + e^{r_1})) - b(r_1 - \ln(e^{r_1} + e^{(z_1+z_2)/2})) \\
&= \frac{-a(z_1 + z_2)}{2} + a \ln(e^{(z_1+z_2)/2} + e^{r_1}) - br_1 + b \ln(e^{r_1} + e^{(z_1+z_2)/2}).
\end{aligned}$$

The subtraction between them is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(f(r_1, z_1) + f(r_1, z_2))/2 - f(r_1, (z_1 + z_2)/2) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}(a+b)\ln(e^{z_1+z_2} + e^{r_1+z_2} + e^{r_1+z_1} + e^{2r_1}) \\
&\quad - (a+b)\ln(e^{(z_1+z_2)/2} + e^{r_1}) \\
&= (a+b)\ln\frac{\sqrt{(e^{z_1}+e^{r_1})(e^{z_2}+e^{r_1})}}{e^{(z_1+z_2)/2}+e^{r_1}}
\end{aligned} \tag{14}
$$

We notice that exponential function $\exp(z)$ is convex function such that

$$
\frac{e^{z_1}+e^{z_2}}{2} \geq e^{(z_1+z_2)/2}
$$

holds for any z_1, z_2. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\frac{e^x+e^y}{2} \geq e^{(x+y)/2} \\
\Leftrightarrow &e^{r_1+y} + e^{r_1+x} \geq 2e^{(x+y)/2+r_1} \\
\Leftrightarrow &(e^x+e^{r_1})(e^y+e^{r_1}) \geq (e^{(x+y)/2}+e^{r_1})^2 \\
\Leftrightarrow &\frac{\sqrt{(e^x+e^{r_1})(e^y+e^{r_1})}}{e^{(x+y)/2}+e^{r_1}} \geq 1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and $a+b>0$, we prove that the for equation 14:

$$
(f(r_1, z_1) + f(r_1, z_2))/2 - f(r_1, (z_1 + z_2)/2) \geq 0
$$

always holds, that is $f(r_1, r_2)$ is a convex function over r_2. Following similar steps, we also prove that $f(r_1, r_2)$ is a convex function over r_1.

E Proof of Theorem 3.2

The surrogate loss function defined in equation 7 consists of L_1 and L_2, which are targeted to the server classifier and rejector, respectively. Since the rejector and server classifier are trained in a stage-switching manner as described in Section 3, parameters of e are only updated by the gradient derived from L_1, and that of r is only updated by the gradient derived from L_2. Therefore, the minimizer of e is derived from the risk of L_1 in the server stage, and the minimizer of r is derived from the risk of L_2 (with the current server classifier) in the rejector stage. The risks are:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_1 = -\sum_{y\in\mathcal{Y}} \eta_y(x)\log\left(\frac{\exp(e_y(x))}{\sum_{y'\in\mathcal{Y}}\exp(e_{y'}(x))}\right)
$$

and

$$
\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2 = -\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}(1-c_e-c_1\mathbf{1}_{e=y})\ln\frac{\exp(r_2)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)} - \mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}\mathbf{1}_{m=y}\ln\frac{\exp(r_1)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)}
$$

Since the Bayes classifiers are optimal for any x according to the definition in equation 4, it's equivalent to deriving the minimizer of risk of each sub-surrogate loss function for any given x.

Note that L_1 is a cross-entropy loss function for server classifier $e(x)$; we can directly get the minimizers for each e_i by the arguments in Section 10.6 proposed by Hastie et al. (2009). Let's denote the minimizers of each sub-function e_i, which is defined in Section 3, of server classifier by e_i^*. The minimizes e_i^* satisfy the following condition:

$$
\frac{\exp(e_i^*(x))}{\sum_j \exp(e_j^*(x))} = \eta_i(x), \quad \forall i,
$$

where $\eta_i(x)$ is the regression function for i-th class. Therefore, the $e^*(x) = \arg\max_i e_i^*(x) = \arg\max_i \eta_i(x) = e^B(x)$. The minimizer of server classifier e^* is the same as the Bayes classifier for server e^B.

Next, we consider the rejector $r(x)$. Since $e(x) = \arg\max_j e_j(x)$, when we plug in the minimizers $e_i^*(x)$ to L_2, the risk of L_2 conditioned on x becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2 &= \mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}\left(-\mathbf{1}_{e=y}\ln\frac{\exp(r_2)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)} - \mathbf{1}_{m=y}\ln\frac{\exp(r_1)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)}\right)\\ &= -(1-c_e-c_1+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x))\ln\frac{\exp(r_2)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)}\\ &\quad -\eta_{j^*(x)}\ln\frac{\exp(r_1)}{\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1)},\end{aligned}$$

where $j^*(x) = \arg\max_i m_i(x)$ as defined in Theorem 2.1. The following analysis will be divided into two cases:

- case (a): $(1-c_e-c_1)+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x)\le 0$,
- case (b): $(1-c_e-c_1)+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x) > 0$.

In case (a), when $(1-c_e-c_1)+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x)\le 0$, $\partial\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2/\partial r_1 \le 0$ always holds, such that $\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2$ is monotonically decreasing function of r_1. And $\partial\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2/\partial r_2 > 0$ always holds such that $\mathbb{E}_{y,m|x}L_2$ monotonically increasing function of r_2. In fact, we can also draw the same conclusions by using the monotonicity from Proposition 3.1 since the expectation of monotone function is still monotone. Therefore, in this case,

$$\frac{\exp(r_1^*)}{(\exp(r_2^*)+\exp(r_1^*)} \longrightarrow 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\exp(r_2^*)}{(\exp(r_2^*)+\exp(r_1^*)} \longrightarrow 0$$

That means $r_1^* > r_2^*$ always holds. Therefore, the rejector always satisfies:

$$r^*(x) = \mathbf{1}[r_1^*(x) > r_2^*(x)]\cdot 2 - 1 = 1$$

Also, in this case, the Bayes classifier for rejector is $r^B = \mathbf{1}[\eta_{\arg\max_i m_i(x)}(x) > (1-c_e-c_1) + c_1\max_i\eta_i(x)]\cdot 2 - 1 = 1\cdot 2 - 1 = 1$. Therefore, $r^*(x) = r^B(x)$.

Then we consider the case (b) when $(1-c_e-c_1)+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x) > 0$. Since L_1 is convex according to Proposition 3.1, and expectation of convex function is still convex proved by Boyd & Vandenberghe (2004), $\mathbb{E}_{y|x}L_2$ is convex, and its minimizers are achieved when partial derivative equal to 0. We take the partial derivative over r_1 and r_2:

$$\frac{\partial\mathbb{E}_{y|x}L_2}{\partial r_1} = (1-c_e-c_1+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x))\frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1))} - \eta_{j^*(x)}\frac{\exp(r_2)}{(\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1))},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial\mathbb{E}_{y|x}L_2}{\partial r_2} = -(1-c_e-c_1+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x))\frac{\exp(r_1)}{(\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1))} + \eta_{j^*(x)}\frac{\exp(r_2)}{(\exp(r_2)+\exp(r_1))}.$$

Setting the partial derivatives to 0, we have that

$$\frac{\exp(r_1^*)}{\exp(r_2^*)} = \frac{\eta_{j^*(x)}(x)}{1-c_e-c_1+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x)}.$$

Then, the rejector becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}r^*(x) &= \mathbf{1}[r_1^*(x) > r_2^*(x)]\cdot 2 - 1\\ &= \mathbf{1}[\exp(r_1^*(x)) > \exp(r_2^*(x))])\cdot 2 - 1\\ &= \mathbf{1}[\frac{\exp(r_1^*(x))}{\exp(r_2^*(x))} > 1])\cdot 2 - 1\\ &= \mathbf{1}[\eta_{j^*(x)}(x) > (1-c_e-c_1)+c_1\max_i\eta_i(x)]\cdot 2 - 1\\ &= r^B(x).\end{aligned}$$

We prove that in both cases (a) and (b), the minimizer of L_2, $r^*(x)$, equals the Bayes Classifier of rejector $r^B(x)$.

In summary, we prove that $(r^B(x), e^B(x)) = (r^*(x), e^*(x))$ for any x, so the stage-switching surrogate loss function is consistent with the generalized 0-1 loss function.

F STOCHASTIC POST-HOC ALGORITHM FOR BOUNDED REJECT RATE SETTING

We propose a stochastic post-hoc method, which is shown in Algo. 3, Algo. 4 and Algo 5. In this algorithm for BRR settings, we firstly train our rejector and server classifier following the process as shown in Algo. 3, which is similar to algorithms for PPR or IA settings (can also be trained with asynchronized algorithm 2). After training, we use a calibration set D_{cali} to calculate the empirical reject rate q_1, based on the output of rejector $r(x)$. Once we get the empirical reject rate, we compare it with the bounded reject rate q.

If q is greater than q_1, that means we have to sacrifice several rejected samples to force them to make prediction locally at client classifier $m(x)$; the input samples are following the Algo. 4, where each rejected samples are made a final decision by the value of a uniform random variable. Once the value is below the ratio p, the sample will still be sent to the server. Otherwise, it may be predicted by the client classifier. When the empirical reject rate is higher than the bounded reject rate, after adding this post-hoc mechanism, the bounded reject rate q can just ensured.

If q is smaller than or equal to q_1, that means we can reject more times than the rejector $r(x)$ request. Then, we follow a similar mechanism in Algo. 5, which uses a random variable to decide which samples the rejector sends to the server classifier. After using the post-hoc mechanism, we can ensure the bounded reject rate while making the best use of the server classifier.

Algorithm 3 Training Process of Stochastic Post-hoc Method

Input: Training set $D = \{(x_i, y_i) : i \in [n]\}$, Calibration set $D_{\text{cali}} = \{(x_i, y_i) : i \in [k]\}$, Fixed client classifier m, Rejector r^0, Sever classifier e^0, Bounded reject rate q.

for $t = 1$ to n **do**
  $L_1^t(x_t, y_t) = -\ln \frac{\exp(e_{y_t}(x_t))}{\sum_j \exp(e_j(x_t))}$
  $e^t \leftarrow \texttt{SGD}(L_1^t(x_t, y_t), e^{t-1})$
  $L_2^t(x_t, y_t) = -(1 - c_e - c_1 + c_1 \mathbf{1}_{e^t(x_t)=y_t}) \ln \frac{\exp(r_2(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))} - \mathbf{1}_{m(x_t)=y_t} \ln \frac{\exp(r_1(x_t))}{\exp(r_2(x_t))+\exp(r_1(x_t))}$
  $r^t \leftarrow \texttt{SGD}(L_2(x_t, y_t), r_{t-1})$
end for
$q_1 \leftarrow \texttt{EmpiricalRejectRate}(D_{\text{cali}})$
return r^n, e^n, q, q_1

Algorithm 4 Inference Phase of Stochastic Post-hoc Method When $q < q_1$

Input: Client Classifier m, Trained Rejector r^n, Trained Sever Classifier e^n, Input Sample x, Bounded reject rate q, empirical reject rate q_1.

$p = q/q_1$
if $r(x) \leq 0$ **then**
  Sample i from $(0, 1)$ uniform distribution.
  if $i \leq p$ **then**
    $\hat{y} \leftarrow e^n(x)$
  else
    $\hat{y} \leftarrow m(x)$
  end if
else
  $\hat{y} \leftarrow m(x)$
end if
return $\hat{y}$

Algorithm 5 Inference Phase of Stochastic Post-hoc Method when $q \geq q_1$

Input: Client Classifier m, Trained Rejector r^n, Trained Sever Classifier e^n, Input Sample x, Bounded reject rate q, empirical reject rate q_1.

```
p = (q − q1)/(1 − q1)
if r(x) > 0 then
    Sample i from (0, 1) uniform distribution.
    if i ≤ p then
        ŷ ← e^n(x)
    else
        ŷ ← m(x)
    end if
else
    ŷ ← e^n(x)
end if
return ŷ
```

G EXPERIMENT DESCRIPTION AND ADDITIONAL RESULTS

Datasets We test our proposed surrogate loss function 7 and algorithms for different settings on CIFAR-10 (Krizhevsky & Hinton, 2009), SVHN (Netzer et al., 2011) and CIFAR-100 (Krizhevsky & Hinton, 2009) data sets. CIFAR-10 consists of 32 $\times$ 32 color images drawn from 10 classes and is split into 50000 training and 10000 testing images. CIFAR-100 has 100 classes containing 600 images each. SVHN is obtained from house numbers with over 600000 photos in Google Street View images and has 10 classes with 32 $\times$ 32 images centered around a single character. The experiments are conducted in `RTX 3090`. It takes approximately 5 minutes to train the local model and 30 minutes to train each remote server classifier with the rejector when server classifier is set to be AlexNet or 5 hours to train each remote server classifier with the rejector when server classifier is set to be ViT.

Comparison over synchronization and asynchronization We conduct additional experiments training the server model and rejector under both synchronized, as shown in Algo 1 and asynchronized settings as shown in Algo 2. The model is evaluated in the same way as in Section 5. The contrastive evaluation and loss curve are shown in Table 3 and Figure 4.

Result for different c_1 and c_e on CIFAR-10 and SVHN Besieds the result we show in Section 5, we add extensive result for contrastive evaluation with different inaccuracy cost c_1, reject cost c_e and synchronization interval S (for IA setting) for CIFAR-10 and SVHN with local classifier and rejector being LeNets and remote classifier being AlexNet. The results are shown in Table 3.

Result for different c_1 and c_e on CIFAR-100 Since our stage-swtich surrogate loss function doesn't set up constraints on the size of dataset and structures of machine learning methods, we test the Contrastive Evaluation on dataset CIFAR100 with local classifier and rejector being LeNet and remote classifier being ViT, a transformer-based vision neural network. The results are shown in Table 4. Both higher c_1 and c_e can reduce the ratio of numbers that are sent to remote classifier, but in our experimental results, the reject rate is more sensitive to c_e. When c_e is close to 1, almost no sample is sent to remote classifier, which make sense because $c_e = 1$ means that the cost of asking for help is always greater than locally prediction.

Samples partitioned by rejector We choose one case where the rejector and remote classifier AlexNet are trained on SVHN when $c_1 = 1.25$ and $c_e = 0.25$. Then we let rejector partition the test set and randomly pick images from the subset with $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$ and $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$, respectively. The results are shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. It's obvious that samples kept locally are clearer, contrast, focused, with high-resolution, while the samples that are supposed to send to the server are blurry, unfocused, with low-resolution. Without any manual adjustment, our rejector learns to assess "difficulty" using the same metrics as humans, by interacting with both local model and server model during the training process.

Table 3: Contrastive Evaluation Results for different cost and synchronization interval

S	c_1	c_e		cifar10 (%)			SVHN (%)		
				m	e	differ.	m	e	differ.
sync.	1.0	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	74.8	82.8	**8.0**	90.1	93.2	**3.1**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	54.5	68.6	**14.1**	62.0	72.5	**10.5**
sync.	1.25	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	73.9	81.9	**8.0**	90.6	93.3	**2.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	54.5	67.7	**13.2**	61.2	72.8	**11.6**
sync.	1.25	0.0	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	82.3	86.8	**4.6**	97.2	97.9	**0.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	62.6	73.8	**11.2**	87.6	90.8	**3.2**
100	1.0	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	75.9	84.3	**8.4**	90.6	92.9	**2.3**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	55.3	69.5	**14.1**	63.6	72.7	**9.1**
100	1.25	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	74.5	83.3	**8.8**	91.4	93.5	**2.2**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	55.5	69.9	**14.4**	65.4	73.9	**8.5**
100	1.25	0.0	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	81.4	87.4	**6.0**	97.0	97.8	**0.8**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	62.6	75.3	**12.7**	87.3	90.6	**3.3**
1000	1.0	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	74.8	83.1	**8.2**	90.5	93.2	**2.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	54.7	69.2	**14.6**	64.3	72.9	**8.6**
1000	1.25	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	75.2	83.3	**8.1**	90.8	93.9	**3.1**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	56.0	69.7	**13.7**	65.1	75.6	**10.5**
1000	1.25	0.0	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	80.3	87.7	**7.4**	97.3	98.0	**0.8**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	62.8	74.5	**11.7**	86.9	90.7	**3.7**
$\|D\|$	1.0	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	74.1	82.9	**8.9**	90.1	93.0	**2.9**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	56.8	71.1	**14.3**	62.9	73.3	**10.4**
$\|D\|$	1.25	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	72.8	82.9	**10.1**	90.8	93.7	**2.9**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	57.1	70.4	**13.3**	63.8	74.1	**10.3**
$\|D\|$	1.25	0.0	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	78.9	86.8	**7.9**	96.2	97.5	**1.3**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	62.8	74.9	**12.0**	87.5	90.9	**3.3**

Table 4: Contrastive Evaluation Results for different costs on CIFAR-100 with remote classifier being ViT

S	c_1	c_e		cifar100 (%)			
				ratio	m	e	differ.
sync.	1.0	0.2	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	0.1	78.6	100.0	**21.4**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	99.9	27.5	88.1	**60.6**
sync.	1.0	0.6	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	13.3	46.9	90.9	**43.9**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	86.7	24.6	87.9	**63.3**
sync.	1.0	0.95	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	100.0	27.6	88.2	**60.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	0.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
sync.	1.25	0.25	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	0.31	80.6	100.0	**19.4**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	99.36	27.4	87.9	60.6
sync.	1.9	0.5	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	4.2	58.6	92.7	**34.1**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	95.8	26.2	88.0	**61.9**
sync.	1.9	0.75	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	50.79	57.8	93.4	**35.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	49.21	26.3	87.8	**61.6**
sync.	2.0	0.4	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	1.1	67.3	94.4	**27.1**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	98.9	27.1	87.8	**60.7**
sync.	5.0	0.5	$r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	4.1	57.8	93.4	**35.7**
			$r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	95.9	26.3	87.8	**61.6**

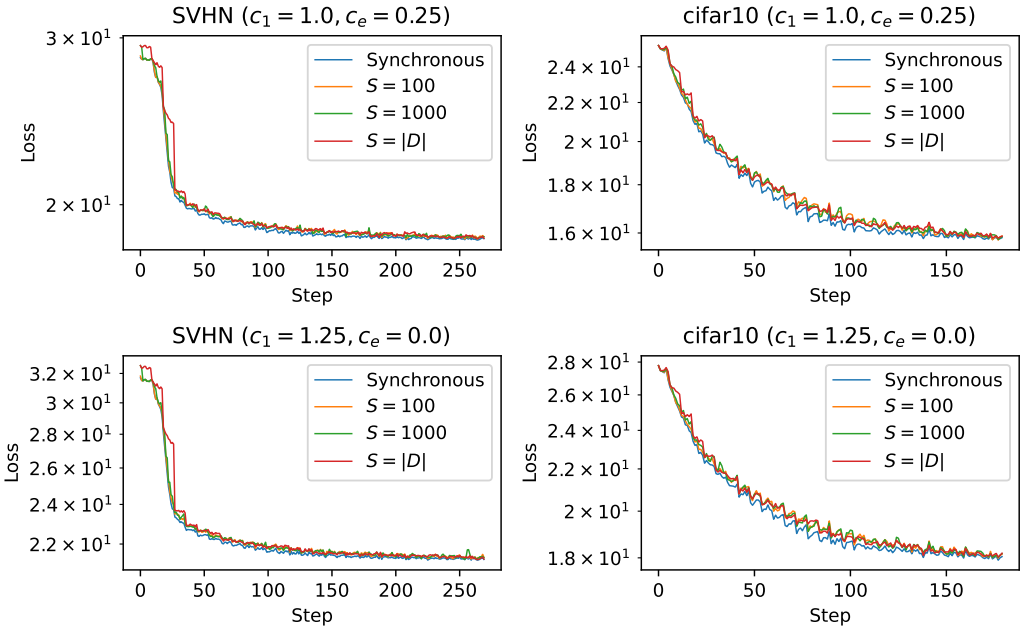

Figure 4: Comparison of synchronization and synchronization with different parameters

Figure 5: Samples from SVHN with $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$

Figure 6: Samples from SVHN with $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$

Table 5: Accuracy of classifiers on CIFAR-10 when client classifier is pre-trained without "truck" class

	"truck" (%)	other classes (%)	all classes (%)
only local classifier	0	64.4	58.0
only remote classifier	87.5	72.5	74.0
jointly work	85.2	70.5	72.0
rejected rate under jointly work	96.1	63.1	72.7

Table 6: Accuracy of classifiers on SVHN when client classifier is pre-trained without "9" class

	"9" (%)	other classes (%)	all classes(%)
only local classifier	0	92.2	83.0
only remote classifier	94.5	89.5	90.0
jointly work	90.0	88.9	89.0
rejected rate under jointly work	93.5	12.0	17.8

Experiments on imbalance dataset We set up an additional experiment to evaluate the impact of imbalance dataset issues for our multi-class L2H. We choose one case where the rejector and remote classifier AlexNet are trained on CIFAR-10 or SVHN when $c_1 = 1.25$ and $c_e = 0.25$. In this experiment, we pre-train the local model with the reduced dataset that doesn't contain any sample from one certain class (no "truck" in CIFAR-10 and no "9" in SVHN). Based on that, we train rejector and edge model with a full dataset. The results in Table 5 and Table 6 show that almost all the samples from missing class are identified by rejector and sent to server model. The overall accuracy doesn't get undermined compared to standard setting. The training of the rejector makes the multi-class L2H robust to imbalance dataset or distribution drifting issues. And after training, the remote classifier becomes expert that is specialized on the missing class.

Accuracy comparison over stochastic post-hoc and randomly reject on bounded reject rate setting To show that the client classifier under Bounded Reject Rate settings would benefit from training with Algo. 3 and testing with Algo. 4 and Algo. 5, we set up a randomly reject method as a baseline. In this randomly reject method, we assume that there is no rejector, the sample is randomly sent to server classifier according the value of bounded reject rate, e.g., with bounded reject rate 0.5, half of the samples will be randomly chosen and sent to server for inference. We train our rejector and server classifier by following Algo. 3. After that, given different bounded reject rate, we use either Algo. 4, or Algo. 5 to strictly control the actual reject rate below the bound. The results of the accuracy-vs-bounded reject rate for the Stochastic Post-hoc method and the random reject method are shown in Fig. 7. The result demonstrates that by using the Stochastic Post-hoc Algorithm, the system can still actively pick up the samples that fit the server classifier even under the constraints of a bounded reject rate.

Table 7: Contrastive Evaluation on Training Asynchronously with $S = 100$, $c_1 = 1.25$ and $c_e = 0.25$

	cifar10 (%)			SVHN (%)		
	m	e	differ.	m	e	differ.
data with rejector $r(x) = \text{LOCAL}$	74.5	83.3	**8.8**	91.4	93.5	**2.2**
data with rejector $r(x) = \text{REMOTE}$	55.5	69.9	**14.4**	65.4	73.9	**8.5**

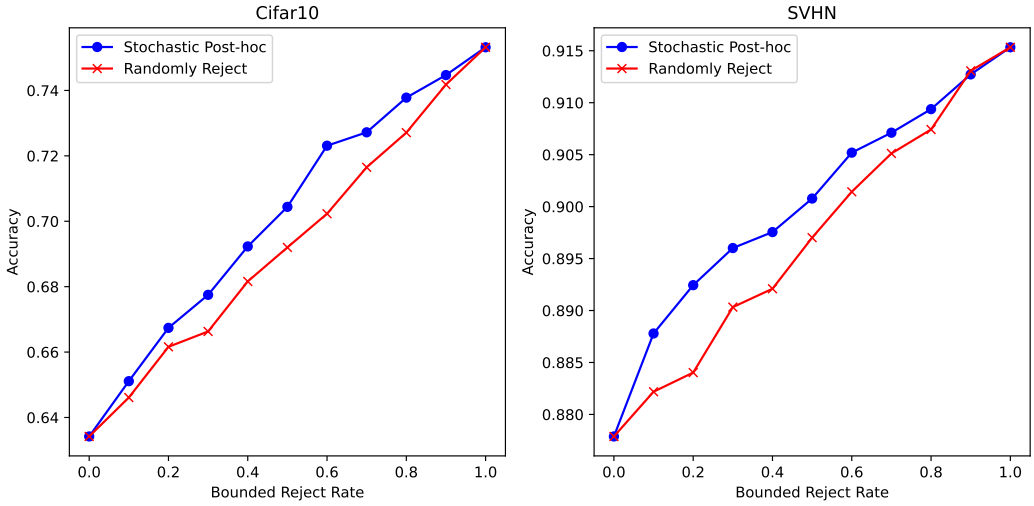

Figure 7: Comparison with randomly reject after Stochastic Post-hoc Algorithm when $c_e = 0.25$ and $c_1 = 1.12$