
A General Framework for Learning under Corruption: Label Noise, Attribute Noise, and Beyond

Anonymous Author(s)

Affiliation

Address

email

Abstract

1 Corruption is frequently observed in collected data and has been extensively studied
2 in machine learning under different corruption models. Despite this, there remains
3 a limited understanding of how these models relate such that a unified view of
4 corruptions and their consequences on learning is still lacking. In this work, we
5 formally analyze corruption models at the distribution level through a general,
6 exhaustive framework based on Markov kernels. We highlight the existence of
7 intricate joint and dependent corruptions on both labels and attributes, which are
8 rarely touched by existing research. Further, we show how these corruptions affect
9 standard supervised learning by analyzing the resulting changes in Bayes Risk.
10 Our findings offer qualitative insights into the consequences of “more complex”
11 corruptions on the learning problem, and provide a foundation for future quanti-
12 tative comparisons. Applications of the framework include corruption-corrected
13 learning, a subcase of which we study in this paper by theoretically analyzing loss
14 correction with respect to different corruption instances.

15 1 Introduction

16 Machine learning starts with data. The most widespread conception of data defines them as atomic
17 facts, perfectly describing some reality of interest [1]. In learning theories, this is reflected by the
18 often-used assumption that training and test data are drawn independently from the same distribution.
19 The goal of learning is to identify and synthesize patterns based on the knowledge, or information,
20 embedded in these data. In practice, however, corruption regularly occurs in data collection. This
21 creates a mismatch between training and test distributions, forcing us to learn from imperfect facts.

22 We should thus doubt the view of data as static facts, and consider them as a dynamic element of a
23 learning task [2]. Besides the predictor and the loss function, one may focus on the data dynamics,
24 studying corruptions and intervening in the learning process. Toward this goal, there has been a surge
25 of research in the machine learning community proposing various corruption models, examining and
26 correcting their effects on learning formally or empirically [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]. Nevertheless, it is still
27 unclear how these models relate and whether they characterize all types of corruption. Even though
28 the necessity of investigating this topic is recognized both at a practical [9, 10] and a theoretical
29 [11, 12] level, no standardized way to model and analyze corruption has been so far created [13].

30 Our primary objective here is to systematically study the problem of learning under corruption,
31 providing a general framework for analysis. Whilst there have been some existing attempts, cer-
32 tain limitations persist in terms of homogeneity and exhaustiveness. A famous early endeavor is
33 Quinonero-Candela et al. [14], grouping together works about the multi-faceted topic of dataset shift,
34 yet not in a unifying or comprehensive manner. Later on, several studies aim to provide a more homo-
35 geneous view of corruption, often referred to as noise or distribution shift. However, their frameworks

36 typically rely on some corruption-invariant assumptions on the marginal or conditional probabilities,
 37 and the extent of exhaustiveness is merely conjectured or not considered [15, 16, 17, 18].

38 In this paper, we take a different point of view from the previous work: we categorize corruption
 39 based on its dependence on the feature and label space, rather than relying on the notion of invariance.
 40 Our resulting framework is generic, encompassing all possible pairwise stochastic corruptions.¹ The
 41 underpinning mathematical tool that enables such exhaustiveness is the Markov kernel. While Markov
 42 kernels have been utilized in formalizing corruption [7, 19], their primary focus has been solely on
 43 label corruption, attribute corruption, or simple joint corruption. To our knowledge, the proposed
 44 framework is novel in the sense of demonstrated exhaustiveness in this domain. Our contributions are
 45 summarized as follows:

- 46 **C1** We propose a new taxonomy of corruption in the supervised learning setting (§ 3), hierarchically
 47 organized through the notion of dependence (Fig. 1), and connect existing corruption models to
 48 this taxonomy (Tab. 1).
 - 49 **C2** We analyze the implications of our family of corruptions on learning (§ 4), linking the Bayes risk
 50 of the clean and corrupted supervised learning problems through equality results (Theorem 3,
 51 Theorem 4, Theorem 5).
 - 52 **C3** We derive corruption-corrected loss functions for different corruption instances within our frame-
 53 work (§ 5). A subcase of these corrections (Theorem 8) generalizes prior results on corruption-
 54 corrected learning in simple label corruption.
- 55 Though abstract in general, our results expand upon existing ones on specific corruption models and
 56 shed light on the relatively under-explored joint and dependent corruptions.

57 2 Background

58 Before introducing our analysis, we review the background framework and notations.

59 **Supervised learning** In statistical decision theory [20, 21], a general decision problem can be
 60 viewed as a two-player game between *nature* and *decision-maker*. Nature chooses its *state*, then
 61 *experiment* leads to some *observations* given the state, and the decision-maker picks a suitable *action*
 62 from a fixed set of *decision rules*. In the specific setting of *supervised learning*, observations are in
 63 the feature space $X \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, $d \geq 1$, states are in the label space Y , then the *experiment* E leads to a
 64 probability associated with the observation X , given the state Y . Here we focus on the classification
 65 task, that is, assuming the label space to be *finite*. All the stated results can be easily extended to
 66 regression cases by considering a continuous label space; we leave it for future application.

67 To formalize the processes described above, we introduce the Markov kernel.

68 **Definition 1** (Klenke [22]). A **Markov kernel** κ from a measurable space (X_1, \mathcal{X}_1) to a measurable
 69 space (X_2, \mathcal{X}_2) is a function $x_1 \mapsto \kappa(x_1, \cdot)$ from X_1 to $\mathcal{P}(X_2)$, the set of probability measures on
 70 X_2 , such that $\kappa(x_1, B)$ is measurable in x_1 for each set $B \in \mathcal{X}_2$. We denote it by $\kappa : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2$, or
 71 more compactly by $\kappa_{X_1 X_2}$. The set of Markov kernels from X_1 to X_2 is referred to as $\mathcal{M}(X_1, X_2)$.

The Markov kernel generalizes the concept of conditional probability. Looking at the function $\kappa(\cdot, B)$,
 it associates different probabilities to the set B given different values of the *parameter* x_1 . It can
 transform a distribution $\mu \in \mathcal{P}(X_1)$ into another distribution $\mu\kappa \in \mathcal{P}(X_2)$, as well as transform a
 function $f : X_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ into another function $\kappa f : X_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the following two operators:

$$\mu\kappa(B) := \int_{X_1} \kappa(x_1, B)\mu(dx_1) \quad \forall B \in \mathcal{X}_2, \quad \kappa f(x_1) := \int_{X_2} \kappa(x_1, dx_2)f(x_2) \quad \forall x_1 \in X_1,$$

72 provided the integral exists. Next, we define different operations to combine Markov kernels:

73 **P1** Given $\kappa : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2$ and $\lambda : X_1 \times X_2 \rightsquigarrow X_3$, their **chain composition** $\kappa \circ \lambda : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_3$
 74 is defined by $(\kappa \circ \lambda)f(x_1) := \int_{X_2} \kappa(x_1, dx_2) \int_{X_3} \lambda((x_1, x_2), dx_3)f(x_3) = \kappa(\lambda f)(x_3)$ where
 75 $f : X_3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a positive \mathcal{X}_3 -measurable function;

76 **P2** For $\kappa : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2$ and $\lambda : X_1 \times X_2 \rightsquigarrow X_3$, their **product composition** $\kappa \times \lambda : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2 \times X_3$ is
 77 $(\kappa \times \lambda)f(x_1) := \int_{X_2} \kappa(x_1, dx_2) \int_{X_3} \lambda((x_1, x_2), dx_3) f(x_2, x_3)$ for every f positive $\mathcal{X}_2 \times \mathcal{X}_3$ -
 78 measurable.

¹As for non-stochastic ones, we show that they always have a stochastic alternative representation. See § 3.

79 Notice that a probability distribution is a specific instance of a Markov kernel, constant in its parameter
 80 space. Therefore, **P1** and **P2** are well defined for $\kappa \equiv \mu \in \mathcal{P}(X_2)$. We can unify the notation of \times
 81 for distributions thanks to the flexibility of kernels, and consider the $\mu\kappa$ as a subclass of $\mu \circ \kappa$.

Bayes risk Having defined all these objects, a supervised learning problem can be represented
 by the diagram $Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{h} Y$, where h is a decision rule chosen in $\mathcal{M}(X, Y)$. Its task can be
 formalized as a risk minimization problem, i.e., finding the optimal action $h \in \mathcal{H}$ by considering the
Bayes Risk (BR) measure

$$BR_{\ell}(\pi \times E) = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{M}(X, Y)} R_{\pi, \ell}(h) = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{M}(X, Y)} \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim E} \ell(h(X), Y),$$

where the notation κ_X stands for the kernel κ evaluated on the parameter X , e.g., h_X, E_Y (this subscript
 notation will be used throughout), and π is a prior distribution on Y . The function ℓ is asked to be
 bounded and a *proper loss* [23, 24], i.e., a loss function $\ell : \mathcal{P}(Y) \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ whose minimization
 set contains the ground truth class probability. More formally, we ask for

$$\exists h^* \in \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{M}(X, Y)} R_{\pi, \ell, \mathcal{A}}(h) \text{ such that } h^* \times \mu = E \times \pi, \exists \mu \in \mathcal{P}(X).$$

Since in real-world applications, one deploys a model with only limited representation capacity, we
 consider the constrained version of BR

$$BR_{\ell, \mathcal{H}}(\pi_Y \times E) = \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{M}(X, Y)} \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi_Y} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim E} \ell(h(X), Y).$$

82 We call \mathcal{H} the *model class*. If we fix the joint space to $Z = X \times Y$ and the joint probability
 83 distribution to $P = \pi_Y \times E \in \mathcal{P}(Z)$, we can refer to a *supervised learning problem* as the triple
 84 (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) . Notice that we can also use an equivalent decomposition of the joint distribution through a
 85 posterior kernel $F : X \rightsquigarrow Y$, so that $P = \pi_X \times F$ for some prior on the feature space. Hence, each
 86 supervised learning problem can have two associated kernels, the experiment E and the posterior
 87 one F . We then obtain two views of the learning problem, a generative and a discriminative one, as
 88 previously noted by Reid et al. [25]. By means of these, we can define two *Conditional BR* (CBR):

$$\text{Discriminative: } \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \pi_X} CBR_{\ell, \mathcal{H}}(F_X) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \pi_X} \inf_{h_X \in \mathcal{H}_X} \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim F_X} \ell(h_X, Y), \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Generative: } \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi_Y} CBR_{\ell, \mathcal{H}}(E_Y) = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi_Y} \inf_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim E_Y} \ell(h(X), Y),$$

89 both equal to their corresponding constrained BR. Notice that for Eq. (1) to be well defined, we need
 90 at least one minimum of the unconstrained BR to be included in the model class. For our convenience,
 91 we ask it to be the *h matching* the F .

92 3 A general framework for corruption

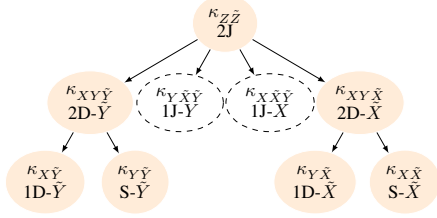
93 In this section, we present a general framework of pairwise corruptions based on the notion of
 94 *dependence* and discuss how existing corruption models fit into this framework as subcategories.
 95 First, let us formally define corruption and two additional kernel operations, which will be useful in
 96 the buildup of our corruption taxonomy.

97 **Definition 2.** A *corruption* is a Markov kernel κ that sends a probability space $(X \times Y, \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, P)$
 98 into another, $(X \times Y, \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, \tilde{P})$. We write it as $\kappa_{Z\tilde{Z}}$,² and call the variables $z = (x, y) \in Z$
 99 *parameters* and the differentials $d\tilde{z} = d\tilde{x}d\tilde{y}$ *corrupted variables*.

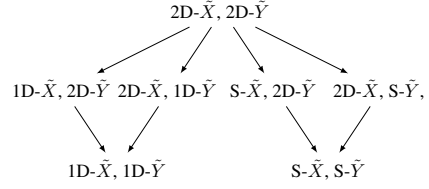
100 The following operations are not considered in the classical probability literature but have been
 101 studied in other areas, e.g., through the lens of category theory [26, 27, 28]. Here we rework them to
 102 fit our framework.

103 **P3** Given $\kappa : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2$ and $\lambda : X_3 \rightsquigarrow X_4$, their *superposition* (see § S2.1) is equal to $\kappa\lambda :$
 104 $X_1 \times X_3 \rightsquigarrow X_2 \times X_4$ as $(\kappa\lambda)f(x_1, x_3) := \int_{X_2} \kappa(x_1, dx_2) \int_{X_4} \lambda(x_3, dx_4) f(x_2, x_4)$, where
 105 $f : X_2 \times X_4 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is positive $\mathcal{X}_2 \times \mathcal{X}_4$ -measurable;

²We slightly abuse the kernel notation $\kappa_{Z\tilde{Z}}$ to describe how corruption changes the probability spaces. For
 instance, if a corruption acts solely on the space X , it will be written as $\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}$; however, only the probability
 measure on it will be actually changed.



(a) Corruption hierarchy. It is based on the independence from a parameter or a corrupted variable. Arrow: child is constant w.r.t. exactly one of the variables in parent.



(b) Feasible combinations. The partial ordering is induced by corruptions, i.e., one corruption in child and one in parent respect the corruption hierarchy.

Figure 1: Partial orderings on the corruption and combination sets, based on the amount of *dependence* on the spaces. In the left panel, we underline with dotted nodes the corruptions that cannot be used in any feasible combination. Trivial cases of independence from all parameters or identical kernels are excluded from this analysis.

106 **P4** The *pseudo-inverse* of a kernel $\kappa : X_1 \rightsquigarrow X_2$ is defined as $\kappa^\dagger : X_2 \rightsquigarrow X_1$ such that $(\kappa^\dagger \circ \kappa)\mu_1 =$
 107 μ_1 and $(\kappa \circ \kappa^\dagger)\mu_2 = \mu_2$ with μ_1, μ_2 being the probabilities associated to X_1, X_2 . In general,
 108 the pseudo-inverse is not unique, since it corresponds to a class of equivalence induced by the
 109 probability measure on X_1 (see details in § S2.2).

110 Again, **P3** is well defined for $\kappa \equiv \mu \in \mathcal{P}(X_2)$. This operation allows for more flexible combinations
 111 of kernels, in a “parallel” fashion. No restriction is imposed on the parameter spaces to be equal, e.g.,
 112 $X_1 = X_2$, or Cartesian products with some space in common, e.g., $X_1 = Y_1 \times Y_2, X_2 = Y_1 \times Y_3$.
 113 When this happens, the action of the two kernels “superpose” on the same space. In addition, having
 114 more than one measure in the integral acting on the same space would make the integral ill-defined,
 115 so this case is excluded. Because of these properties, we say that **P3** is the operation with the *weakest*
 116 *feasibility conditions*, i.e., the set of rules to fulfill a well-defined operation.

117 **Building a taxonomy of corruptions** Corruptions can be naturally classified in different ways,
 118 depending on their behavior with respect parameters and corrupted variables. In Fig. 1a, we show all
 119 possible non-trivial corruption types, i.e., those that are not identical and not constantly equal to a
 120 probability. We classify them based on the number of parameters they *depend on*, and the type of
 121 corrupted variables they *result in*. Specifically, we employ the following abbreviations: J is short for
 122 Joint (both variables are corrupted), S is short for Simple (the parameter and the corrupted variable
 123 are the same), and D is short for Dependent (others). We then obtain the classification: 2-parameter
 124 joint corruption (2J), 1-parameter joint corruption (1J), 2-parameter dependent corruption (2D),
 125 1-parameter dependent corruption (1D), simple corruption (S), along with an indication of parameter
 126 or corrupted space. The general naming rule is {#parameters} + {abbreviation} + {-} + {parameter
 127 or corrupted space, depending on where the ambiguity lies}.

128 We now want to generate all possible corruptions of the type $\kappa_{Z\bar{Z}} : X \times Y \rightsquigarrow \bar{X} \times \bar{Y}$. We
 129 combine the nodes in Fig. 1a using the superposition operation (**P3**), obtaining all the feasible
 130 combinations included in Fig. 1b. The missing couples are excluded because of **P3**’s feasibility
 131 conditions described above, which, even if weak, still do not allow some corruption pairings. Needing
 132 each corrupted variable to appear *exactly once*, we cannot include the 1-parameter joint corruptions
 133 in any factorization of the $\kappa_{XY\bar{X}\bar{Y}}$. It is easy to check that no corruption from (a subset of) $\{\bar{X}, Y\}$
 134 to (a subset of) $\{\bar{X}, \bar{Y}\}$ can be combined with them. Compatibility problems arise also when trying
 135 to combine a simple corruption (S) with a 1-parameter dependent one (1D); we cannot fulfill the
 136 feasibility conditions for **P3** and obtain a complete joint corruption, since we will be always missing
 137 a parameter. We then exclude this combination from our taxonomy.³

138 **Markov kernels and exhaustiveness** Our motivation for formalizing corruptions through Markov
 139 kernels is their representation power in terms of couplings. A *coupling* is formally defined for two
 140 probability spaces $\Sigma_1 := (Z_1, \mathcal{Z}_1, P_1), \Sigma_2 := (Z_2, \mathcal{Z}_2, P_2)$ as a probability space $\Sigma := (Z_1 \times$
 141 $Z_2, \mathcal{Z}_1 \times \mathcal{Z}_2, P)$, such that the marginal probabilities associated to P w.r.t. $Z_i, i \in \{1, 2\}$ are

³Note that 1Js are still valid corruptions if seen as a subcase of a 2J, the full one, e.g., $2J = \kappa_{X\bar{X}\bar{Y}}(d\bar{x}d\bar{y}, x) \mathbf{1}(y)$. Similarly, a 1D corruption can be seen as a subcase of a 2D corruption. Here we are exploring the possibility of combining them with other corruptions. The constraints are only dimensional.

Table 1: Illustration of the taxonomy with examples of existing corruption models.

Name	Action diagram	Corrupted distribution	Examples
S- \tilde{X}	$Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}\delta_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	attribute noise [30, 31, 4, 19]
S- \tilde{Y}	$X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$	$\tilde{P} = (\delta_{X\tilde{X}}\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_X \times F)$	class-conditional noise [32, 33, 5, 34, 7, 19]
1D- \tilde{X}	$X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}\delta_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_X \times F)$	style transfer [35, 36, 37]
1D- \tilde{Y}	$Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$	$\tilde{P} = (\delta_{X\tilde{X}}\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	instance-dependent noise (IDN) [8]
2D- \tilde{X}	$Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}\delta_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	adversarial noise [38, 39, 40, 41, 42]
2D- \tilde{Y}	$X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$	$\tilde{P} = (\delta_{X\tilde{X}}\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_X \times F)$	instance & label-dependent noise [8, 43, 44, 45]
S- \tilde{X} , S- \tilde{Y}	$\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	combined simple noise [19]
1D- \tilde{X} , 2D- \tilde{Y}	$\tilde{X} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	target shift [46, 47, 48, 49]
2D- \tilde{X} , S- \tilde{Y}	$\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	mutually contaminated distributions [6, 50, 51]
2D- \tilde{X} , 1D- \tilde{Y}	$\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}} X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_X \times F)$	covariate shift [3, 52, 53, 54]
2D- \tilde{X} , 2D- \tilde{Y}	$\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$	$\tilde{P} = (\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}) \circ (\pi_Y \times E)$	generalized target shift [55, 56, 57] concept drift [58, 59]

142 the respective P_i . By construction, Markov kernels are in bijection with all the possible couplings
 143 existent on $Z \times Z$ with two *fixed* probability measures, for us, P, \tilde{P} . Hence, they represent all
 144 possible pairwise dependencies between probability spaces that are *stochastic*, and for non-stochastic
 145 mappings, we are sure to have an alternative Markov kernel representation.⁴

146 In most machine learning research considering corruption, the corruption process typically involves
 147 two environments, that is, the training one and the test one. Our definition of corruption (Def. 2)
 148 covers all such pairwise cases. Furthermore, one may also apply this framework to settings with
 149 more than two spaces, e.g., online learning or learning from multiple different domains [29]. For
 150 these cases, we can employ a composed model, where different corruptions are acting together in a
 151 “chained” (P1, P2) or “parallel” (P3) fashion and creating more complex patterns. We discuss further
 152 possibilities for applying this framework to $n > 2$ corrupted spaces in § S2.3.

153 **Relations to existing paradigms** Next, we examine how existing corruption models fit into our
 154 taxonomy. To do so, we reformulate them as specific instantiations of Markov corruptions. This
 155 reveals their relationships within the corruption hierarchy presented in Fig. 1a. Our goal here is
 156 not to merely demonstrate that a child problem can be solved by a parent one, but rather to gain a
 157 deeper understanding of the problem settings. The exhaustiveness of the framework allows us to
 158 identify what has been previously overlooked in characterizing all types of corruption. Notably, we
 159 highlight the existence of joint and dependent corruptions, which receive far less attention than simple

⁴When the mapping between two fixed probability spaces is a transition kernel, e.g., a non-normalized Markov kernel, the map is *deterministic*. An example is the selection bias classically formalized as absolutely continuous probabilities $\tilde{P} \ll P$ [14]. However, given the bijection with the coupling space, we can always find a stochastic map connecting Σ_1, Σ_2 . A similar argument can be replicated for mappings between Σ_1, Σ_2 that are not kernel-induced, e.g., they are not positive. For more details, see § S2.2.

160 corruptions, while far greater problems arise in such complicated cases (see § 4). Moreover, we notice
 161 that existing categorizations rely mostly on the notion of invariance, i.e., corruptions are defined
 162 based on which element of the distributions are preserved. These invariance-based taxonomies have
 163 been introduced mainly for robustness and causal analyses. However, they do not have a one-to-one
 164 correspondence with ours, and do not allow for a hierarchical nor compositional view of corruption.
 165 A summary of representative corruption models in the literature is given in Tab. 1, while all the
 166 technical details about correspondences and relations between taxonomies are given in § S1.

167 4 Consequences of corruption in supervised learning

168 Traditionally, experiments have been compared through Bayes Risk using what is known as the Data
 169 Processing Inequality, or Blackwell-Sherman-Stein Theorem [20, 60].⁵ Recently, in Williamson and
 170 Cranko [19], Data Processing Equality results have also been studied within the supervised learning
 171 framework. Here we adopt the equality approach to compare the clean and corrupted experiments
 172 through Bayes Risk. The equalities formally characterize how the optimization problem is affected by
 173 the different kinds of joint corruption in our taxonomy. This gives us a quantitative result in terms of
 174 conserved “information” [19] between corrupted and clean learning problems, and a bridge between
 175 the problems themselves.

176 We rewrite the minimization set of the BR in a more compact way, such as $\ell \circ \mathcal{H} := \{(x, y) \mapsto$
 177 $\ell(h_x, y) \mid h \in \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{M}(X, Y)\}$. We define the action of a corruption κ on this set as the set of all the
 178 corrupted functions κf , $f \in \ell \circ \mathcal{H}$. Lastly, we ask $f^* = \ell \circ h^* \in \arg \min_f \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{P}}[f(\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})]$ to belong
 179 to the constraining space $\ell \circ \mathcal{H}$, for reasons already discussed for Eq. (1).

180 The first two theorems cover the (S, 2D) cases and their subcase (S- \tilde{X} , S- \tilde{Y}), as proved in [19].

181 **Theorem 3** (BR under (S- \tilde{X} , S- \tilde{Y}), (2D- \tilde{X} , S- \tilde{Y}) joint corruption). *Let (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) be a learning*
 182 *problem, $E : Y \rightsquigarrow X$ an experiment and $\kappa^{\tilde{X}} \in \{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}, \kappa_{YX\tilde{X}}\}$ a corruption. Let $\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}$ be a*
 183 *simple corruption on Y . Then we can form the corrupted experiment as per the transition diagram⁶*

184
$$\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa^{\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{Y} \sim \kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}} \pi_Y} CBR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}(\kappa^{\tilde{X}} E_{\tilde{Y}}) = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi_Y} CBR_{\kappa^{\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}} \ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(E_Y).$$

185 Moreover, if $\kappa^{\tilde{X}} = \kappa_{X\tilde{X}}$, we have

$$BR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}[\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}(\pi_Y \times \kappa_{X\tilde{X}} E)] = BR_{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}} \ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(\pi_Y \times E). \quad (2)$$

186 Here in Theorem 3 we have shown the BR equality for the experiment E , in line with the Comparison
 187 of Experiments and Information Equalities literature mentioned at the beginning of the section.
 188 However, for some corruptions the equalities results cannot be stated with E and the Generative
 189 CBR, unless ignoring the joint corruption factorization formula (see § S5 for a detailed explanation).
 190 We hence use the posterior kernel F defined with the Discriminative CBR (Eq. (1)), and gain more
 191 insights about the minimization set while paying a price in elegance of the result.

192 **Theorem 4** (BR under (S- \tilde{X} , 2D- \tilde{Y}) joint corruption). *Let (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) be a learning problem, $F :$*
 193 *$X \rightsquigarrow Y$ a posterior and $\kappa_{X\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}}$ a Y corruption. Let $\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}$ be a simple corruption on X . Then we*

194 *can form the corrupted experiment as per the transition diagram* $\tilde{X} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}} X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$

195 and obtain

$$\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{X} \sim \kappa_{X\tilde{X}} \pi_X} CBR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}(\kappa_{X\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}} F_{\tilde{X}}) = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \pi_X} CBR_{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{X\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}} \ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(F_X).$$

⁵Briefly, the theorem states that for an experiment E and its image through a suitably defined Markov kernel κ w.r.t. some operation, we have $BR_{\pi, \ell, \mathcal{H}}(E) \leq BR_{\pi, \ell, \mathcal{H}}(\kappa E)$ for all π, ℓ, \mathcal{H} .

⁶The first arrow in the diagram is $\tilde{Y} \rightsquigarrow Y$, the opposite direction given for the Y corruption. However, we are not using any notion of inverse corruption here. We are only using the flexibility of Markov kernels as operators and introducing an alternative notation. The kernel used here is exactly the $\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}} : Y \rightsquigarrow \tilde{Y}$, which acts on an input measure in a “push-forward” fashion. The notation will be further used in the rest of the paper.

We can notice, thanks to Theorems 3, 4, that when corruption involves dependent structures in the factorization, the loss function or the whole minimization set are modified in a parameterized, *dependent* way. For instance,

$$\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}\ell \circ \mathcal{H}) = \{\kappa_{X\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}}\ell_x \circ h) \mid h \in \mathcal{H}\},$$

196 with $\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}$ now viewed as a parameterized label corruption, i.e. $(\kappa_{Y\tilde{Y}})_x$. An additional consequence
 197 is also that the result can only be given in terms of CBR, Discriminative or Generative. We also see
 198 that corruptions on Y only affect the loss function and does not touch the model class, even in the
 199 dependent case.

200 The next theorems cover the factorizations involving 1D corruptions. In the first case, we are again
 201 forced to use either E or F , depending on the involved factors. We group the two results in one
 202 theorem for brevity.

203 **Theorem 5** (BR under (1D, 2D) joint corruption). *Let (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) be a learning problem, $E : Y \rightsquigarrow X$
 204 and $F : X \rightsquigarrow Y$ be an experiment and a posterior on it.*

205 1. *Let $\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}$ be a corruption on X and $\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}$ be a corruption on Y , then we can form the jointly
 206 corrupted experiment as per the transition diagram $\tilde{X} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$ and obtain*

$$BR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}[\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}(\pi_Y \times E)] = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \pi_Y} CBR_{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{XY\tilde{Y}}\ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(E_Y). \quad (3)$$

207 2. *Let $\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}$ be a corruption on Y and $\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}$ be a corruption on X , then we can form the jointly
 208 corrupted posterior as per the transition diagram $\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}} X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$ and obtain*

$$BR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}[\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}(\pi_X \times F)] = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \pi_X} CBR_{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}(\kappa_{XY\tilde{X}}\ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(F_X). \quad (4)$$

209 Being the (1D, 1D) a subcase of both previous corruptions, we can prove the result as a simple
 210 corollary. Notice that this implies both E and F formulations to hold.

211 **Corollary 6** (BR under (1D, 1D) joint corruption). *Let (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) be a learning problem, $E : Y \rightsquigarrow X$
 212 and $F : X \rightsquigarrow Y$ be an experiment and a posterior on it. Let $\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}$ be a corruption on X and $\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}$ be
 213 a corruption on Y , then we can form the jointly corrupted experiment as per the transition diagram*

214 $\tilde{X} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}} Y \xrightarrow{E} X \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}} \tilde{Y}$ or equivalently $\tilde{Y} \xrightarrow{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}} X \xrightarrow{F} Y \xrightarrow{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}} \tilde{X}$. We obtain

$$BR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}[\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}(\pi_Y \times \kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}E)] = BR_{\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}(\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}\ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(\pi_Y \times E),$$

215 or equivalently

$$BR_{\ell \circ \mathcal{H}}[\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}(\pi_X \times \kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}F)] = BR_{\kappa_{X\tilde{Y}}(\kappa_{Y\tilde{X}}\ell \circ \mathcal{H})}(\pi_X \times F).$$

216 In all the Theorems involving a 1D corruption, the minimization set is heavily modified. In Eq. (3),
 217 the loss function is corrected such that it will be dependent on the parameter x (ℓ_x), while the whole
 218 composition will be evaluated on y instead of x . We the obtain functions of the form $\widetilde{(\ell_x \circ h)}_y$. In
 219 Eq. (4), we instead end up having a minimization space of the form $\widetilde{(\ell \circ h)}_y(x)$. Lastly, both results
 220 of Corollary 6 lead to a comparison of performance on the X space instead of Y , with a new loss
 221 function that takes in input y and a probability on X parameterized by y . We can consider the these
 222 cases as an expansion of the loss space; more detail will be added in the next section.

223 The only factorization missing from Fig. 1b is the (2D, 2D) one. Because of its high dependence
 224 on the parameters, we could not recover a meaningful decomposition of the effect on $\ell \circ \mathcal{H}$. This
 225 suggests it to be equivalent to a 2J corruption when looked at through the lens of Bayes Risk. For
 226 detailed analysis, see Supplementary material § S3.

227 5 Corruption-corrected learning

228 We now leverage our corruption framework for answering the question “*what can we do to ensure*
 229 *unbiased learning from biased data?*”. This question has different answers depending on what we
 230 mean by unbiased learning. As for the biased data, we assume that biased here refers to non-identical
 231 joint corruption acting on a probability, giving us a corrupted training distribution.

232 Past work from Van Rooyen and Williamson [7] and Patrini et al. [34] considered unbiased learning
 233 as what is known as *generalization*, i.e. learn on the corrupted space \tilde{P} a hypothesis h^* such that it is
 234 also optimal on the clean distribution P at test time. They choose the approach of corrected learning,
 235 which is, correcting the loss function or the model class in order to learn a h^* capable to generalize.
 236 They both used frameworks related to ours, although only in the presence of simple Y corruption.

237 We prove similar results to these works for the *loss correction* task and analyze what we can achieve
 238 in other corruption cases described by our taxonomy. In general, we cannot prove generalization but
 239 we exhibit a corrected loss allowing the model learned on \tilde{P} to have the same *biases* (i.e. *loss scores*)
 240 as the one found for the clean learning problem. To do so, we make use of the pseudo-inverse of a
 241 Markov kernel (**P4**), as it is more convenient and powerful than the kernel reconstruction introduced in
 242 [7]. The results we show here also serve as a first step towards understanding the effect of corruption
 243 of the minimization set $\ell \circ \mathcal{H}$, in the cases where the BR equalities are not giving us much information
 244 (i.e. all the cases that are not simple label noise [19]).

245 Again, in this analysis, we ignore the influence of the data sample and the optimization technique. We
 246 use all the assumptions introduced when defining the learning problem in § 2 and the BR results § 4.

247 **The BR equalities for cleaning kernels** The theorems proved in § 4 can then be restated, in terms
 248 of learning problems and pseudo-inverse $\kappa^\dagger : \tilde{Z} \rightsquigarrow Z$, as

$$(\ell, \mathcal{H}, P) \rightarrow (\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H}), \kappa P) . \quad (5)$$

249 We will refer here to the pseudo-inverse of our corruption as the *cleaning kernel*. Notice that the set
 250 $\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H})$ is not trivially decomposable as $\tilde{\ell} \circ \tilde{\mathcal{H}}$ for some loss and model class. In this case, $\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H})$
 251 is said to have no *o-factorized structure*.

The BR equalities are ensuring the existence of a function $f^* \in \ell \circ \mathcal{H} \cap \kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H})$ that minimizes the Bayes Risk, i.e.

$$f^* \in \arg \min_{f \in \ell \circ \mathcal{H}} \mathbb{E}_P f(Z) \text{ and } f^* \in \arg \min_{f \in \kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H})} \mathbb{E}_{\kappa P} f(Z) .$$

252 Sadly, this is not enough for us to find an optimal hypothesis working for both probability spaces.
 253 Formal results on this optimal $h \in \mathcal{H}$ for both clean and corrupted spaces only exist for label noise
 254 [7, 8]. However, by introducing a few further assumptions, we can get results on which alternative loss
 255 to use on train distribution so that the learned h on \tilde{P} will have the same performance scores as the
 256 optimal on (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) . Let us consider the composed representation of the function f^* in the test (clean)
 257 minimization set, which is $f^* = \ell \circ h^*$. We want to construct a suitable composed representation for
 258 f^* also in the space $\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H})$, namely $f^* = \tilde{\ell} \circ \tilde{h}^*$. We start by fixing a $\tilde{h}^* \in \mathcal{H}$ of our choice, that
 259 if asked to be invertible (**A1**) identifies the loss function as $\tilde{\ell} = \ell \circ h^* \circ (\tilde{h}^*)^{-1} : \mathcal{P}(Y) \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$.⁷
 260 There can be weaker conditions on $(\tilde{\ell}, \tilde{h}^*)$ enabling all the following results, but do not investigate
 261 the here.

262 Since in general $\kappa^\dagger(f^*) \neq f^*$, we have that: $\exists h' \in \mathcal{H}$ s.t. $\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ h') = \tilde{\ell} \circ \tilde{h}^*$, where we ask $h' \neq h^*$,
 263 otherwise we would be imposing the trivial condition $\ell \circ h^* = \tilde{\ell} \circ \tilde{h}^* = \kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ h^*)$, i.e. the corruption
 264 is harmless w.r.t. the Bayes Risk value. In order to study the possible loss correction, we choose the
 265 corrupted optimum as $\tilde{h}^* = h'$ (**A2**).

266 **Loss corrections** We now try to formalize how to define a suitable loss for the corrupted learning
 267 problem, such that the optimal hypothesis is learned in the clean learning space. The problem setting
 268 gives us access to ℓ, κ^\dagger given by the problem, and \tilde{h}^* chosen by us. We want to find a way to retrieve a
 269 suitable h^* for the clean distribution. That means, the loss correction task here is *finding a formulation*
 270 *of $\tilde{\ell}$ that depends on ℓ, κ^\dagger* . An essential preliminary result, for which the proof is given in § S4.1, is

271 **Lemma 7.** *The feasible factorization of a Markov kernel κ is also a valid factorization for its*
 272 *pseudo-inverse κ^\dagger , both for the full kernel or considering their parameterized versions.*

273 We then give the correction results (proof in § S4.2), and discuss them.

⁷Here h^* is inverted as a function, not as a kernel. That means, $\tilde{\ell}(p, y) = \ell(h^*((\tilde{h}^*)^{-1}(p)), y)$.

274 **Theorem 8.** Let (ℓ, \mathcal{H}, P) be a clean learning problem and $(\kappa^\dagger(\ell \circ \mathcal{H}), \kappa P)$ its associated corrupted
275 one, not necessarily with a \circ -factorized structure. Let κ^\dagger be the joint cleaning kernel reversing κ ,
276 such that assumptions **A1** and **A2** hold for the said problems. The factorization of κ^\dagger is assumed to be
277 feasible and to have an equality result of the form Eq. (5). We write $\kappa^\dagger(dz, \tilde{z}) = \kappa^X(dx, \cdot)\kappa^Y(dy, \cdot)$,
278 with (\cdot) some feasible parameters. Hence, we can prove the following points:

279 1. When κ^\dagger is either $(id_X, S-Y)$ or $(id_X, 2D-Y)$, we can write the corrected loss as

$$\tilde{\ell}(h(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y}) = (\kappa^Y \ell)(h(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y}) \quad \forall (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{X} \times \tilde{Y},$$

280 with $\kappa^Y \ell = \kappa_{\tilde{x}}^Y \ell$ for the second case.

281 2. When κ^\dagger is $(S-X, S-Y)$, $(2D-X, S-Y)$ or $(S-X, 2D-Y)$, we have

$$\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, h) = \mathbb{E}_{u \sim \kappa^X h(\tilde{x})}[\kappa^Y \ell(u, \tilde{y})] \quad \forall (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{X} \times \tilde{Y},$$

282 with $\kappa_{\tilde{x}}^X h(\tilde{x})(A) := \kappa^X(h^{-1}(A), \tilde{x})$, $A \subset \mathcal{P}(Y)$ being the push-forward probability measure of
283 $\kappa^X(\cdot, \tilde{x})$ through h , h seen as a function. For the cases that involve a 2D corruption, we have
284 $\kappa^Y \ell = \kappa_{\tilde{x}}^Y \ell$ for the former κ^\dagger factorization, $\kappa^X h(\tilde{x}) = \kappa_{\tilde{y}}^X h(\tilde{x})$ for the latter.

285 3. When κ^\dagger is a $(1D-X, 1D-Y)$ corruption, we can write the corrected loss as

$$\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, h) = \mathbb{E}_{u \sim \kappa^X h(\tilde{y})}[\kappa^Y \ell(u, \tilde{x})] \quad \forall (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{X} \times \tilde{Y},$$

286 with $\kappa_{\tilde{x}}^X h(\tilde{y})(B) := \kappa^X(h^{-1}(B), \tilde{y})$, $B \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$.

287 4. When κ^\dagger is a $(2D, 1D)$ corruption, we can write the corrected loss as

$$\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, h) = \mathbb{E}_{u \sim \kappa^X h(\tilde{y})}[\kappa_{\tilde{x}}^Y \ell(u, \tilde{y})], \quad \tilde{\ell}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, h) = \mathbb{E}_{u \sim \kappa_{\tilde{y}}^X h(\tilde{x})}[\kappa^Y \ell(u, \tilde{x})] \quad \forall (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{X} \times \tilde{Y}.$$

288 for the $(1D-X, 2D-Y)$, $(2D-X, 1D-Y)$ respectively.

289 When minimized, the corrected losses will by construction give back the hypothesis \tilde{h}^* . Since
290 $\ell \circ h^* = \tilde{\ell} \circ \tilde{h}^*$, the learned \tilde{h}^* has on the clean distribution the optimum performance we wanted
291 to achieve with the original loss function ℓ . Hence, we achieve unbiased learning in the sense of
292 matching scores and in the distributional sense.

293 The corrections found by the theorem are more complex than the ones defined in previous work
294 [7, 34], i.e., the first part of point 1. In the second part, we characterize the effect of a more “dependent”
295 Y cleaning kernel, i.e. closer to the root in Fig. 1a. When also κ^X is non-trivial in the factorization,
296 we have an action on h . Then, the corrected functions lie in a larger function space than the usual
297 one, the one of positive, bounded functions $\ell : X \times Y \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$.

298 The result additionally underlines how the cleaning kernel affects the a hypothesis on X : it induces a
299 set of “reachable predictions” from h through κ^\dagger , depending on the outcome of the stochastic process
300 $\kappa^\dagger : \tilde{X} \rightsquigarrow X$. The push-forward probability measures are probabilities on a *set of probabilities*. For
301 instance, in point 2 we have $\kappa_{\tilde{x}}^X h(\tilde{x}) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(Y))$, while for point 3 we have $\kappa_{\tilde{x}}^X h(\tilde{x}) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(X))$.

302 6 Conclusions

303 We proposed a comprehensive and unified framework for corruption using Markov kernels, system-
304 atically studying corruption in three key aspects: classification, consequence, and correction. We
305 established a new taxonomy of corruption, enabling qualitative comparisons between corruption
306 models in terms of the corruption hierarchy. To gain a deeper quantitative understanding of corruption,
307 we analyzed the consequences of different corruptions from an information-theoretic standpoint by
308 proving Data Processing Equalities for Bayes Risk. As a consequence of them, we obtained loss
309 correction formulas that gives us more insights into the effect of corruption on losses.

310 Throughout the work, we consider data as probability distributions, implicitly assuming that each
311 dataset has an associated probabilistic generative process. We treat corruption as Markov kernels,
312 assuming full access to their actions, and analyze the consequences of corruption through Bayes risks
313 without accounting for sampling or optimization. Bridging the gap between the distributional-level
314 and the sample-level results would be the next step for this study, which requires tailored ad-hoc
315 analyses. Other directions for making this framework more practically usable include developing
316 quantitative methods to compare corruption severity and investigating the effects of optimization
317 algorithms on the analysis.

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