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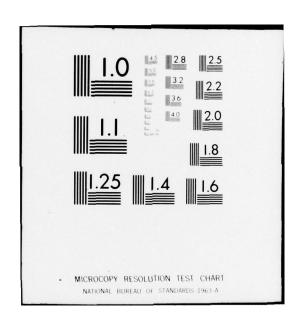












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DISTRIBUTION-FREE PERFORMANCE BOUNDS WITH THE RESUBSTITUTION ERROR ESTIMATE

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2. Main Results

Probability inequalities are given for the deviation of the resubstitution error estimate from the unknown conditional probability of error. The inequalities are distribution-free and can be applied to linear discrimination rules, to nearest neighbor rules with a reduced sample size, and to histogram rules.

### 1. Introduction

The discrimination problem may be formulated as follows. The statistician collects data  $(x_1,\theta_1),\ldots,(x_n,\theta_n)$ , a sequence of independent identically distributed random vectors drawn from the distribution of  $(x,\theta)$ , a random vector independent of the data. For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , the observation  $x_i$  takes values in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and its state  $\theta_i$  takes values in  $\{1,\ldots,M\}$ . The discrimination problem is that of estimating the state  $\theta$  from the data and the observation X using procedures which do not require complete knowledge of the distribution of  $(X,\theta)$ . If  $\hat{\theta}$  denotes the estimate, that is,  $\hat{\theta}=g(X,V_n)$  where g is a Borel measurable  $\{1,\ldots,M\}$ -valued function of X and the data  $V_n=(X_1,\theta_1,\ldots,X_n,\theta_n)$ , then a measure of the performance of the procedure given the data is  $L_n=P\{\hat{\theta}\neq\theta|V_n\}$ , the conditional probability of error.

Since the distribution of  $(X,\theta)$  is unknown, there is in general no way of computing  $L_n$  from the data. Using the data the statistician may try to estimate  $L_n$  by  $\hat{L}_n$ . A survey of estimation techniques can be found in Toussaint. One of the oldest estimates is the resubstitution estimate

$$\hat{L}_{n} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{\{\hat{\theta}_{i} \neq \theta_{i}\}}$$

where  $\hat{\theta}_i = g(X_i, V_n)$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ , are the estimates of the states of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  with the given discrimination procedure, and where I is the indicator function.

In this paper we obtain upper-bounds for  $P\{|L_n-\hat{L}_n| \geq \epsilon\}$  that do not depend upon the distribution of  $(X,\theta)$ , and that are applicable to three large classes of discrimination rules,

the linear discrimination rules,
 the nearest-neighbor rules with reduced sample size, and

(iii) the histogram decision rules. The existence of distribution-free bounds with the resubstitution estimate for linear discrimination rules was first noticed by Vapnik and Chervonenkis. <sup>10</sup> The bounds for the class (i) improve the bounds given in Devroye and Wagner<sup>2</sup>, while the results for the rules (ii) and (iii) are new. The possible existence of distribution-free bounds for (ii) was suggested to the authors by Dr. Penrod <sup>16</sup>.

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Let  $\varphi_0,\ \varphi_1,\dots,\varphi_m$  be known measurable mappings from  $\mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  where  $m'\geq 1$  and  $m\geq 1$ , and  $\varphi_0\equiv 1.$  Let  $w_0=(w_{10},\dots,w_{1m'}),\dots,\ w_M=(w_{M0},\dots,w_{Mm'})$  be Borel-measurable  $\mathbb{R}^{m'+1}$ -valued vector functions of the data  $V_n$ . Then, the rule which assigns the state  $\hat{\theta}=j\ (1\leq j\leq M)$  to X whenever j is the first integer for which

$$\sum_{i=0}^{m'} w_{ji}(v_n) \phi_i(x) = \max_{1 \le k \le M} \{\sum_{i=0}^{m'} w_{ki}(v_n) \phi_i(x)\}$$

is called a linear discrimination rule (see Duda and Hart³ for a survey of the literature on linear discrimination). We emphasize that the  $\mathbf{w}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{w}_M$  may be picked in an arbitrary fashion, using any method that can or cannot be found in the literature. The functions  $\phi_i$  are picked in advance. The following bound is proved in the Appendix.

Theorem 1. For every  $\epsilon>0$  and for all linear discrimination rules with given  $\phi_0,\phi_1,\ldots,\phi_m$ , the resubstitution estimate  $\hat{L}_n$  satisfies

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \varepsilon\} \le 4M(1 + (2n)^m')^{M-1}e^{-n\varepsilon^2/8M^2}$$

For the interesting case that M=2, we see that

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\} \le 8(1 + (2n)^{m'}) e^{-n\epsilon^2/32}$$
.

Using the Borel-Cantelli lemma and Theorem 1, we see that for a given m' and M, and uniformly over all linear discrimination rules,  $|\mathsf{L}_n - \hat{\mathsf{L}}_n| \stackrel{n}{\to} 0$  with probability one, a result due to  $\mathsf{Glick}^{11}$ . Thus, the statistician could pick the  $\mathsf{w}_1, \dots, \mathsf{w}_\mathsf{M}$  that minimize the resubstitution estimate  $\hat{\mathsf{L}}_n$  because he knows from Theorem 1 that the corresponding probability of error  $\mathsf{L}_n$  will be very close to  $\hat{\mathsf{L}}_n$ , and that for large n, minimizing  $\hat{\mathsf{L}}_n$  is nearly equivalent to minimizing  $\mathsf{L}_n$  (see Wagner  $^{12}$ ).

In the literature special attention has been given to the nearest-neighbor rule with a reduced number of observations where the reduction is a result of editing (see for instance Wilson4), condensing (Hart5) or any other operation (Tomek6). In general, we end up with  $\mathbb{R}^m x\{1,\ldots,M\}$ -valued random vectors  $(Y_1,\xi_1),\ldots,(Y_K,\xi_K)$  where K is an integer-valued random variable with  $1\leq K\leq k_n$ . The  $(Y_1,\xi_1)$  and K may depend upon the data in an arbitrary fashion. A new observation X is assigned the state  $\theta=\xi_j$  whenever j is the smallest index for which

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$$||X-Y_j|| = \underset{1 \le i \le K}{\text{Min}} ||X-Y_i||$$
.

Thus,  $\hat{\theta}$  is the state of the nearest neighbor to X among Y<sub>1</sub>,...,Y<sub>K</sub>. In the Appendix the following Theorem is proved.

Theorem 2. For every  $\varepsilon$  >0, and for all the nearest-neighbor rules with reduced sample size, the resubstitution estimate  $\hat{L}_n$  satisfies

$$\mathsf{P}\{\,|\,\mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{n}}^{-\hat{\mathsf{L}}_{\mathsf{n}}}|\,\geq\,\varepsilon\}\!\!\leq\, 4\mathsf{M}(1\!+\!(2\mathsf{n})^{m})^{k}n^{-1}\,\operatorname{e}^{-\mathsf{n}\varepsilon^{2}/8k_{\mathsf{n}}^{2}}$$

where  $k_n$  is an upper-bound on the reduced sample size.

We remark that this bound is independent of the distribution of  $(X,\theta)$ . The bound converges to 0 as n grows large provided that the sequence  $k_1,k_2,\ldots$  is picked in such a way that  $k_n^3\log n/n \stackrel{\eta}{\to} 0$ . It is clear that this bound is useless for the well-known nearest neighbor rule<sup>7</sup>, that is, the rule with  $K=k_n=n$  and  $(Y_i,\xi_i)=(X_i,\theta_i),\ 1\le i\le n$ . This was to be expected because the resubstitution estimate with the nearestneighbor rule is overly optimistic. In fact, if the probability measure  $\mu$  of X is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure, then  $\hat{L}_n=0$  with probability one, no matter what value  $L_n$  takes.

Theorem 2 can be useful for reduced, selective, condensed or edited nearest-neighbor rules  $^{4-6}$ ,  $^{13-14}$ . If  $k_n$  is a prespecified number of  $(\gamma_i,\xi_i)$ 's that are to be used in the new nearest-neighbor rule, then the statistician could compute  $\hat{L}_n$  with some selected data  $(\chi_i,\theta_i),\ldots,(\chi_i,\theta_i)$  where  $\{i_1,\ldots,i_k\}$  is a sub-

set of  $\{1,\ldots,n\}$ , and decide to use that set of indices for which the resubstitution estimate is minimal. Using Theorem 2, we also know how much confidence we can put in our estimate  $\hat{L}_n$  regardless of the selection procedure of the  $(Y_i,\xi_i)$  and without any knowledge of the distribution of  $(X,\theta)$ .

The  $(Y_i, \xi_i)$ ,  $1 \le i \le k_n$ , partition  $\mathbb{R}^m$  into  $k_n$  disjoint sets  $A_1, \dots, A_{k_n}$  where the state of X is estimated by  $\hat{\theta} = \xi_j$  whenever X takes values in  $A_j$  (that is, X is closest to  $Y_j$ ). The partition in this case depends on the data because the  $Y_i$  depend upon the data. For a given fixed partition of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , we can expect to obtain tighter upper-bounds for  $P\{|L_n-\hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\}$  even if the partition is not generated by a reduced nearest-neighbor rule.

Let  $A_1,\ldots,A_{k_n}$  be <u>any</u> fixed partition of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and let  $\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_{k_n}$  be  $\{1,\ldots,M\}$ -valued random variables where, as before,  $\varepsilon_j$  is the state assigned to X whenwhenever X takes values in  $A_j$ . Such rules will be called histogram decision rules. We prove the following four distribution-free inequalities that are valid <u>nomatter</u> how the  $\varepsilon_i$  depend upon the data. The inequalities

do not imply one another.

Theorem 3. For a given  $k_n$ -member partition of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , for any way of specifying  $\xi_1,\dots,\xi_{k_n}$  from the data in a histogram decision rule, and for every  $\varepsilon>0$ , the resubstitution estimate  $\hat{L}_n$  satisfies

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\} \le g_{ni}$$
,  $1 \le i \le 4$ ,

where

$$g_{n1} = 4 k_n \text{ Min } (1+2n,M) e^{-n\epsilon^2/8k_n^2}$$
 $g_{n2} = 2 k_n M e^{-2n\epsilon^2/M^2k_n^2}$ 
 $g_{n3} = 4 \text{ Min } (M^k_n, 2^{2n}, (4n/k_n)^{k_n}) e^{-n\epsilon^2/8}$ 
 $g_{n4} = 2 M^k_n e^{-2n\epsilon^2/M^{2k_n}}$ .

We note here that  $g_{n1}$  and  $g_{n3}$  are useful even if  $M=\infty$  (i.e., the  $\xi_i$  and  $\theta_i$  can take a countably infinite number of values). Clearly, all the  $g_{ni}$  are independent of the dimension m and the distribution of  $(X_i\theta)$ , and  $g_{n3} \stackrel{n}{\to} 0$  provided that  $k_n/n \stackrel{n}{\to} 0$ . If  $k_n = \infty$ , the bounds are not applicable, and, as we will see, the resubstitution estimate does not possess the distribution-free properties that it has with finite partitions of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Assume that  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  is a fixed countably infinite partition of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . If the  $\xi_i$  are random variables that are independent of the data, then

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\} \le 2e^{-2n\epsilon^2}$$
 (1)

for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . However, such rules are impractical. The closest one can come to the Bayes rule with a fixed partition is to let  $\xi_i = j$  if j is the smallest integer such that  $N_{ij} = \underset{1 \leq k \leq M}{\text{Max}} N_{ik}$  where  $N_{ij}$  is the number of  $(X_k, \theta_k)$ 's with  $\overline{X}_k \overline{\epsilon} A_i$  and  $\theta_k = j$ . But even with this obvious choice of  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots$  we see that for any m and  $M \geq 2$ , there always exists a distribution of  $(X, \theta)$  such that  $|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \geq \frac{k_2}{2}$  with probability one. Indeed, assume that M = 2, that  $\theta = 2$  with probability one, and that X takes values in each  $A_1, \ldots, A_{2n}$  with equal probability 1/2n. If the  $\xi_i$  are picked as described, then the resubstitution estimate  $\hat{L}_n$  equals 0. Furthermore

$$L_n = \sum_{i=1}^{2n} P\{X \in A_i\} I_{\{N_{12}=0\}} \ge n/2n = 1/2.$$

This shows that even with the most obvious dependency of the  $\S_q$  on the data, we will never be able to upperbound  $P(|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \varepsilon)$  by an expression that decreases to 0 as n grows large, uniformly over all distributions of  $(x, \theta)$ .

## 3. Appendix

## Proof of Theorem 1.

Let v be the probability measure of  $(X,\theta)$  where X takes values in  $\mathbb{R}^{m'}$  and  $\theta$  takes values in  $\{1,\ldots,M\}$ . It is clear that if  $v_n$  is the empirical measure for  $(X_1,\theta_1),\ldots,(X_n,\theta_n)$ , and if  $A_1,\ldots,A_M$  is the partition of  $\mathbb{R}^{m'}$  that is generated by the linear discrimination rule (that is,  $A_i$  is the set on which we estimate the state of X by i), then

$$L_n = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \nu(A_i \times \{i\}^c)$$

and

$$\hat{L}_n = \sum_{i=1}^{M} v_n(A_i \times \{i\}^C) .$$

Thus.

$$|L_{n}-\hat{L}_{n}| = |\sum_{i=1}^{M} (v(A_{i}\times\{i\}^{c}) - v_{n}(A_{i}\times\{i\}^{c}))|$$

$$= |\sum_{i=1}^{M} (v_{n}(A_{i}\times\{i\}) - v_{n}(A_{i}\times\{i\}))|$$

$$\leq M \sup_{A \in \mathscr{A}} |v_{n}(A\times\{i\}) - v(A\times\{i\})|$$

$$\leq M \sup_{i \in \{1,\dots,M\}} |v_{n}(A\times\{i\}) - v(A\times\{i\})|$$

where  $\mathscr A$  is the class of all sets that are intersections of (M-1) linear halfspaces of  $\mathbb R^m$ . We recall that a linear halfspace of  $\mathbb R^m$  is a set of  $\mathbf x=(\mathbf x^1,\dots,\mathbf x^m)$  for which  $\mathbf x^1\mathbf a_1+\dots+\mathbf x^m\mathbf a_m\geq \mathbf a_0$  or  $\mathbf x^1\mathbf a_1+\dots+\mathbf x^m\mathbf a_m\leq \mathbf a_0$  for some  $(\mathbf a_0,\mathbf a_1,\dots,\mathbf a_m)\in\mathbb R^{m'+1}$ . Thus, every  $(\mathbf a_0,\mathbf a_1,\dots,\mathbf a_m)$  defines two linear halfspaces.

By an inequality of Vapnik and Chervonenkis9,

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \geq \epsilon\}$$

$$\leq P\{\sup_{\substack{A \in \mathcal{M} \\ 1 \leq i \leq M}} |v_n(A \times \{i\}) - v(A \times \{i\})| \geq \epsilon/M\}$$

$$< 4s(\mathcal{B}, 2n)e^{-n(\epsilon/M)^2/8}$$

where  $\mathcal{B}=\mathcal{A}\times\{\{1\},\ldots,\{M\}\}$  and  $s(\mathcal{B},n)$  is the maximum over all  $(x_1,y_1),\ldots,(x_n,y_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{m'}\times\{1,\ldots,M\}$  of the number of different sets in  $\{\{x_1,y_1\}\cup\ldots\cup\{x_n,y_n\}\}$   $\cap B|B\in\mathcal{B}\}$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  is the class of all linear halfspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and M=1, then  $s(\mathcal{B},n)<1+n^m$  by a theorem of Cover® (see also Vapnik and Chervonenkis®). It is clear that if  $\mathcal{A}$  is the class of all intersections of  $M^*-1$  or less linear halfspaces and M=1, then  $s(\mathcal{B},n)<(1+n^m)^{M^*-1}$ . If M>1, then  $s(\mathcal{B},n)< M(1+n^m)^{M^*-1}$ . Indeed, if  $s_1$  is the number of different sets in  $\{\{\{x_1,y_1\}\cup\ldots\cup\{x_n,y_n\}\}\cap B|B\in\mathcal{A}\times\{\{1\},\ldots,\{M\}\}\}$  is at most  $Ms_1$ . Thus we have shown that

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\} \le 4M(1+(2n)^{m'})^{M-1} e^{-n\epsilon^2/8M^2}$$
.  
Q.E.D.

# Proof of Theorem 2.

Let us use the notation of Theorem 1 where we let  $A_1, \ldots, A_K$  be the partition of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  that is generated by the nearest-neighbor rule with  $(Y_1, \xi_1), \ldots, (Y_K, \xi_K)$  (i.e.,  $A_i$  is the set on which we estimate the state of X by  $\xi_i$  and for which  $Y_i$  is the nearest neighbor to X among  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_K$ ), then

$$L_n = \sum_{i=1}^{K} v(A_i \times \{\xi_i\}^c)$$

and

$$\hat{L}_n = \sum_{i=1}^K v_n(A_i \times \{\xi_i\}^c)$$
.

Thus, arguing as in Theorem 1, we have  $|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \leq K \sup_{A \in \mathscr{M}} |v_n(A \times \{i\}) - v(A \times \{i\})|$   $1 \leq i \leq M$ 

where  $\mathcal{M}$  is the class of all sets that are intersections of  $(k_n-1)$  or less linear halfspaces of  ${\rm I\!R}^m$ . Since  $K \leq k_n$ , we have by the argument of Theorem 1 that

$$P\{|L_n-\hat{L}_n| \ge \epsilon\} \le 4M(1+(2n)^m)^{k_n-1} e^{-n\epsilon^2/8k_n^2}$$

$$Q.E.D.$$

## Proof of Theorem 3.

It is clear that

$$\begin{split} |L_{n}-\hat{L}_{n}| &= |v( \underset{\varrho=1}{\overset{k_{n}}{\cup}} (A_{\varrho} \times \{\xi_{\varrho}\}^{c})) - v_{n}( \underset{\varrho=1}{\overset{k_{n}}{\cup}} (A_{\varrho} \times \{\xi_{\varrho}\}^{c}))| \\ &= |v( \underset{\varrho=1}{\overset{k_{n}}{\cup}} (A_{\varrho} \times \{\xi_{\varrho}\})) - |v_{n}( \underset{\varrho=1}{\overset{U}{\cup}} (A_{\varrho} \times \{\xi_{\varrho}\}))| \\ &\leq \sum_{\varrho=1}^{k_{n}} \sup_{1 \leq i \leq M} |v(A_{\varrho} \times \{i\}) - v_{n}(A_{\varrho} \times \{i\})| . \end{split}$$

Thus, if  $\mathscr{C}_{\ell}$  is the class of sets of the form A  $_{\ell} \times \{i\}$ , 1<i<M, then we know by an inequality of Vapnik and Chervonenkis  $^9$  that

$$P\{|L_n-\hat{L}_n| \geq \epsilon\}$$

$$\leq k_n \sup_{1 \leq \ell \leq k} P\{\sup_{C \in \mathscr{C}_{\ell}} |v(C) - v_n(C)| \geq \epsilon/k_n\}$$

$$\leq 4k_n \left( \sup_{1 \leq \ell \leq k_n} s(\mathscr{C}_{\ell}, 2n) \right) e^{-n(\epsilon/k_n)^2/8}$$

$$\leq 4k_n \operatorname{Min}(1+2n,M) e^{-n\epsilon^2/8k_n^2}$$
.



$$P\{|L_n-\hat{L}_n| \geq \epsilon\}$$

$$\leq P \left\{ \sum_{\ell=1}^{k_n} \sum_{i=1}^{M} |\nu(A_{\ell} \times \{i\}) - \nu_n(A_{\ell} \times \{i\})| \geq \epsilon \right\}$$

$$\leq k_n M \sup_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq M \\ 1 \leq \ell \leq k \\ -2n\epsilon^2/M^2 k_n^2}} P\{|\nu(A_{\ell} \times \{i\}) - \nu_n(A_{\ell} \times \{i\})| \geq \epsilon/k_n M\}$$

$$\leq 2k_n Me$$

by an inequality of Hoeffding15. Furthermore,

$$|L_n - \hat{L}_n|$$

$$\leq \sup_{\substack{\text{all } (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k) \\ \text{from } \{1, \dots, M\}^k \\ n}} |\nu(\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\lambda_\ell \times \{\lambda_\ell \}}}}}}_{\ell=1}) - \nu_n(\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\lambda_\ell \times \{\lambda_\ell \}}}}}}}_{\ell=1}) - \nu_n(\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\lambda_\ell \times \{\lambda_\ell \}}}}}}_{\ell=1}))}|}_{\ell=1}$$

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \ge \varepsilon\} \le 4s(\mathscr{D}^*, 2n) e^{-n\varepsilon^2/8}$$

where  $\mathcal{D}^{\star}$  is the class of all sets of the form  $\bigcup_{\ell=1}^{n} (A_{\ell} \times \{\lambda_{\ell}\}) \text{ where } (\lambda_{1}, \dots, \lambda_{k_{n}}) \in \mathcal{D} = \{1, \dots, M\}^{k_{n}}.$ Clearly,  $s(\mathcal{D}^*,2n) \le 2^{2n}$  for all  $k_n$ . However, if  $k_n < 2n$ , then  $s(\mathcal{D}^*,2n) \le M^{k_n}$  and, in general, we must have that  $s(\mathcal{D}^*,2n) \leq 2^{k_n} (2n/k_n)^{k_n}$ . This proves the inequality with g<sub>n3</sub>.

Finally, notice that

$$P\{|L_n - \hat{L}_n| \geq \epsilon\}$$

$$\begin{split} & \leq \sum_{d \in \mathscr{D}} \Pr\{ \big| \nu \big( \underset{\ell=1}{\overset{k_n}{\cup}} \big( A_{\ell} \times \{\lambda_{\ell} \} \big) \big) - \nu_n \big( \underset{\ell=1}{\overset{U}{\cup}} \big( A_{\ell} \times \{\lambda_{\ell} \} \big) \big) \big| \; \geq \; \epsilon / M k_n \} \\ & \leq 2 M k_n \; e^{-2n\epsilon^2 / M} \; . \end{split}$$

Q.E.D.

## Proof of (1).

Inequality (1) is a corollary of Hoeffding's inequality<sup>15</sup> if we note that  $|L_n - \hat{L}_n| = |v(C) - v_n(C)|$ where

$$C = \bigcup_{\ell=1}^{\infty} (A_{\ell} \times \{\xi_{\ell}\}^{C}) .$$

Q.E.D.

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Error Estimation; Discrimination	
Probability inequalities are given for the deviation of the resubstitution error estimate from the unknown conditional probability of error. The inequalities are distribution-free and can be applied to linear discrimination rules, to nearest neighbor rules with a reduced sample size, and to histogram rules.	
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