On-Line Learning with an Oblivious Environment and the Power of Randomization

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Abstract

A new model for on-line learning is introduced. In this model the environment is assumed to be <u>oblivious</u> to the learner: it supplies an arbitrary (not necessarily random) sequence of examples for the target concept which does not depend on the sequence of hypotheses of the learner. This model provides a framework for the design and analysis of on-line learning algorithms which acquire information not just from counter examples, but also from examples which support their current hypothesis. It is shown that for various concept classes C an arbitrary target concept from C can be learned in this model by a ramdomized learning algorithm (which uses only hypotheses from C) with substantially fewer prediction errors than in Angluin's classical model for on-line learning with an adaptive worst-case environment. In particular any target-setting of weights and threshholds in a feed forward neural net can be learned by a randomized learning algorithm in this model with an expected number of prediction errors that is polynomial in the number of units of the neural net.

For comparison we also examine the power of randomization for Angluin's model for learning with an adaptive environment.

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1. Introduction.

The most common computational model for on-line (or: "incremental") learning is due to Angluin [A]. In this model the learner proposes "hypotheses" H from a fixed "concept class" $C \subseteq 2^X$ over a finite domain X. The goal of the learner is to "learn" an unknown "target concept" $C_T \in C$ that has been fixed by the "environment". Whenever the learner proposes some hypothesis H with $H \neq C_T$, the environment responds with some "counterexample" $x \in H \triangle C_T := (C_T - H) \cup (H - C_T)$. x is called a "positive counterexample" if $x \in C_T - H$, and x is called a "negative counterexample" if $x \in H - C_T$. A learning algorithm for C is any algorithm A that produces new hypotheses

$$H_{i+1}^A := A(x_1, \ldots, x_i; H_1^A, \ldots, H_i^A)$$

in dependence of counterexamples $x_j \in H_j^A \triangle C_T$ for the preceding hypotheses H_j^A . (One also refers to these hypotheses as "equivalence queries" [A]).

The "learning complexity" LC(A) of such a learning algorithm A is defined by

$$\mathrm{LC}(A) := \max\{i \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{there is come } C_T \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and some choice}$$
 of counterexamples $x_j \in H_j^A \triangle C_T$ for $j = 1, \ldots, i-1$ such that $H_i^A \neq C_T\}$.

The "learning complexity" LC(C) of a concept class C is defined by

$$LC(C) := min\{LC(A) \mid A \text{ is a learning algorithm for } C \text{ which only uses hypotheses from } C\}.$$

We set

$$LC-ARB(C) := min\{LC(A) \mid A \text{ is a learning algorithm for } C \text{ which uses}$$

arbitrary subsets of the domain X as hypotheses $\}$.

One may argue that the previously defined learning model is quite "pessimistic". The definition of LC(A) implicitly assumes that the environment is "adaptive" to the learner: the definition of LC(A) is based on the assumption that the environment "knows" the current hypothesis H of the learning algorithm A and that it supplies among all possible counterexamples $x \in H \triangle C_T$ the "least informative" one. It is difficult to imagine a learning situation where this pessimistic view of the environment as an "adaptive" (and malicious) adversary is actually justified. Hence a large lower bound for LC(C) does not necessarily imply that C is not on-line learnable in the presence of a non-probabilistic worst case environment.

We introduce in this paper a variation of Angluin's learning model where we assume that the environment is "oblivious" to the activities of the learner. More precisely, we assume that the environment provides an arbitrary sequence S of positive and negative examples for the target concept independently of the learning algorithm that is used by the learner. Thus one may just as well assume that the environment has determined both this sequence S of examples and the target

concept before the learning process begins. The learner (more precisely: the learning algorithm) processes these examples in an on-line fashion. Analogously as in the classical learning models for perceptrons ([R], [MP]) and neural networks ([N], [RM]) the learner is allowed to alter his hypothesis at each step where the current example provides a counterexample to his current hypothesis (one calls such an event a "prediction error", or simply an "error"). We refer to the other examples $\langle x, b \rangle$ in S (where the given classification $b = C_T(x)$ agrees with the "prediction" H(x) of the current hypothesis H) as supporting examples. In the learning model defined below we assume that the learner does not change his hypothesis when he encounters a supporting example, but he may store any supporting example that he receives (as well as any counterexample) for later use.

It is obvious that for the case of a deterministic learning algorithm A it makes no difference whether the environment is adaptive or oblivious: the oblivious environment can predict all later reactions of a deterministic algorithm A, hence it can write down already at the beginning of the learning process a sequence S which consists of the "optimal" moves of an adaptive adversary in a learning process with this learning algorithm A. Therefore we consider in the following definition immediately the case of randomized learning algorithms.

Whenever we define the learning complexity for a model where randomized learning algorithms are permitted, we will write "RLC" instead of "LC". In order to distinguish the learning complexity in the new model with an oblivious environment from the previously given learning complexity in Angluin's models with an adaptive environment we use for the new model the suffix "OBL" (e.g. RLC-OBL(C)). We will always denote the domain of a concept class C by X, and we write $X^{\leq \infty}$ for the set of all finite and infinite sequences of elements of X. For any $C \in C$ and $S = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots \rangle \in X^{\leq \infty}$ we write S^C for the associated sequence $\langle \langle x_1, C(x_1) \rangle, \langle x_2, C(x_2) \rangle, \ldots \rangle$ of labeled examples for C (each concept C is identified with its characteristic function $\chi_C : X \to \{0,1\}$).

A deterministic learning algorithm A for a concept class \mathcal{C} processes an arbitrary labeled sequence S^{C_T} (for some target concept $C_T \in \mathcal{C}$ and some $S \in X^{\leq \infty}$) as indicated above. In particular A computes a new hypothesis $H' \in \mathcal{C}$ (as a function of $\langle \langle x_1, C_T(x_1) \rangle, \ldots, \langle x_{t-1}, C_T(x_{t-1}) \rangle \rangle$) at each step t where A makes a prediction error (i.e. $H(x_t) \neq C_T(x_t)$ for the current hypothesis $H \in \mathcal{C}$ of A). We write Errors (A, C_T, S) for the total number of prediction errors of A for the labeled sequence S^{C_T} .

A randomized learning algorithm B for a concept class C is a probability distribution $Q_B(A)$ over deterministic learning algorithms A for C. We set $\operatorname{Errors}(B, C_T, S) := E_{A \in Q_B}(\operatorname{Errors}(A, C_T, S))$,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{RLC-OBL}(B) &:= \max\{\operatorname{Errors}(B,C_T,S) \mid C_T \in \mathcal{C}, S \in X^{\leq \infty}\}, \\ \operatorname{RLC-OBL}(\mathcal{C}) &:= \min\{\operatorname{RLC-OBL}(B) \mid B \text{ is a randomized learning algorithm for} \\ \mathcal{C} \text{ which only uses hypotheses from } \mathcal{C}\}. \end{aligned}$$

A learning algorithm for this model RLC-OBL has to perform well even if the environment does not behave like a time-invariant stochastic process. Examples of learning situations where it is not adequate to view the environment as a time-invariant stochastic process are provided by some customary training methods for artificial neural nets [RM] and by systems for speech recognition and optical character recognition.

So far the investigation of on-line learning with a non-stochastic environment has focused on learning from counterexamples. However various natural and artificial learning systems draw information both from counterexamples and from examples which support their current hypotheses. The considered model for on-line learning with an oblivious environment provides a theoretical framework for the investigation of this more powerful type of learning algorithms.

2. Error-bounds for Randomized On-line Learning Algorithms with an Oblivious Environment.

Theorem 2.1. For any finite concept class C

$$RLC$$
-OBL(C) $\leq \ln |C| + O(1)$.

Sketch of the proof. Let GUESSING_C be the following randomized learning algorithm for C: after any prediction error pick as next hypothesis uniformly random any concept $C \in C$ which is consistent with all preceding examples (i.e. all previously seen supporting examples and counterexamples).

The power of this simple learning algorithm is demonstrated by the following observation: Consider a learning process with GUESSING_C for some arbitrary $C_T \in \mathcal{C}$, $S = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots \rangle \in X^{\leq \infty}$. Assume that GUESSING_C makes a prediction error for the *t*-th element x_t of S. Define

$$C_t := \{C \in C \mid C(x_i) = C_T(x_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, t\}.$$

Consider any linear order \prec_t on C_t which is consistent with the order in which these concepts will be eliminated by the subsequent examples

$$\langle x_{t+1}, C_T(x_{t+1}) \rangle$$
, $\langle x_{t+2}, C_T(x_{t+2}) \rangle$, ...

from $S^{C}T$. With probability $\frac{1}{2}$ the hypothesis $H \in \mathcal{C}_{t}$ which is chosen at step t by GUESSING_C occurs in the second half of \prec_{t} . If this happens, then at least half of the other concepts $C \in \mathcal{C}_{t}$ will have been eliminated by some example in S before the first step t' > t where the algorithm makes the next prediction error (thus $t' := \min\{\tilde{t} > t \mid H(x_{\tilde{t}}) \neq C_{T}(x_{\tilde{t}})\}$).

For a precise proof of Theorem 2.1 one uses the preceding argument in order to show by induction on n that for all $n \ge 1$ and all concept classes C of size n

$$RLC-OBL(GUESSING_c) \leq T_n$$
,

where T_n is defined by

$$T_1 = 0$$
 and $T_n = \frac{n-1}{n} + \frac{T_1 + \ldots + T_{n-1}}{n}$ for $n > 1$.

It is easy to show that $T_n = \sum_{i=2}^n \frac{1}{i} = \ln n + O(1)$ (see [K]).

It turns out that T_n is in fact an <u>optimal</u> upper bound for RLC-OBL(GUESSING_C) for concept classes C of size n: For $C_n := SINGLETON_n := \{\{i\} \mid i \in \{1, ..., n\}\}$ one can show by induction on n that RLC-OBL(GUESSING_{C_n}) = T_n .

Corollary 2.2. There is a randomized on-line learning algorithm for arbitrary feedforward nets (= circuits with "sharp" Boolean threshold gates) that is expected to make at most polynomially in the size of the net many prediction errors for an arbitrary oblivious environment:

Let G be an arbitrary directed acyclic graph with exactly one node of outdegree 0 and n nodes of indegree 0 (labeled by $1, \ldots, n$). Define the associated concept class as follows:

 $\mathcal{C}_G := \{C \subseteq \{0,1\}^n \mid \text{there is an assignment of weights from } \mathbf{R} \text{ to edges in } G \text{ and an assignment of thresholds from } \mathbf{R} \text{ to nodes of indegree} > 0$ in G such that the resulting feedforward neural net (with "sharp" Boolean threshold gates) computes C.

Then RLC-OBL(C_G) = $O((\text{number of edges in } G)^2)$.

Idea of the proof. Exploit the fact that $\log |C_G| = O((\text{number of edges in } G)^2)$.

Note that it is essential for a learning algorithm for a feedforward neural net G that it only uses hypotheses H that can be represented by some setting of weights and thresholds in G (i.e. $H \in C_G$).

Corollary 2.3. Let $C_{k,n} = \{C \subseteq \{0,1\}^n \mid C \text{ is definable by a monomial with at most } k \text{ literals over the Boolean variables } x_1, \ldots, x_n\}.$

Then RLC-OBL(
$$C_{k,n}$$
) = $O(k \cdot \log n)$.

Corollary 2.4. For an arbitrary polynomial p(n) set $C_{p,n} := \{C \subseteq \{0,1\}^n \mid C \text{ is definable by a DNF-formula of length } \leq p(n) \text{ over the Boolean variables } x_1, \ldots, x_n\}.$

Then
$$RLC\text{-}OBL(\mathcal{C}_{p,n}) = O(p(n) \cdot \log n)$$
.

The following lower bound result was first observed by Nick Littlestone [L2]. It improves an earlier result due to Kurt Mehlhorn and the author, who had shown that $RLC(\mathcal{C}) \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot LC\text{-}ARB(\mathcal{C})$.

Theorem 2.5. (Littlestone [L2]): For any finite concept class C

$$RLC\text{-}OBL(\mathcal{C}) \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot LC\text{-}ARB(\mathcal{C}).$$

Proof. Consider any randomized learning algorithm B for $C \subseteq 2^X$ and a decision tree T for C in which every leaf has depth \geq LC-ARB(C) (such T exists by [L1], see also [MT]). Construct in T a path S from the root to a leaf by recursion. If the so far constructed path S' ends at an internal node ν with label $x \in X$ let p_{ν} be the probability that B predicts that $C_T(x) = 1$ (after B has processed the sequence of labeled examples which is encoded by S'). Extend S' by one of the two edges that leave node ν according to the following rule: choose the edge with label "0" iff $p_{\nu} \geq \frac{1}{2}$.

The constructed path S has length $\ell \ge \text{LC-ARB}(\mathcal{C})$ and ends at a leaf with some $C_T \in \mathcal{C}$ as label. By construction one has $\text{Errors}(B, C_T, S) \ge \ell/2$.

Remark 2.6. The preceding lower bound is optimal insofar as there are concept classes \mathcal{C} for which RLC-OBL(\mathcal{C}) = $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{LC-ARB}(\mathcal{C})$ (for example take $\mathcal{C} = 2^X$).

In the following theorem we compare for arbitrary concept classes C the learning complexities LC-ARB(C), RLC-OBL(C), LC(C). We write $A \prec B$ if $\forall C(A(C) = O(B(C)))$ and for some family $(C_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of concept classes $B(C_n)$ grows faster than any polynomial in $A(C_n)$.

Theorem 2.7. LC-ARB \prec RLC-OBL \prec LC.

Sketch of the proof. In order to separate RLC-OBL from LC-ARB we show that RLC-OBL(SINGLETON_n) = $\Omega(\log n)$ (it is obvious that LC-ARB(SINGLETON_n) = 1). We apply in this lower bound argument Von Neumann's minimax theorem ([V], see also [LR], [Y]) to a matrix with rows indexed by arbitrary elements $\langle C_T, S \rangle$ from SINGLETON_n × $\{1, \ldots, n\}^{\leq n^2}$ and columns indexed by arbitrary deterministic learning algorithms A for SINGLETON_n (restricted to example sequences S of length $\leq n^2$). The matrix entry for row $\langle C_T, S \rangle$ and column A is Errors (A, C_T, S) . The minimax theorem implies that in order to prove that RLC-OBL(SINGLETON_n) = $\Omega(\log n)$ it is sufficient to show that there exists some distribution \mathcal{P}_n over SINGLETON_n × $\{1, \ldots, n\}^{\leq n^2}$ such that for every deterministic learning algorithm A for SINGLETON_n one has

$$E_{\mathcal{P}_n((C_T,S))}(\operatorname{Errors}(A,C_T,S)) = \Omega(\log n).$$

We will show that the following distribution \mathcal{P}_n has the desired property. \mathcal{P}_n is the uniform distribution over

 $D_n := \{ \langle \{\pi(n)\}, S_\pi \rangle \mid \pi \text{ is a permutation of } \{1, \ldots, n\} \text{ and } S_\pi \text{ is an associated sequence}$ (with repetitions) that begins with n copies of $\pi(1)$, and in which n copies of the subsequence $\langle \pi(1), \ldots, \pi(i) \rangle$ are followed by n copies of the subsequence $\langle \pi(1), \ldots, \pi(i+1) \rangle$, $i = 1, \ldots, n-1 \}$.

We set $\mathcal{P}_n(\langle C_T, S \rangle) = 0$ for $\langle C_T, S \rangle \notin D_n$.

Because of the repetitions in the sequence S_{π} one can associate with any deterministic learning algorithm A for SINGLETON_n another deterministic learning algorithm A' for SINGLETON_n with Errors $(A, C_T, S) \geq \text{Errors}(A', C_T, S)$ for all $\langle C_T, S \rangle \in D_n$ such that A' is consistent (i.e. each hypothesis of A' is consistent with all previously seen examples). Hence it is sufficient to show for an arbitrary consistent deterministic learning algorithm A that

$$T_n^A = \Omega(\log n),$$

where

$$T_n^A := E_{\mathcal{P}_n(\langle C_T, S \rangle)}(\operatorname{Errors}(A, C_T, S)).$$

This lower bound follows from the observation that

$$T_n^A = \frac{n-1}{n} + \frac{T_1^A + \ldots + T_{n-1}^A}{n}.$$

The other claims of Theorem 2.7 are consequences of Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.5 (consider SINGLETON_n in order to separate RLC-OBL from LC). \Box

Remark 2.8.

- (a) The preceding argument together with the proof of Theorem 2.1 shows that GUESSING is an optimal learning algorithm for SINGLETON_n in the model RLC-OBL.
- (b) It is not the case that for all concept classes \mathcal{C} one has RLC-OBL(GUESSING_{\mathcal{C}}) = $\Theta(\text{RLC-OBL}(\mathcal{C}))$. For example for $\mathcal{C}_n := \text{SINGLETON}_n \cup \{\emptyset\}$ one has RLC-OBL(\mathcal{C}_n) $\leq \text{LC}(\mathcal{C}_n) = 1$, but RLC-OBL(GUESSING_{\mathcal{C}_n}) = $\Theta(\log n)$.
- (c) Apparently there exists a trade-off for on-line learning with an oblivious environment between the number of random bits that are used by a learning algorithm and the "simplicity" of its hypotheses. The algorithms GUESSING and the halving algorithm lie at opposite ends of this spectrum.

3. The Power of Randomization for On-line Learning with an Adaptive Environment.

It is not clear from the results of the previous section how much of the performance of the considered learning algorithms should be credited to the use of <u>randomized</u> algorithms, and how much is due to the assumption that the environment is <u>oblivious</u>. We show in this section that randomized learning algorithms can achieve only a substantially smaller improvement in the error bound (compared with the best deterministic learning algorithm) in the case of Angluin's model where the environment is adaptive.

For any deterministic learning algorithm A for a concept class \mathcal{C} and any target concept $C_T \in \mathcal{C}$ let $\operatorname{Errors}(A, C_T)$ be the maximal length of a learning process of algorithm A if C_T is the target concept (assuming that the counterexamples to hypotheses of A are chosen by an adaptive adversary as in the model of [A], [MT], see the definition of $\operatorname{LC}(A)$ in section 1). Thus $\operatorname{Errors}(A, C_T) = \max\{\operatorname{Errors}(A, C_T, S) \mid S \in X^{\leq \infty}\}$. Let B be a randomized learning algorithm for C, i.e. B is a distribution $Q_B(A)$ over deterministic learning algorithm A for C. Define for any $C_T \in C$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Errors}(B,C_T) &:= E_{A \in Q_B}(\operatorname{Errors}(A,C_T)), \\ \operatorname{RLC}(B) &:= \max\{\operatorname{Errors}(B,C_T) \mid C_T \in \mathcal{C}\}, \text{ and} \\ \operatorname{RLC}(\mathcal{C}) &:= \min\{\operatorname{RLC}(B) \mid B \text{ is a randomized learning algorithm} \\ &\qquad \qquad \qquad \text{for } \mathcal{C} \text{ that only uses hypotheses from } \mathcal{C}\}. \end{aligned}$$

We show in Theorem 3.1 that RLC(C) < LC(C) for certain concept classes C. Theorem 3.2 provides a lower bound for the power of randomization in the here considered model.

Theorem 3.1.
$$RLC(\mathcal{C}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot LC(\mathcal{C})$$
 for $\mathcal{C} = SINGLETON_n$ and $\mathcal{C} = 2^{\{1,\dots,n\}}$.

Theorem 3.2. For any finite concept class C with |C| > 1,

$$RLC(C) \ge \frac{LC(C)}{2^r \log |C|^{\gamma}}$$
.

Idea of the proof. We first observe that it is sufficient to consider in the definition of RLC(C) only randomized learning algorithms B with the property that $Q_B(A) > 0$ only if A is a consistent

deterministic learning algorithm for C (A is called consistent if it always outputs hypotheses that are consistent with the preceding counterexamples). There are only finitely many such algorithms A, and hence we can apply Von Neumann's minimax theorem [V] (again we only need its "easy" inequality). However we apply it here for a different matrix than in the proof of Theorem 2.7. Here the columns are labeled by consistent deterministic learning algorithms for C and the rows are labeled by the concepts $C \in C$. The matrix entry for column A and row C is Errors(A, C). The minimax theorem implies that for any distribution P over C there is a deterministic learning algorithm A_P for C such that $E_{P(C)}(Errors(A_P, C)) \leq RLC(C)$. We exploit this fact for distributions P_i , $i \in \{1, \ldots, \lceil \log |C|^{\gamma}\}$ over C which are defined as follows. Each P_i is uniform on some subclass $C_i \subseteq C$ and identically zero on $C - C_i$. Set $C_1 := C$. Let C_{i+1} be the class of all $C \in C_i$ such that $Errors(A_{P_i}, C) \geq 2 \cdot RLC(C)$. The definitions of P_i and A_{P_i} imply that $|C_{i+1}| \leq \frac{|C_i|}{2}$. The desired deterministic learning algorithm A with $LC(A) \leq \lceil \log |C|^{\gamma} \cdot 2 \cdot RLC(C)$ executes in alternation one step in each of the algorithms A_{P_i} : $i = 1, \ldots, \lceil \log |C|^{\gamma}$. A succeeds for any target concept $C_T \in C$ after $\leq \lceil \log |C|^{\gamma} \cdot 2 \cdot RLC(C)$ steps since one of the algorithms A_{P_i} identifies C_T after $\leq 2 \cdot RLC(C)$ steps.

4. Comparisons with other Prediction Models and Algorithms.

Angluin's model for on-line learning [A] (this is the model LC which is defined at the beginning of section 1) differs in three essential aspects from the prediction model of [HKLW], [HLW1] with a stochastic environment, which is closely related to Valiant's model for PAC-learning [V] (we refer to the prediction model of [KHLW], [HLW1] in the following as "PAC prediction model"):

- (a) the environment is represented in Angluin's model by a worst case adaptive adversary, whereas it is represented in the PAC prediction model by a worst case probability distribution over the domain (in both models one considers the worst case choice of a target concept $C_T \in \mathcal{C}$)
- (b) in Angluin's model one measures the performance of a learning algorithm in terms of its total number of errors, whereas in the PAC prediction model one is interested in the expected number of errors for the first m examples
- (c) in Angluin's model the current hypothesis of the learning algorithm is always required to be from the same concept class C as the target concept, whereas the hypothesis in the PAC prediction model need not be from C.

The following result shows that the new model RLC-OBL for on-line learning with an oblivious environment may be viewed as an interpolation between Angluin's model and the PAC prediction model: it is equivalent to a learning model which agrees in point (a) with the PAC prediction model and in points (b) and (c) with Angluin's model. In order to make this equivalence precise we introduce the following notation.

Consider an arbitrary concept class C over a domain X (i.e. $C \subseteq 2^X$) and an arbitrary distribution D over X. For $S \in X^{\infty}$ we write $S \in D^{\infty}$ to indicate that S results from independent random drawings from X according to D. For any deterministic learning algorithm A for C and any $C_T \in C$ we define:

$$\operatorname{Errors}(A,C_T,D):=E_{S\in D^\infty}(\operatorname{Errors}(A,D_T,S)),$$

and for any randomized learning algorithm B

$$Errors(B, C_T, D) := E_{A \in Q_B}(Errors(A, C_T, D)).$$

Finally we define

$$RLC-PAC(B) := max\{Errors(B, C_T, D) \mid C_T \in C \text{ and } D \text{ is a distribution over } X\}$$

and

$$RLC-PAC(C) := min\{RLC-PAC(B) \mid B \text{ is a randomized learning algorithm for } C \text{ which uses only hypotheses from } C\}.$$

We have added the suffix "PAC" in "RLC-PAC" to indicate that with regard to the assumption about the environment (point (a) in the preceding discussion) this model agrees with the PAC prediction model. Note however that with regard to points (b) and (c) RLC-PAC agrees with Angluin's model (and with RLC-OBL).

The following theorem shows that in the here considered context the assumption of an <u>arbitrary</u> worst case <u>oblivious</u> environment is equivalent to that of a stochastic environment with a worst case distribution.

Theorem 4.1. For very concept class C:

$$RLC-OBL(C) = RLC-PAC(C)$$
.

Idea of the proof. " \geq " is trivial. In order to prove " \leq " one associates with any sequence $S = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots \rangle$ of elements (without repetitions) a suitable distribution D_S over X such that for arbitrary random drawings \widetilde{S} according to D_S the first occurrence of elements of X in \widetilde{S} is likely to be in the same order as in S (i.e. $D_S(x_1) \gg D_S(x_2) \gg \ldots$). Let B be any randomized learning algorithm with RLC-PAC(B) = RLC-PAC(C). One defines for any $\delta > 0$ a learning algorithm B_δ with RLC-OBL(B_δ) $\leq (1 + \delta) \cdot \text{RLC-PAC}(B)$ which generates (internally) for the prediction for the t-th element x_t of any given sequence $S = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots \rangle \in X^{\leq \infty}$ the associated distribution $D_{\langle x_1, \ldots, x_t \rangle}$. B_δ predicts " $x_t \in C_T$ " with probability p_t , where p_t is defined as the probability that B predicts " $x_t \in C_T$ " for the first occurrence of x_t in arbitrary sequences \widetilde{S} that result from random drawings according to $D_{\langle x_1, \ldots, x_t \rangle}$ (note that B_δ might give different responses for the first occurrence of x_t in \widetilde{S} in dependence on the number of repetitions of preceding elements in \widetilde{S}). \square

In the following we will compare the prediction performance of the very simple randomized algorithm GUESSING (which was introduced in the proof of Theorem 2.1) with the performance of other prediction algorithms (we view in this context the notions "learning algorithms" and "prediction algorithms" as being equivalent). Since RLC-OBL(GUESSING_C) = $O(\log |C|)$, GUESSING_C will make for all C with $\log |C| \ll LC(C)$ substantially fewer errors in a learning situation with an oblivious environment than the best known prediction algorithm with hypotheses from C in Angluin's model.

The expected number of errors of GUESSINGc is bounded above by the same parameter $O(\log |C|)$ as the worst case number of error of the well-known halving algorithm (see [A], [L1], [MT]). The latter algorithm performs well even against an adaptive environment and it requires no random bits, but it uses hypotheses which do not belong to C (which are in general difficult to compute). Haussler, Littlestone and Warmuth [HLW2] introduced the "1-inclusion graph prediction algorithm" which also uses hypotheses that do not belong to C, and which is expected to make at most $O(VC-\dim(C) \cdot \log m)$ prediction errors for m examples (but it requires that the examples result from independent random drawings). This bound is smaller than $\log |C|$ for certain C and certain values of m. A similar bound has been achieved for a probabilistic environment by Schapire [S] for any PAC-learnable C with a computationally feasible prediction algorithm (this algorithm also uses hypotheses which do not belong to C). Other prediction algorithms which use hypotheses that do not belong to C result from the work by Littlestone and Warmuth [LW] on the weighted majority algorithm (typically these algorithms use "nicer" hypotheses outside of C than the halving algorithm, but they may make more errors than the halving algorithm).

In the full version of [LW] one can also find a discussion of a randomized version of the weighted majority algorithm which uses only hypotheses from \mathcal{C} and which works well even in the case of an adaptive environment, but which requires to change the hypothesis after <u>each</u> example (not only after prediction errors).

So far we have examined in this paper only the expected <u>total</u> number of errors for randomized prediction algorithms in our new model with an arbitrary oblivious environment. The preceding discussion showed that with regard to this measure GUESSING_C is not surpassed by other known prediction algorithms that use only hypotheses from C. It turns out that with regard to another measure, the expected number of errors for the first m examples for any oblivious sequence S of examples, one can design for certain concept classes C a variation of GUESSING_C which performs better than GUESSING_C. However this is only possible for concept classes C with LC-ARB(C) \ll log |C|, since even if the environment is oblivious one can construct for <u>any</u> randomized learning algorithm B a target concept $C_T \in C$ and an oblivious sequence S of examples such that B is likely to make for any $m \leq LC$ -ARB(C) at least m/2 prediction errors for the first m examples in S (use the construction in the proof of Theorem 2.5).

A typical concept class C with LC-ARB(C) $\ll \log |C|$ is SINGLETON_n. The following result shows that for this concept class C one can in fact design another randomized prediction algorithm with hypotheses from C which is expected to make fewer prediction errors than GUESSING_C for the first m examples (for any $m < n \log n$ and any oblivious sequence S of examples).

Theorem 4.2. There is a randomized prediction algorithm for SINGLETON_n which only uses hypotheses from SINGLETON_n and which is expected to make at most $O(\min(\frac{m}{n}, \log n))$ prediction errors for the first m examples of any given (oblivious) sequence $S \in \{1, \ldots, n\}^{\leq \infty}$.

Idea of the proof. The algorithm GUESSING (see the proof of Theorem 2.1) does not achieve this error bound since for many sequences S of m = n examples it is expected to make $\log n$ errors. Therefore we combine GUESSING with another randomized prediction algorithm BLIND-

GUESSING, which chooses after each error uniformly random any $C \in SINGLETON_n$ as next hypotheses (C need not be consistent with all previous examples). The claimed relative error bound is achieved by the randomized prediction algorithm B that calls after the k-th prediction error the algorithm GUESSINGSINGLETONn if k is even, and BLIND-GUESSINGSINGLETONn if k is odd.

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