# Learning Binary Relations <br> Presented by Alan Duan 

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We call this a binary relation.

## Formal Definition of Binary Relations

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1. Binary relations can be defined between different set (e.g.: Netflix user and movie), or the set with itself (e.g.: the relation 'divides' between $\mathbb{N}_{+}$and $\mathbb{N}_{+}$).
2. In binary relations, the order matters.

## Representing a Binary Relations

- $n \times m$ binary matrix

|  | Topics in Learning Theory | Machine Learning | Operating System |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alan | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Bob | 1 | 1 | 0 |
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- 2-column table

| Student | Course |
| :---: | :---: |
| Alan | Topics in Learning Theory |
| Bob | Topics in Learning Theory |
| Bob | Machine Learning |
| Cathy | Operating System |

## Representing a Binary Relations (cont'd)

- Bipartite graph



## Learning Binary Relations

## Setting

We are learning binary relations between two set $A$ and $B$ represented by predicate $P$. Denote $|A|=n$ and $|B|=m$.

In each trial $t$ :

- learner is given an unlabeled pair of object $x_{t}=\left(a_{t}, b_{t}\right)$, where $a_{t} \in A, b_{t} \in B$
- learner predicts $\hat{y}_{t}=0$ or 1
- reveals the answer $y_{t}$
- if answer and prediction are different, record it as a mistake

Goal: Minimize the number of incorrect predictions

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Note :

1. In this presentation, we will use these notation from concept learning interchangably from time to time.
2. We will see what is special about learning binary relations in a bit!

## Learning Binary Relations

## A few more terms

Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a finite learning domain. Let $C$ be a concept class over $\mathcal{X}$.
A learner is consistent if, on every trial, there exists some concept $c \in C$ such that:
$c\left(x_{k}\right)= \begin{cases}\hat{y}_{t}, & \text { if } k=t \\ y_{k}, & \text { if } k=1, \ldots, t-1\end{cases}$
A query sequence $\pi=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{|\mathcal{X}|}\right\rangle$ is a permutation of $\mathcal{X}$, where $x_{t} \in \mathcal{X}$ is the instance presented to the learner at the $t^{\text {th }}$ trial.

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In this presentation, we will consider the following settings:

- Director Agnostic: we want some mistake bounds regardless of the director.
- Self-directed: the learner itself chooses $\pi$.
- Teacher-directed: A teacher who knows the target relation and wants to minimize the learner's mistakes by choosing $\pi$; Teacher can choose $x_{t}$ with the knowledge of 1) target relation, 2) $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t-1}$, 3) $\hat{y}_{1}, \ldots, \hat{y}_{t-1}$.


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- Adversary-directed: An adversary who tries to maximize the learner's mistakes, knows the learner's algorithm and has unlimited computing power, chooses $\pi$.


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For teacher-directed setting, we want to consider worst case mistake bound over all consistent learners. (why?)

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What can be a natural structure?

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A little math tells us the answer is $m+1$.
We use $k$ to represent the distinct row types in the matrix. We call this type of relation $k$-binary-relations.

## General bounds applied to all directors

Theorem 1 (Lower Bound) For any $0<\beta \leq 1$, any prediction algorithm makes at least $(1-\beta) k m+n\lfloor\log (\beta k)\rfloor-(1-\beta) k\lfloor\log (\beta k)\rfloor$ mistakes regardless of the query sequence.

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By forcing mistakes in the first $p$ columns, at most $2^{p}$ row types can be created.
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Set $2^{p}=\beta k, q=(1-\beta) k$, we can get $p=\lfloor\log (\beta k)\rfloor, q=(1-\beta) k$.
The mistake bound: $(1-\beta) k \cdot m+\lfloor\log (\beta k)\rfloor \cdot n-(1-\beta) k\lfloor\log (\beta k)\rfloor$.

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$\log |C| \leq k m+(n-k) \log k$.
Note : Halving algorithm (in general) can be computationally expensive!

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For the first row:

- Guess all entries. Record it as the first row type.

For the rest rows:

- Predict row $i$, column $j$ 's value according to a majority vote of the recorded row templates that are consistent with row $i$
- If no such consistent template exists, guess all the rest entries in row $i$, and record it as a new type. $\hat{k}=\hat{k}+1$.

How many mistakes have we made?

- For each new row template, we make at most $m$ on each. Total is km .
- For each of the rest rows, we make at most $\lfloor\log \hat{k}\rfloor \leq\lfloor\log k\rfloor$ mistakes. The total is $(n-k)\lfloor\log k\rfloor$.
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1. Similar flavour as the halving algorithm -- but computationally tractable.

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Note :

1. Similar flavour as the halving algorithm -- but computationally tractable.
2. Do not need to know $k$ a priori.
3. This bound is within a constant factor of the general lower bound (Theorem 1).

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After this, for the rest of ( $n-k$ ) rows, its row type can be uniquely identified, and no more mistakes will be made.

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In total, the learner makes at most $k m+(n-k)(k-1)$ mistakes.

## Teacher-directed

Theorem 5 (Lower Bound) The number of mistakes made with a helpful teacher as the director is at least $\min \{n m, k m+(n-k)(k-1)\}$.

Proof:

For the first $k$ rows, they are of different row type. $k m$ mistakes are made.

| $\begin{aligned} & 5 \text { row } \\ & \text { types } \end{aligned}$ | 0000000000000 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{array}{lllllllll}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$ |
|  | $\begin{array}{lllllllll}0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$ |
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|  | 000000000 |
|  |  |
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For the rest of the rows:
When $(m+1) \geq k$ : we need to know all first $k-1$ columns to uniquely identify the row type.
When $(m+1)<k$ : we need to know all $m$ columns to uniquely identify the row type.

5 row | types |
| ---: | :--- |\(\left\{\begin{array}{lllllllll}0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>

1 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
0 \& 1 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
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0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 1 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
\& \& \& \& \vdots \& \& \& \& <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0\end{array}\right]\)

For the first $k$ rows, they are of different row type. $k m$ mistakes are made.
For the rest of the rows:
When $(m+1) \geq k$ : we need to know all first $k-1$ columns to uniquely identify the row type.
When $(m+1)<k$ : we need to know all $m$ columns to uniquely identify the row type.
Adding up, the mistake bound is $\min \{k m+(n-k) m, k m+(n-k)(k-1)\}$.

## Teacher-directed

Question: Recall that the mistake bound for learner director is $k m+(n-k)\lfloor\log k\rfloor$, while teacher-directed bound is $k m+(n-k)(k-1)$. Why is it even worse?

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Teacher-directed case apply to all consistent learners!
A consistent learner may do minority-vote instead of majority-vote.

## Adversary-directed

Theorem 6 (Lower Bound) Any prediction algorithm makes at least $\min \{n m, k m+(n-k)\lfloor\log k\rfloor\}$ mistakes against an adversary-selected query sequence.

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Second, if $m>\lfloor\log k\rfloor$, the adversary presents remaining $m-\lfloor\log k\rfloor$ columns for each of the $k$ row type, and forces mistakes on all of them.

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Adding up the number of mistakes, we get the desired bound.

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How about $k=2$ ?

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Theorem 7 (Upper Bound when $k=2$ ) There exists a polynomial prediction algorithm that makes at most $2 m+n-2$ mistakes against adversary-selected query sequence when $k=2$.

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$2 m+n-2$ mistakes against adversary-selected query sequence when $k=2$.
Proof: Let's do it on board!

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To have a polynomial-time $k$-colorability oracle, we need to prove $P=N P$.
This is left as an exercise.

## Conclusion and Takeaways

1. In previous lectures, we usually focus on learner's algorithm, and assume the environment (director) as the worst case (adversary). It turns out to be not true in many real life cases. Maybe the director is trying to help learner to learn. And in those cases, we can indeed improve learner's performance.

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2. It may be interesting to consider other "structures" in the learning setting. It may also be interesting to see how the results extend to k-ary relations.
3. Some learning on proof technique: to prove an upper bound, we can prove by showing an algorithm that satisfies the bound; to prove a lower bound, we can prove by showing there exists an adversary setting that all algorithms make at least this amount of mistake.

## Reference

1. Learning Binary Relations and Total Orders, Sally A. Goldman, Ronald L. Rivest, and Robert E. Schapire, SIAM Journal on Computing 1993 22:5, 1006-1034.
