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On-line learning of non-monotonic rules by simple perceptron

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Abstract. We study the generalization ability of a simple perceptron which learns unlearnable rules. The rules are presented by a teacher perceptron with a non-monotonic transfer function. The student is trained in the on-line mode. The asymptotic behaviour of the generalization error is estimated under various conditions. Several learning strategies are proposed and improved to obtain the theoretical lower bound of the generalization error.

1. Introduction

One important feature of feed-forward neural networks is their ability to learn a rule from examples [1–3]. The student network can adopt its synaptic weights following a set of examples given from the teacher network so that it can make predictions on the output for an input which has not been shown before. The learning of unlearnable rules by a perceptron is a particularly interesting issue because the student usually does not know the structure of the teacher in the real world. For machine learning, it is important to improve the learning scheme and minimize the prediction error even if it is impossible to exactly reproduce the input–output relation of the teacher. Only a few papers have appeared concerning the learning of unlearnable rules where the teacher and the student have different structures [4–6].

In this paper we study the generalization ability of a simple perceptron using the on-line algorithm from a teacher perceptron with a non-monotonic transfer function of reversed-wedge type that has been investigated as an associative memory [7–9] and a perceptron [10, 11]. If a simple monotonic perceptron learns a rule from examples presented by a non-monotonic perceptron, the generalization error remains non-vanishing even if an infinite number of examples are presented by the teacher. We study the limiting value and asymptotic behaviour of the generalization error in such unlearnable cases.

This paper is organized as follows. In section 2 the problem is formulated and the general properties of the generalization error are investigated. In section 3 perceptron and Hebbian learning algorithms in the on-line scheme are investigated. For each learning scheme, we calculate the asymptotic behaviour of the learning curve. In section 4 we investigate the effects of output noise on learning processes. In section 5 we introduce the optimal learning rate and calculate the optimal generalization error. The optimal learning rate obtained in

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section 5 contains an unknown parameter for the student in some contradiction to the idea of learning because the learning process depends upon the unknown teacher parameter. Therefore, in section 6 we introduce a learning rate independent of the unknown parameter and optimize the rate to achieve a faster convergence of the generalization error. In section 7, we allow the student to ask queries under the Hebbian learning algorithm. It is shown that learning is accelerated considerably if the learning rate is optimized. In section 8, we optimize the learning dynamics by a weight-decay term to avoid an over-training problem in Hebbian learning observed in section 3. Finally, section 9 contains a summary and discussion.

2. Generic properties of the generalization error

Our problem is defined as follows. The teacher signal is provided by a single-layer perceptron with an N-dimensional weight vector $\boldsymbol{J}^0$ and a non-monotonic (reversed-wedge) transfer function

$$T_a(v) = \mathrm{sign}[v(a-v)(a+v)] \tag{2.1}$$

where $v \equiv \sqrt{N}(\boldsymbol{J}^0 \cdot \boldsymbol{x})/|\boldsymbol{J}^0|$, $\boldsymbol{x}$ is the input vector normalized to unity, a is the width of the reversed wedge, and sign denotes the sign function. The student is a simple perceptron with the weight vector $\boldsymbol{J}$ whose output is

$$S(u) = \mathrm{sign}(u) \tag{2.2}$$

where $u \equiv \sqrt{N}(\boldsymbol{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{x})/|\boldsymbol{J}|$. The components of $\boldsymbol{x}$ are drawn independently from a uniform distribution on the N-dimensional unit sphere. The student can learn the rule of the teacher perfectly if and only if $a = \infty$.

It is convenient to introduce the following two order parameters. One is the overlap between $\boldsymbol{J}^0$ and $\boldsymbol{J}$

$$R = \frac{\boldsymbol{J}^0 \cdot \boldsymbol{J}}{|\boldsymbol{J}^0||\boldsymbol{J}|} \tag{2.3}$$

and the other is the norm of the student weight vector

$$l = \frac{|\boldsymbol{J}|}{\sqrt{N}}. \tag{2.4}$$

In the limit $N \to \infty$ the random variables u and v obey the normal distribution

$$P_R(u, v) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1-R^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{u^2+v^2-2Ruv}{2(1-R^2)}\right]. \tag{2.5}$$

The generalization error ϵ_g, or the student probability of producing a wrong answer, can be obtained by integrating the above distribution over the region satisfying $T_a(v) \neq S(u)$ in the two-dimensional u–v space. After simple calculations we find

$$\epsilon_g \equiv E(R) = 2\int_a^\infty \mathrm{D}v H\left(\frac{-Rv}{\sqrt{1-R^2}}\right) + 2\int_0^a \mathrm{D}v H\left(\frac{Rv}{\sqrt{1-R^2}}\right) \tag{2.6}$$

where $H(x) = \int_x^\infty \mathrm{D}v$ and $\mathrm{D}v \equiv \mathrm{d}v \exp(-v^2/2)/\sqrt{2\pi}$.

In figure 1 we plot $E(R)(= \epsilon_g)$ for several values of the parameter a. From this figure, we see that for $a = \infty$ (the learnable limit), ϵ_g goes to zero when R approaches 1. In contrast, for $a = 0$, ϵ_g goes to zero when R reaches -1. If a is finite, the generalization

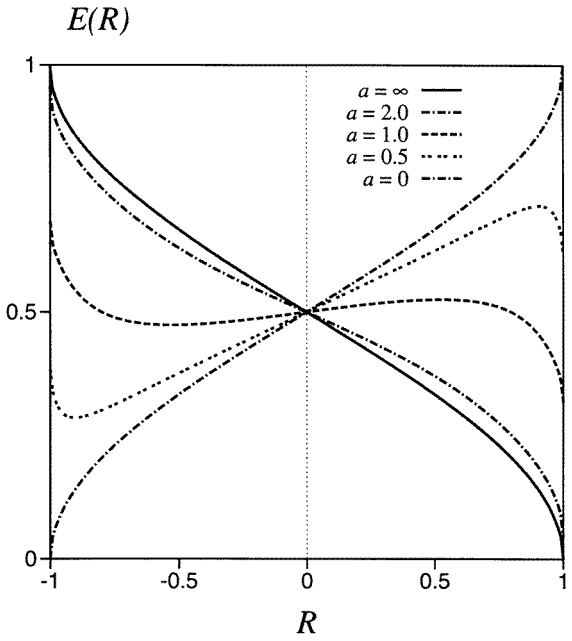

Figure 1. The generalization error as a function of the overlap R for $a = \infty$, 2.0, 1.0, 0.5, 0. For $a = \infty$, the generalization error decreases to zero as R goes to 1. For $a = 0$, the generalization error decays to zero as R goes to -1 instead of 1.

error shows highly non-trivial behaviour. The critical value R_* of the order parameter is defined as the point where $E(R)$ is locally minimum. Explicitly,

$$R_* = -\sqrt{\frac{2\log 2 - a^2}{2\log 2}} \tag{2.7}$$

which exists for $a \leqslant a_{c1} = \sqrt{2\log 2} = 1.18$. In figure 2 we plot the value of the global minimum of $E(R)$, the smallest possible generalization error irrespective of learning algorithms. In figure 3, we show the value of R which gives the global minimum. We notice that for $a < a_{c2} \equiv 0.80$, $E_{\rm local} \equiv E(R = R_*)$ is also the global minimum, and for $a > a_{c2}$, the global minimum is $E(R = 1)$. Clearly the optimal generalization error is obtained by training the student weight vector $\boldsymbol{J}$ so that R goes to 1 (or $\boldsymbol{J} = \boldsymbol{J}^0$). This critical value a_{c2} is given by the condition $E(R = 1) = E_{\rm local}$.

On the other hand, for $a < a_{c2}$, the optimal generalization cannot be achieved even if the student succeeds in finding $\boldsymbol{J}^0$ completely. In this curious case, the optimal generalization is obtained by training the student so that the student finds his weight vector which satisfies $R = R_*$ instead of $R = 1$. At $a = a_{c2}$ the generalization error has the maximum value as seen in figure 2.

3. Dynamics of noiseless learning

We now investigate the learning dynamics with specific learning rules.

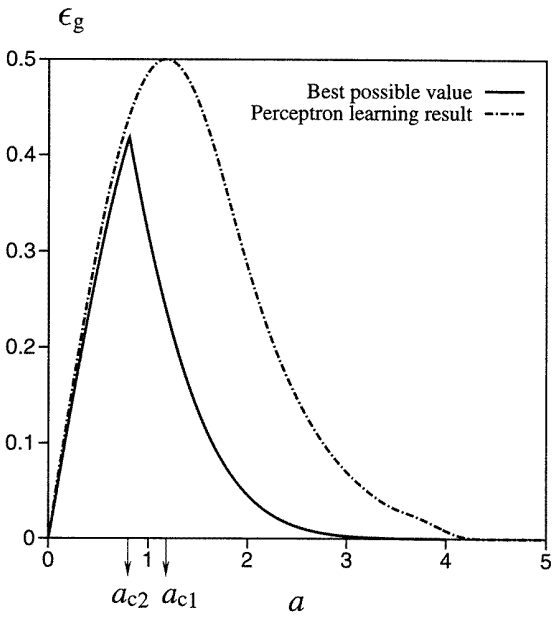

Figure 2. The global minimum value of $E(R)$ which corresponds to the optimal value of the generalization error ϵ_{opt}. We also plot the generalization error obtained by perceptron learning with a learning rate of $g = 1$. When $a = a_{c1}$, the generalization error under the perceptron algorithm becomes equal to a random guess ($\epsilon_g = 0.5$).

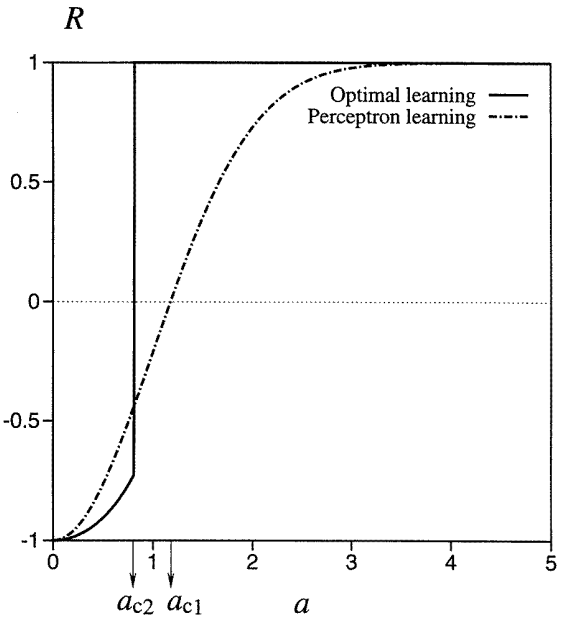

Figure 3. The optimal order parameter R which gives the global minimum, namely, the optimal generalization error ϵ_{opt}. The system shows a discontinuous phase transition at $a = a_{c2} = 0.80$ from the phase described by $R = 1$ to the phase described by $R = R_*$. We also plot $R = 1-2\Delta$ obtained by perceptron learning with a learning rate of $g = 1$. When $a = a_{c1}$, the overlap between the teacher and student vanishes.

3.1. Perceptron learning

We first investigate the perceptron learning

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \boldsymbol{J}^m - \Theta(-T_a(v)S(u))\,\mathrm{sign}(u)\boldsymbol{x} \tag{3.1}$$

where Θ is the step function and m stands for the discrete time step of dynamics or the number of presented examples. The standard procedure (see for example [12]) yields the rate of changes of l and R in the limit $N \to \infty$ as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}l}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{1}{l}\left[\frac{E(R)}{2} - F(R)l\right] \tag{3.2}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{1}{l^2}\left[-\frac{R}{2}E(R) + (F(R)R - G(R))\,l\right] \tag{3.3}$$

where $E(R) = \langle 1 \rangle_R$, $F(R) = \langle u\,\mathrm{sign}(u) \rangle_R$ and $G(R) = \langle v\,\mathrm{sign}(u) \rangle_R$. The brackets $\langle \cdots \rangle_R$ stand for averaging with respect to the distribution $P_R(u, v)$, the integration being carried out over the region where the student and the teacher give different outputs $T_a(v) \neq S(u)$. Hence the definition of $E(R)$ coincides with that of the generalization error, $E(R) = \epsilon_g$, as used in the previous section. The other quantities $F(R)$ and $G(R)$ are evaluated in a straightforward manner as

$$F(R) = -\frac{R}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1 - 2\Delta) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \tag{3.4}$$

$$G(R) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1 - 2\Delta) + \frac{R}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \tag{3.5}$$

where $\Delta = \mathrm{e}^{-a^2/2}$.

3.1.1. Numerical analysis of differential equations. We have numerically solved equations (3.2) and (3.3). The resulting flows of R and l are shown in figure 4 for $a = \infty$ under several initial conditions. This figure indicates that R reaches 1 (perfect generalization state) in the limit of $\alpha \to \infty$ and $l \to \infty$ for any initial condition. For finite α, however, the behaviour of the flow strongly depends on the initial condition. If we take a large l as the initial value, the perfect generalization state ($R = 1$) is achieved after l decreases at intermediate steps. If we choose initial R close to 1 and small l, the perfect generalization is achieved after a decrease of R is observed. Similar phenomena have been reported in the $K = 2$ parity machine [12]. Next we display the flows of R and l for unlearnable cases, for example, $a = 2.0$ in figure 5. There exists a stable and a-dependent fixed point (R_0, l_0). The generalization of the student halts at this fixed point even if the flow of R and l starts from $R = 1$ and large l.

3.1.2. Asymptotic analysis of the learning curve. When the rule is learnable ($a = \infty$), it is straightforward to check the asymptotic behaviour $\epsilon_g = k\alpha^{-1/3}$, $k = \sqrt{2}(3\sqrt{2})^{-1/3}/\pi$, from equations (3.2) and (3.3). When a is finite, the fixed point value of R is obtained from equations (3.2)–(3.5) as $R_0 = 1 - 2\Delta$. Substituting R_0 into $E(R)$, we get the minimum value of the generalization error $E_0 = \epsilon_{\min}(a)$ for perceptron learning. In figures 2 and 3, we show R_0 and E_0 as functions of a. Figure 2 indicates that the learning for $a = a_{c1} \equiv \sqrt{2\log 2}$, which is obtained from the condition $R_0 = 0$, is equivalent to a random guess, $\epsilon_{\min}(a_{c1}) = 0.5$.

Linearization of the right-hand side of equations (3.2) and (3.3) around the fixed point yields the behaviour of the generalization error near the fixed point. Explicit expressions

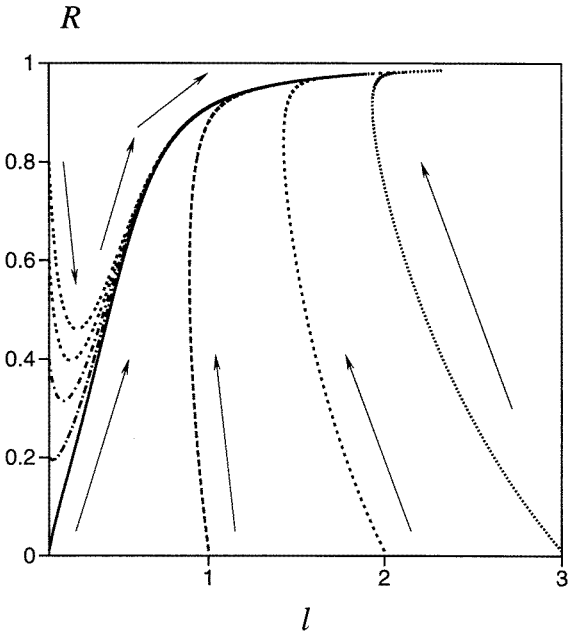

Figure 4. The flows of the order parameters R and l for the learnable case ($a = \infty$) by perceptron learning. If one starts from large l, the student begins to generalize after the length of the weight vector l decreases to some value.

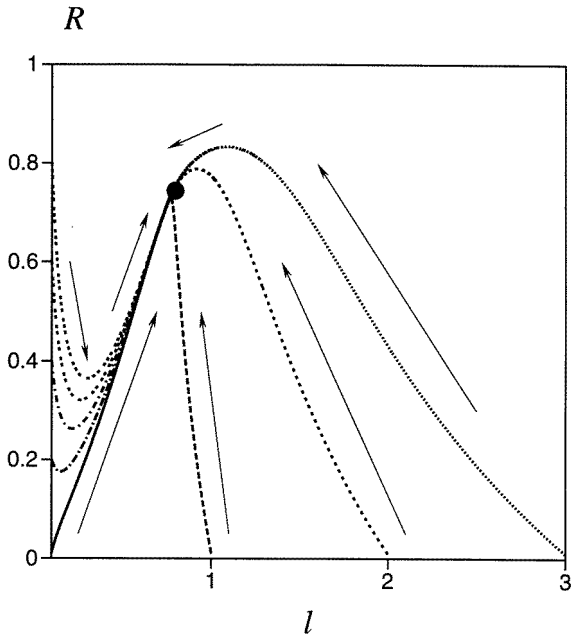

Figure 5. The flows of the order parameters R and l for the unlearnable cases $a = 2.0$ by perceptron learning. The flows are attracted to a fixed point.

simplify when a is large: it turns out that the generalization error decays toward the minimum value

$$E(R) \simeq 2H(a) \simeq \frac{1}{\pi}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\Delta^{3/4} \tag{3.6}$$

exponentially as $(\sqrt{2}/\pi)\exp(-2\Delta^{2/3}\alpha/\pi)$.

3.2. Hebbian learning

In the Hebbian rule the dynamics of the student weight vector is

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \boldsymbol{J}^m + T_a(v)\boldsymbol{x}. \tag{3.7}$$

This recursion relation of the N-dimensional vector $\boldsymbol{J}$ is reduced to the evolution equations of the order parameters as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}l}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{1}{l}\left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2R}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1-2\Delta)l\right] \tag{3.8}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{1}{l^2}\left[-\frac{R}{2} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1-2\Delta)(1-R^2)l\right]. \tag{3.9}$$

3.2.1. Numerical analysis of differential equations. In figure 6, we plot the flows in the R–l plane and the generalization error for $a = \infty$, 2.0 and $a = 0.5$. We started the dynamics with the initial condition $(R_{\mathrm{init}}, l_{\mathrm{init}}) = (0.01, 0.1)$. This figure shows that R reaches 1 for

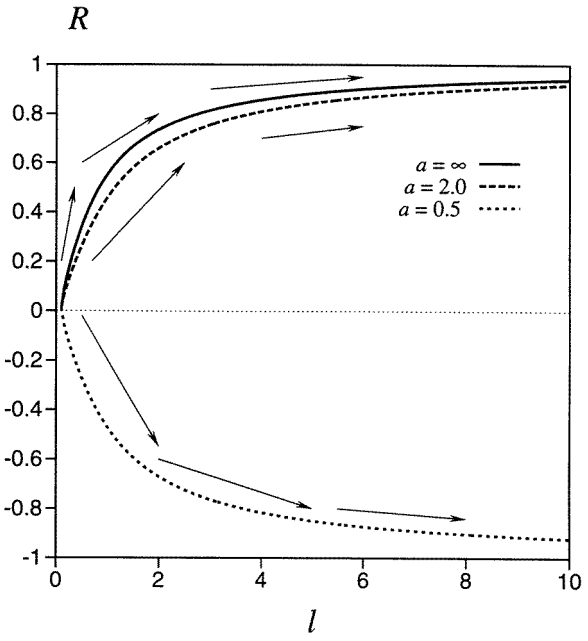

Figure 6. The flows of R and l for $a = \infty, 2.0, 0.5$ by Hebbian learning. For the cases of $a = \infty$ and 2.0, R reaches 1 and l goes to ∞. On the other hand, for $a = 0.5$, R reaches -1 as l goes to ∞.

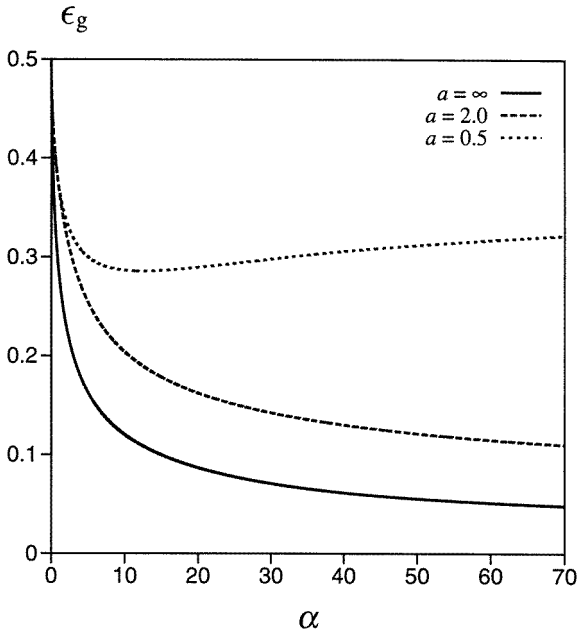

Figure 7. The generalization error ϵ_g for $a = \infty, 2.0$ and 0.5 by the Hebbian learning. For $a = \infty$ and 2.0, the generalization error converges to the optimal value $2H(a)$. However, in the case of $a = 0.5$, the generalization error begins to increase when the student learns too much (over-training).

large a and R approaches -1 for small a. In order to find this bifurcation point near $R = 0$, we approximate equation (3.9) around $R \sim 0$ as

$$\frac{dR}{d\alpha} \simeq \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi l}}(1 - 2\Delta). \tag{3.10}$$

If $a > a_{c1} = \sqrt{2\log 2} = 1.18$, the derivative $dR/d\alpha$ is positive, and consequently R increases and eventually reaches 1 in the limit $\alpha \to \infty$. If $a < a_{c1}$, R reaches -1 as $\alpha \to \infty$. Figure 7 shows how the generalization error behaves according to a. For $a = 0.5 (< a_{c1})$, ϵ_g has a minimum at some intermediate α. When the generalization error ϵ_g passes through this value, ϵ_g begins to increase towards the limiting value $\epsilon_{min}(a) = 1 - 2H(a)$. Therefore, if the student learns excessively, he cannot achieve the lowest generalization error located at the global minimum of $E(R) = \epsilon_g$ (over-training) [3, 13].

From figure 1 we see that R must pass through a local minimum of $E(R)$ at $R = R_*$ in order to go to the state $R = -1$. If the parameter a satisfies $a < a_{c2} = 0.80$, this local minimum is also the global minimum. Therefore, if $a < a_{c1}$, although the generalization error decreases until R reaches R_*, it begins to increase as soon as R passes through the minimum point $R = R_*$ and finally reaches a larger value at $R = -1$.

When the parameter a lies in the range $a_{c2} < a < a_{c1}$, the global minimum is located at $R = 1$. However, since R goes to -1 for $a < a_{c1}$ (see equation (3.10)), the generalization error increases monotonically from 0.5 (random guess) to $1 - 2H(a) (> 0.5)$ for the parameter range $a_{c2} < a < a_{c1}$. We can regard this as a special case of over-training. We conclude that over-training appears for all $a < a_{c1}$.

3.2.2. Asymptotic analysis of the learning curve. By using the same technique as in the previous section, we obtain the asymptotic form of the generalization error when $a = \infty$ in the limit $\alpha \to \infty$ as

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \tag{3.11}$$

which is a well known result [14].

For finite a satisfying $a > a_{c1}$, simple manipulations, as before, show that the stable fixed point is at $R = 1$ and the differential equations (3.8) and (3.9) yield the asymptotic form of the generalization error as

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}(1-2\Delta)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 2H(a). \tag{3.12}$$

The limiting value $2H(a)$ is the best possible value obtained in section 2. On the other hand, for $a < a_{c1}$,

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6\pi}(1-2\Delta)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 1 - 2H(a). \tag{3.13}$$

The rate of approach to the asymptotic value, $1/\sqrt{\alpha}$, in equations (3.12) and (3.13) agrees with the corresponding behaviour in the Gibbs learning of unlearnable rules [4].

4. Learning under output noise in the teacher signal

We now consider the situation where the output of the teacher is inverted randomly with a rate $\lambda(\leqslant \frac{1}{2})$ for each example.

We show that the parameter a plays essentially the same role as output noise in the teacher signal.

4.1. Perceptron learning

According to [12, 15, 16], the effect of output noise is taken into account in the differential equations (3.2) and (3.3) by replacing $E(R)$, $F(R)$ and $G(R)$ with $\tilde{E}_\lambda(R)$, $\tilde{F}_\lambda(R)$ and $\tilde{G}_\lambda(R)$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{E}_\lambda(R) &= (1-\lambda)E(R) + \lambda E^c(R) \\ \tilde{F}_\lambda(R) &= (1-\lambda)F(R) + \lambda F^c(R) \\ \tilde{G}_\lambda(R) &= (1-\lambda)G(R) + \lambda G^c(R). \end{aligned} \tag{4.1}$$

Where E^c, F^c and G^c correspond to E, F and G, the only difference being that the integration is over the region satisfying $T_a(v) = S(u)$.

We study the asymptotic behaviour of the learning curve in the limit of the small noise level $\lambda \ll 1$. For the learnable case $a = \infty$, equations (3.2) and (3.3) with (4.1) taken into account have the fixed point at $R = R_0 \equiv 1 - 2\lambda$, $l = l_0 \equiv (2\sqrt{2\pi\lambda})^{-1}$ for $\lambda \ll 1$. Linearization around this fixed point leads to the asymptotic behaviour

$$\begin{aligned} l &\sim l_0[1 + \mathcal{O}(\mathrm{e}^{-8\lambda^{3/2}\alpha})] \\ 1 - R &\sim (1 - R_0)[1 + \mathcal{O}(\mathrm{e}^{-8\lambda^{3/2}\alpha})]. \end{aligned} \tag{4.2}$$

Therefore, the generalization error ϵ_g converges to a finite value $E(R = 1-2\lambda) = 2\lambda^{1/2}/\pi$ exponentially, $\exp(-8\lambda^{3/2}\alpha)$.

According to Biehl *et al* [16], it is useful to distinguish two performance measures of on-line learning, the generalization error ϵ_g and the prediction error ϵ_p. The generalization error ϵ_g is the probability for disagreement between the student and the genuine rule of the teacher as we have discussed. On the other hand, the prediction error ϵ_p is the probability for disagreement between the student and the noisy teacher output for an arbitrary input. In the present case, the prediction error ϵ_p and generalization error ϵ_g satisfy the relation

$$\epsilon_p = \lambda + (1 - 2\lambda)\epsilon_g. \tag{4.3}$$

For the unlearnable case of large but finite a under the small noise level, the fixed point value of R is found to be $R_0(\lambda) = (1 - 2\Delta)(1 - 2\lambda)$. The expression of the fixed point $l_0(\lambda)$ is too complicated and is omitted here. Linearization near this fixed point shows that the generalization error converges to $(2/\pi)\lambda^{1/2} + 2H(a)$ exponentially as $\exp(-t_-\alpha)$ for large a and small λ, where

$$t_- = \frac{(-8\lambda^{3/2} - 2\lambda^{1/2}) - \sqrt{(-8\lambda^{3/2} + 2\lambda^{1/2})^2 - (8\Delta + 4\lambda^{-1}\Delta^2)}}{2}. \tag{4.4}$$

The prediction error is given by $\epsilon_p = \lambda + (1 - 2\lambda)\epsilon_g$.

4.2. Hebbian learning

The differential equations of the order parameters for noisy Hebbian learning are

$$\frac{dl}{d\alpha} = \frac{1}{l}\left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2R}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1 - 2\Delta)(1 - 2\lambda)l\right] \tag{4.5}$$

$$\frac{dR}{d\alpha} = \frac{1}{l^2}\left[-\frac{R}{2} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1 - 2\Delta)(1 - 2\lambda)(1 - R^2)l\right]. \tag{4.6}$$

In figure 8, we plot the generalization error for $a = 0.5$ by solving these differential equations numerically. We saw in the previous that the over-training appears in the absence of noise if $a < a_{c1} = \sqrt{2\log 2}$, which is also the case when there is small noise (e.g. $\lambda = 0.01$). For larger λ (e.g. $\lambda = 0.20$), however, no minimum in ϵ_g appears as α increases. This implies in terms of figure 1 that R becomes stuck at an intermediate R before it reaches R_*.

The asymptotic form for the noisy case can be derived simply by replacing $(1 - 2\Delta)$ in the asymptotic form of the noiseless case with $(1 - 2\Delta)(1 - 2\lambda)$. Thus $\Delta = e^{-a^2/2}$ and λ have the same effect on the asymptotic generalization ability. A similar effect is reported for the non-monotonic Hopfield model [8, 9] which works as an associative memory. If we embed patterns by the Hebb rule in the network, the capacity of the network drastically deteriorates for small a.

5. Optimization of the learning rate

So far we have investigated the learning processes with a fixed learning rate. In this section we consider optimization of the learning rate to improve the learning performance. It turns out that perceptron learning with the optimized learning rate achieves the best possible generalization error in the range $a \geqslant a_{c1}$.

We first introduce the learning rate $g(\alpha)$ in our dynamics. As an example, the learning dynamics for the perceptron algorithm is written as

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \boldsymbol{J}^m - g(\alpha)\Theta(-T_a(v)S(u))\,\mathrm{sign}(u)\boldsymbol{x}. \tag{5.1}$$

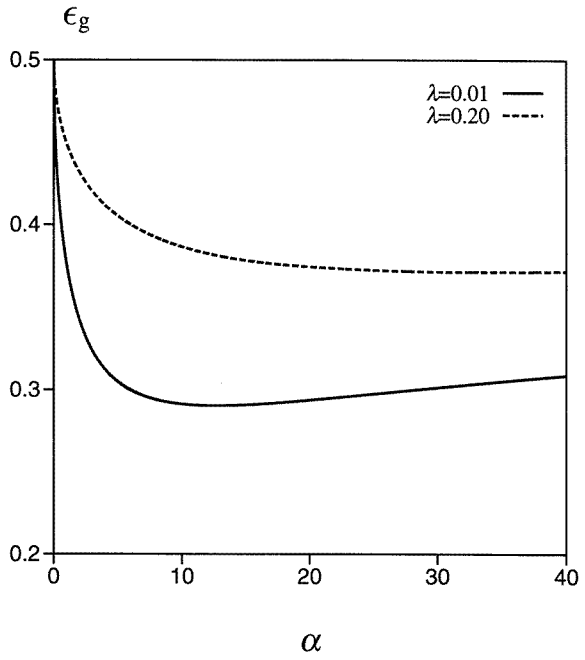

Figure 8. The generalization error for the unlearnable case $a = 0.5$ with output noise $\lambda = 0.01$, 0.20 by Hebbian learning.

This optimization procedure is different from the technique of Kinouchi and Caticha [17]. They investigated the on-line dynamics with a general weight function $f(T_a(v), u)$ as

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \boldsymbol{J}^m + f(T_a(v), u)T_a(v)\boldsymbol{x} \tag{5.2}$$

and chose $f(T_a, u)$ so that it maximizes the increase of R per learning step. In contrast, our optimization procedure adjusts the parameter $g(\alpha)$ keeping the learning algorithm unchanged.

5.1. Perceptron learning

5.1.1. Trajectory in the R–l plane. The trajectories in the R–l plane can be derived explicitly for the optimal learning rate $g_{\rm opt}(\alpha)$. The differential equations with the learning rate $g(\alpha)$ are

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}l}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{g(\alpha)^2 E(R)/2 - g(\alpha)F(R)l}{l} \tag{5.3}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{\mathrm{d}\alpha} = \frac{-RE(R)g(\alpha)^2/2 + g(\alpha)[F(R)R - G(R)]l}{l^2} \equiv L(g(\alpha)). \tag{5.4}$$

Now we choose the parameter g to maximize $L(g(\alpha))$ with the aim to accelerate the increase of R

$$g_{\rm opt}(\alpha) = \frac{[F(R)R - G(R)]l}{RE(R)}. \tag{5.5}$$

Substituting g into equations (5.3) and (5.4) and taking their ratio, we find

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{\mathrm{d}l} = -\frac{[F(R)R - G(R)]R}{[F(R)R + G(R)]l}. \tag{5.6}$$

Using equations (3.4) and (3.5) we obtain the trajectory in the R–l plane as

$$(1+R)^{-(1+A)/A}(1-R)^{(1-A)/A}R = cl \tag{5.7}$$

where $A = 1 - 2\Delta$ and c is a constant.

In figures 9 and 10, we plot the above trajectory for $a = 2.0$ and 0.5, respectively, by adjusting c to reproduce the initial conditions $(R_{\rm init}, l_{\rm init}) = (0.01, 0.10), (0.01, 1.00)$ and $(0.01, 2.00)$. These figures indicate that the student goes to the state of $R = 1$ after infinite learning steps ($\alpha \to \infty$) for any initial condition. The final value of l depends on a. If a is small (e.g. 0.5), l increases indefinitely as $\alpha \to \infty$. On the other hand, for larger a, l is seen to decrease as α goes to ∞. We investigate this a-dependence of l in more detail in the next section.

We plot the corresponding generalization error in figures 11 and 12. We see that for $a = 2.0$, the generalization ability is improved significantly. However, for $a = 0.5$, the generalization ability becomes worse than that for $g = 1$ (the unoptimized case).

We note that the above optimal learning rate $g_{\rm opt}(\alpha)$ contains the parameter a unknown to the student. Thus this choice of $g(\alpha)$ is not perfectly consistent with the principles of supervised learning. We will propose an improvement on this point in section 6 using a parameter-free learning rate. For the moment, we may take the result of the present section as a theoretical estimate of the best possible optimization result.

5.1.2. Asymptotic analysis of the learning curve. Let us first investigate the learnable case. The asymptotic forms of R, l, $\epsilon_{\rm g}$ and g as $R \to 1$ are obtained from the same analysis as

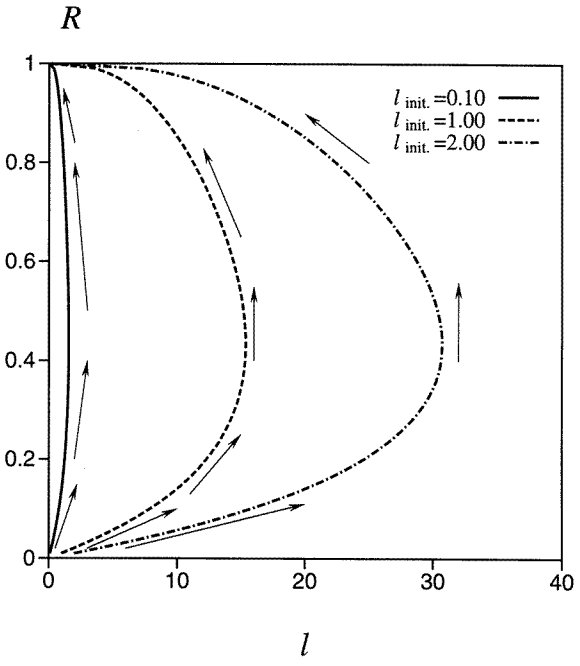

Figure 9. The trajectories in the R–l plane with the optimal learning rate by perceptron learning for $a = 2.0$. We choose the initial condition as $(R_{\rm init}, l_{\rm init}) = (0.01, 0.10), (0.01, 1.00)$ and $(0.01, 2.00)$.

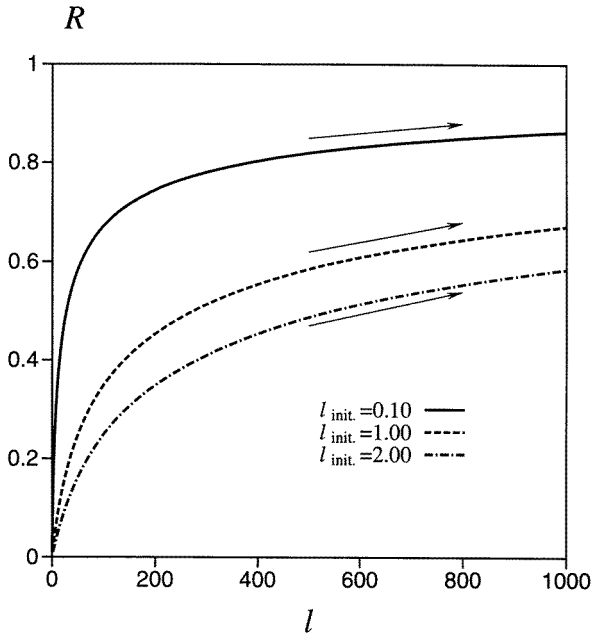

Figure 10. Same as in figure 12 with $a = 0.5$.

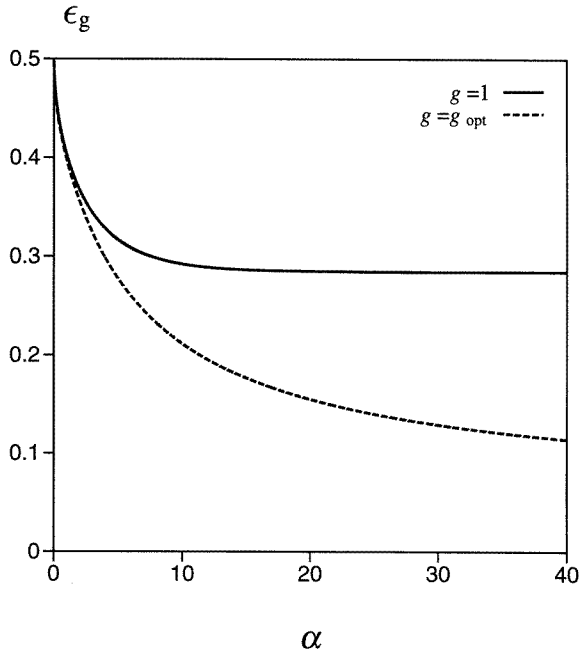

Figure 11. The generalization error for $a = 2.0$ with the optimal learning rate g_{opt}.

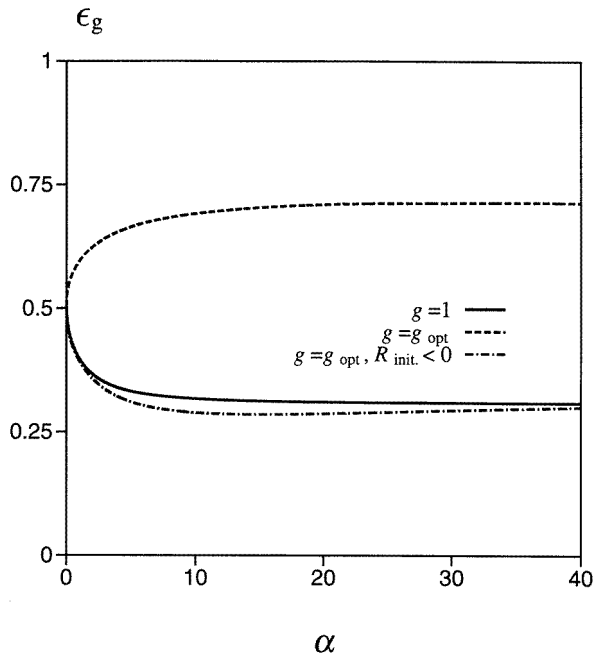

Figure 12. Same as in figure 14 with $a = 0.5$. If we select a negative value as the initial condition of R for $a = 0.5$, the generalization error converges to $1 - 2H(a)(> 0.5)$.

in the previous section as $R = 1 - 8/\alpha^2$, $l = c\mathrm{e}^{-16/\alpha^2}$ and

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{4}{\pi\alpha} \tag{5.8}$$

$$g(\alpha) = 2\sqrt{2\pi}\frac{l}{\alpha} = 2c\sqrt{2\pi}\frac{\mathrm{e}^{-16/\alpha^2}}{\alpha} \tag{5.9}$$

where c is a constant depending on the initial condition. The decay rate of the vanishing generalization error is improved from $\alpha^{-1/3}$ for the unoptimized case [15] to α^{-1}. This α^{-1}-law is the same as in off-line (or batch) learning [18]. We also see that l approaches c as R reaches 1.

We next investigate the unlearnable case $\Delta \neq 0$. The asymptotic forms are

$$R = 1 - \frac{2\pi H(a)}{(1-2\Delta)^2}\frac{1}{\alpha} \qquad l = c\alpha^{-2\Delta/(1-2\Delta)} \tag{5.10}$$

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi}\frac{\sqrt{2\pi H(a)}}{1-2\Delta}\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 2H(a) \tag{5.11}$$

and the optimal learning rate g_{opt} is

$$g_{\mathrm{opt}}(\alpha) \simeq c\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{1-2\Delta}\frac{\alpha^{-2\Delta/(1-2\Delta)}}{\alpha}. \tag{5.12}$$

From the asymptotic form of l, we find that l diverges with α for $a < a_{\mathrm{c1}} = \sqrt{2\log 2}$ and goes to zero for $a > a_{\mathrm{c1}}$ as observed in the previous section. It is interesting that, for a exactly equal to a_{c1}, g_{opt} vanishes and the present type of optimization does not make sense.

For $a > a_{c2} = 0.80$, the generalization error converges to the optimal value $2H(a)$ as $\alpha^{-1/2}$. This is the same exponent as that of Hebbian learning as we saw in the previous section. For $a < a_{c2}$, in order to get the optimal overlap $R = R_*$, we must stop the on-line dynamics before the system reaches the state $R = -1$. Accordingly, the method discussed in this section is not useful for the purpose of improvement of generalization ability for $a < a_{c2}$.

5.2. Hebbian learning

Hebbian learning with learning rate $g(\alpha)$ is

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \boldsymbol{J}^m + g(\alpha)T_a(v)\boldsymbol{x}. \tag{5.13}$$

Using the same technique as in the previous section, we find the optimal learning rate for the Hebbian learning $g^{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{opt}}(\alpha)$ as

$$g^{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{opt}}(\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\frac{(1-2\Delta)(1-R^2)l}{R}. \tag{5.14}$$

The R–l trajectory is

$$\frac{R}{(1-R^2)} = cl \tag{5.15}$$

where c is a constant determined by the initial condition. It is very interesting that this trajectory is independent of a.

The asymptotic forms of various quantities for $a > a_{c1}$ of the Hebbian learning are

$$\begin{aligned} R &= 1 - \frac{\pi}{4(1-2\Delta)^2}\frac{1}{\alpha} \\ l &= c\alpha \end{aligned} \tag{5.16}$$

and

$$\epsilon_{\mathrm{g}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}(1-2\Delta)}\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 2H(a) \tag{5.17}$$

$$g(\alpha) = c. \tag{5.18}$$

Accordingly, for $a > a_{c1}$, the asymptotic form of the generalization error is the same as for $g = 1$. However, in the parameter region $a < a_{c1}$, the generalization ability deteriorates by introducing the optimal learning rate if we select an initial condition satisfying $R > 0$. To see this, we note that $\mathrm{d}R/\mathrm{d}\alpha$ is approximated around $R = 0$ as $\mathrm{d}R/\mathrm{d}\alpha \simeq 2(1-2\Delta)^2/\pi R$ by using $g^{\mathrm{H}}_{\mathrm{opt}}$. Therefore, if we start the learning dynamics from $R > 0$, the overlap R goes to 1 and the generalization error approaches $2H(a)$ which is not acceptable at all because it exceeds 0.5. On the other hand, for $a < a_{c1}$ and $R_{\mathrm{init}} < 0$, the generalization error approaches $1 - 2H(a)$ (less than 0.5 but not optimal) as

$$\epsilon_{\mathrm{g}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}(1-2\Delta)}\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 1 - 2H(a). \tag{5.19}$$

Thus an over-training appears. We must notice that the prefactor of the generalization error changes from $1/\sqrt{6\pi}$ in equation (3.13) to $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$ in equation (5.19) by introducing the optimal learning rate. Therefore the optimization, by using the learning rate $g(\alpha)$, is not very useful for Hebbian learning.

6. Optimal learning without unknown parameters

As we mentioned in section 5, the generalization error obtained there is the theoretical (not practical) lower bound because the optimal learning rate $g_{\rm opt}$ contains a parameter a unknown to the student. In this section we propose a method to avoid this difficulty for the perceptron learning algorithm.

For the learnable case we choose the learning rate g as

$$g = \frac{k}{\alpha} l \tag{6.1}$$

which is nothing but the asymptotic form (5.9) of the previous optimized learning rate. Substituting this into equation (5.4) with (5.5), we find $R = 1 - 8/\alpha^2$ when R is close to unity and correspondingly

$$\epsilon_{\rm g} = \frac{4}{\pi\alpha} \tag{6.2}$$

which agrees with the result of Barkai *et al* [15].

For the unlearnable case, we assume $g(\alpha) = kl/\alpha$ as before and find the general solution for $R = 1 - \varepsilon$ as

$$\varepsilon = \frac{k^2 H(a)}{bk - 1} \frac{1}{\alpha} + A \left(\frac{k}{\alpha} \right)^{bk} \tag{6.3}$$

where $b \equiv \sqrt{2/\pi}(1 - 2\Delta)$. The first term dominates asymptotically if $bk > 1$. In this case, we have

$$\epsilon_{\rm g} = 2H(a) + \sqrt{\frac{2k^2 H(a)}{bk - 1}} \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{\alpha}}. \tag{6.4}$$

The second term on the right-hand side is minimized by choosing

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{1 - 2\Delta} \tag{6.5}$$

which satisfies $bk > 1$ as required. Equation (6.4) makes sense for $\Delta > 2\sqrt{\log 2}$ if k is chosen as above.

When $bk < 1$, the asymptotic form of the generalization error is

$$\epsilon_{\rm g} = 2H(a) + \frac{\sqrt{2A}}{\pi} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\alpha} \right)^{bk/2}. \tag{6.6}$$

This formula is valid for $b > 0$ or $a < a_{\rm c1}$. A similar crossover between two types of asymptotic forms was reported in the problem of one-dimensional decision boundary [19].

7. Hebbian learning with queries

We have assumed so far that the student is trained using examples drawn from a uniform distribution on the N-dimensional sphere S^N. It is known for the learnable case [20] that selecting training examples out of a limited set sometimes improves the performance of learning. We therefore investigate in the present section how the method of Kinzel and Ruján [20] works for an unlearnable rule.

7.1. Learning with queries under a fixed learning rate

The learning dynamics we choose here is nothing but the Hebbian algorithm (3.7). In section 3, the student was trained by inputs $\boldsymbol{x}$ uniform on S^N. In the present section we follow [20] and use selected inputs which lie on the borderline, $\boldsymbol{J}\cdot\boldsymbol{x}=0$ or $u=0$, at every dynamical step. The idea behind this choice is that the student is not confident for inputs just on the decision boundary and thus teacher signals for such examples should be more useful than generic inputs.

We use the following conditional distribution, instead of $P_R(u,v)$ in equation (2.5), in order to get the differential equations

$$P_R(v|u=0)=\sqrt{2\pi}\,\delta(u)P_R(u,v). \tag{7.1}$$

Using this distribution, we obtain the following differential equations

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}l^2}{\mathrm{d}\alpha}=1 \tag{7.2}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{\mathrm{d}\alpha}=\frac{1}{l}\left[\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sqrt{1-R^2}\left\{1-2\exp\left(-\frac{a^2}{2(1-R^2)}\right)\right\}-\frac{R}{2l}\right]. \tag{7.3}$$

In figure 13, we plot the generalization error for $a=1.0$ by numerical integration of the above differential equations. We see that the generalization ability of student is improved and the problem of over-training is avoided.

In order to investigate the asymptotic form of the generalization error, we solve the differential equations in the limit of $\alpha\to\infty$. Equation (7.2) can be solved easily as $l=\sqrt{\alpha}$.

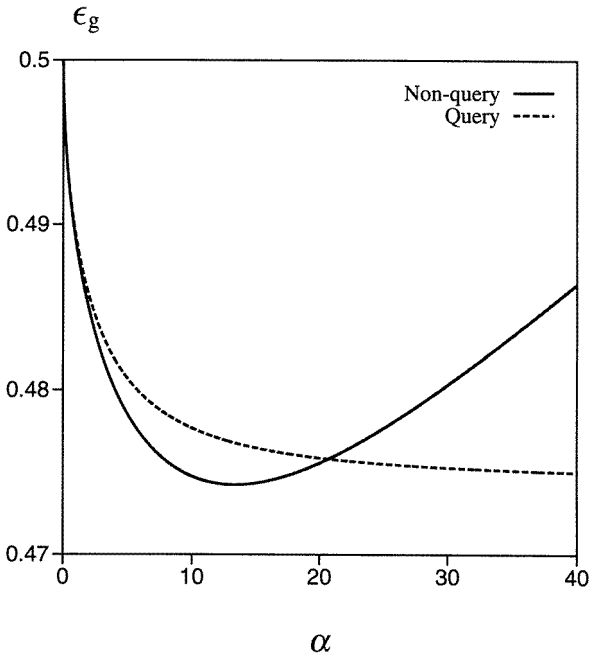

Figure 13. The generalization error of Hebbian learning with queries for $a=1.0$. Over-training disappears and the generalization error converges to its optimal value.

For the learnable case $a\to\infty$, using $R = 1 - \varepsilon$ and $\varepsilon\to 0$, we obtain $\varepsilon = \pi/(16\alpha)$ and the generalization error as

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}}. \tag{7.4}$$

The numerical prefactor from equation (3.11) has been reduced by a half.

For finite a, equation (7.3) has fixed points at $R_0 = \pm 1$ and

$$R_1^{(\pm)} = \pm\sqrt{\frac{2\log 2 - a^2}{2\log 2}}. \tag{7.5}$$

The latter fixed point exists only for $a < a_{c1} = \sqrt{2\log 2}$. Thus, if $a > a_{c1}$, $|R|$ eventually approaches 1, and the exponential term in equation (7.3) can be neglected. This implies that the asymptotic analysis for the learnable case applies without modification. The resulting asymptotic form of the generalization error is

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} + 2H(a). \tag{7.6}$$

If $a < a_{c1}$, the system is attracted to the fixed point $R_1^{(-)}$ according to the expansion on the right-hand side of equation (7.3) around $R = 0$,

$$\frac{dR}{d\alpha} \simeq \frac{1}{l}\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}(1 - 2\Delta) \tag{7.7}$$

which is negative if $a < a_{c1}$. It is remarkable that $R_1^{(-)}$ coincides with R_* which gives the global minimum of $E(R)$ for $a < a_{c2} = 0.80$. Therefore, for $a < a_{c2}$, the present Hebbian learning with queries achieves the best possible generalization error. In the range $a_{c2} < a < a_{c1}$, $R = R_1^{(-)} = R_*$ is not the global minimum of $E(R)$ but is only a local minimum. However, as seen in figure 13, over-training has disappeared in this region by introducing queries.

The asymptotic behaviour for $a < a_{c1}$ is found to be

$$\epsilon_g = \epsilon_{opt} - \frac{16\log 2\sqrt{2\log 2 - a^2}}{a^2}\left[1 - Q\left(2, \frac{1}{2}\log 2\right)\right]\exp\left[-\frac{8\log 2}{\sqrt{\pi}a}\sqrt{2\log 2 - a^2}\sqrt{\alpha}\right] \tag{7.8}$$

where $Q(x, y)$ is the incomplete gamma function and the asymptotic value $\epsilon_{opt} = E(R_*)$ is optimal for $a < a_{c1}$.

7.2. Optimized Hebbian learning with queries

Next we introduce the parameter g into the Hebbian learning with queries and optimize g so that R goes to 1 as quickly as possible. As discussed in section 5, this strategy works only for $a > a_{c2}$ since $R = 1$ is not the optimal value if $a < a_{c2}$. Using the same technique as in section 5, we find the optimal learning rate as

$$g_{opt} = \frac{l}{R}\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sqrt{1 - R^2}\left\{1 - 2\exp\left(-\frac{a^2}{1 - R^2}\right)\right\}. \tag{7.9}$$

For the learnable case, the solution for R is

$$R = \sqrt{1 - c\exp\left(-\frac{2\alpha}{\pi}\right)} \tag{7.10}$$

where c is a constant. The generalization error decays to zero as

$$\epsilon_g = \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right) \tag{7.11}$$

where c is determined by the initial condition. This exponential decrease for the learnable case is in agreement with [17] where the optimization of the type of equation (5.2) was used together with queries. The asymptotic forms of the order parameter l and optimal learning rate $g_{\rm opt}$ are

$$l = c'\sqrt{1 - c\exp\left(-\frac{2\alpha}{\pi}\right)} \tag{7.12}$$

$$g_{\rm opt}(\alpha) = c'\sqrt{\frac{2c}{\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right) \tag{7.13}$$

where c' is determined by the initial condition.

Next we investigate the case of finite a. Using the same asymptotic analysis as in the learnable case, we obtain the asymptotic form of the generalization error ϵ_g as

$$\epsilon_g = 2H(a) + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right). \tag{7.14}$$

The limiting value $2H(a)$ is the theoretical lower bound for $a > a_{c2} = 0.80$. We therefore have found a method of optimization to achieve the best possible generalization error with a very fast, exponential, asymptotic approach for $a > a_{c2}$. The present method of optimization does not work appropriately for $a < a_{c2}$ because $R = 1$, to which the present method is designed to force the system, is not the best value of R in this range of a.

It is worth investigating whether the exponent of decay changes or not by using a parameter-free optimal learning rate as in section 7. If $a > a_{c1}$, only one fixed point $R = 1$ exists. Therefore, the a-dependent term $\exp(-a^2/(1 - R^2))$ in equation (7.9) does not affect the asymptotic analysis. We may therefore conclude that the asymptotic form of generalization error does not change by optimal learning rate without the unknown parameter a.

8. Avoiding over-training by a weight-decay term

In section 3 we showed that over-training appears for the unlearnable case $a < a_{c1}$ by the Hebbian learning. If $a < a_{c1}$, the flow of R goes to -1 for any initial condition passing through the local minimum of $E(R)$ at $R = R_*$. Consequently, the generalization ability of the student decreases as he learns excessively. In order to avoid this difficulty, we must stop the dynamics on the way to the state $R = -1$. For this purpose, we may use the on-line dynamics with a weight-decay term or a forgetting term [13].

The on-line dynamics by the Hebbian rule is modified with the weight-decay term as

$$\boldsymbol{J}^{m+1} = \left(1 - \frac{\Lambda}{N}\right)\boldsymbol{J}^m + T_a(v)\boldsymbol{x}. \tag{8.1}$$

The fixed point of the above dynamics is

$$R_0 = \frac{2(1 - 2\Delta)}{\sqrt{\pi\Lambda + 4(1 - 2\Delta)^2}}. \tag{8.2}$$

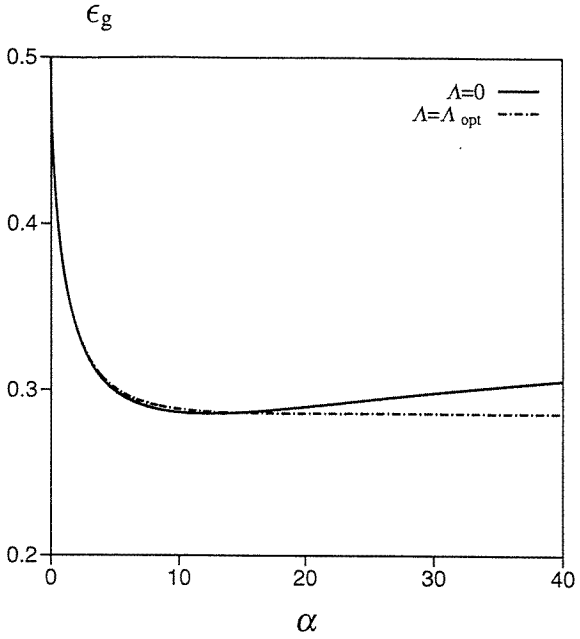

Figure 14. The generalization error of Hebbian learning with a weight-decay term for $a = 0.5$. Over-training disappears and the generalization error converges to its optimal value.

In order to get the optimal value, we choose R_0 so that it agrees with R_* which gives the global minimum of $E(R)$ for $a < a_{c1}$. From this condition, we obtain the optimal Λ_{opt} as

$$\Lambda_{opt} = \frac{4a^2(1-2\Delta)^2}{\pi(2\log 2 - a^2)}. \tag{8.3}$$

Using this Λ_{opt}, we solve the differential equations numerically and plot the result in figure 14 for $a = 0.5(< a_{c1})$. We see that the over-training disappears and the generalization error converges to the optimal value.

We next investigate how fast this convergence is achieved. For this purpose, we linearize the differential equations around the fixed point to obtain

$$1 - R \sim (1 - R_0)\left\{1 + \mathcal{O}\left[\exp\left(-2a^2(1-2\Delta)^2\left(\frac{\pi(2\log 2 - a^2) + 4}{\pi(2\log 2 - a^2)}\right)\alpha\right)\right]\right\}. \tag{8.4}$$

Here we warn that Λ_{opt} in equation (8.3) depends on a which is unknown to the student. Therefore, the result obtained in this section gives the theoretical upper bound of the generalization ability.

9. Summary and discussion

We have analysed the problem of on-line learning by the perceptron and Hebbian algorithms. For the unlearnable case, the generalization error decays exponentially to a finite value $E(R_0)$ with $R_0 = 1 - 2\Delta$ in the case of perceptron learning. For the Hebbian learning, the generalization error decays to $2H(a)$, the best possible value, for $a > a_{c1}$ and to $1 - 2H(a)$ for $a < a_{c1}$, both proportionally to $\alpha^{-1/2}$. In this latter parameter region $a < a_{c1}$, we observed the phenomenon of over-training.

We also investigated the learning under output noise. For the learnable case of the perceptron algorithm, the order parameters R and l are attracted towards a fixed point (R_0, l_0) asymptotically with an exponential law. As a result, the generalization error decays to a finite value exponentially. On the other hand, for the unlearnable case of perceptron learning, the generalization error decays exponentially to a finite value $E((1-2\Delta)(1-2\lambda))$. For the Hebbian learning, the generalization error decays to $2H(a)$ in proportion to $1/\sqrt{\alpha}$ for $a > a_{c1}$ and to $1-2H(a)$ also in proportion to $1/\sqrt{\alpha}$ for $a < a_{c1}$.

We introduced the learning rate $g(\alpha)$ in on-line dynamics and optimized it to maximize $\mathrm{d}R/\mathrm{d}\alpha$. Using this treatment we obtained a closed form trajectory of R and l. The generalization ability of the student has been shown to increase for $a > a_{c2} = 0.80$ in the case of the perceptron learning algorithm. For the unlearnable case, the generalization error decays to the best possible value $2H(a)$ in proportion to $1/\sqrt{\alpha}$. For Hebbian learning, the asymptotic generalization ability did not change by this optimization procedure.

Unfortunately, in the parameter range $a < a_{c2}$, we found it impossible to obtain an optimal performance for the perceptron learning within our procedure of optimization. To overcome this difficulty, we investigated the on-line dynamics with a weight-decay term for the Hebbian learning. Using this method, we could eliminate the over-training, and the generalization error converged to the optimal value exponentially.

We also introduced a new learning rate independent of the unknown parameter a. We assumed $g(\alpha) = kl/\alpha$ and optimized k so that the generalization error decays to the minimum value as quickly as possible. As a result, for the unlearnable case of $a > a_{c1}$ the prefactor was somewhat improved although the exponent of decay did not change.

The Hebbian learning with queries was also investigated. If the student is trained by the Hebbian algorithm using inputs on the decision boundary, his generalization ability is improved except in the range $a_{c2} < a < a_{c1}$. This is a highly non-trivial result because this choice of query works well for the unlearnable case where the student does not know the structure of the teacher. We next introduced the optimal learning rate in the on-line Hebbian learning with queries and obtained a very fast convergence of the generalization error. For $a > a_{c1}$, the generalization error converges to its optimal value exponentially.

We have observed exponential decays to limiting values in various situations of unlearnable rules. This fast convergence may originate in the large size of asymptotic space; if the limiting value of R is unity, only a single point in the $\boldsymbol{J}$-space, $\boldsymbol{J} = \boldsymbol{J}^0$, is the correct destination of learning dynamics, a very difficult task. If, on the other hand, R approaches $R_0 (< 1)$, there are a continuous number of allowed student vectors, and to find one of these should be a relatively easy process, leading to exponential convergence.

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