

# Defensive forecasting and competitive on-line prediction

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## My plan:

- Game-theoretic vs. measure-theoretic probability (the difference demonstrated on SLLN)
- **Defensive forecasting**: game-theoretic laws of probability  $\mapsto$  forecasting algorithms
- Implementation (result only): WLLN  $\mapsto$  **K29**
- K29 in function spaces
- Properties of K29: calibration and resolution
- Use for decision making

Glenn's talk: there are 2 main ways to formalize probability, **measure** (Borel / ... / Kolmogorov) vs. **gambling** (von Mises / Ville / Kolmogorov).

To see the difference (important in defensive forecasting), consider the simplest **martingale SLLN**. Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  be random variables s.t.  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$  for all  $n$ ; let  $p_n$  be the conditional probability that  $y_n = 1$ . Then

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) = 0$$

with probability 1.

## Game-theoretic SLLN for binary observations

Forecasting protocol:

$\mathcal{K}_0 := 1$ .

FOR  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ :

Reality announces  $x_n \in \mathbf{X}$ .

Forecaster announces  $p_n \in [0, 1]$ .

Skeptic announces  $s_n \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Reality announces  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$ .

$\mathcal{K}_n := \mathcal{K}_{n-1} + s_n(y_n - p_n)$ .

END FOR.

$\mathcal{K}_n$ : Skeptic's capital.

$x_n$ : datum (all relevant information, may include some of the previous  $y_i$ );  $y_n$ : observation.

Proposition (game-theoretic SLLN) Skeptic has a strategy which guarantees that

- $\mathcal{K}_n$  is never negative
- either

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) = 0$$

( $p_n$  are unbiased) or

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{K}_n = \infty.$$

The **measure-theoretic SLLN** follows easily: if Reality is **oblivious** (does not pay attention to what her opponents do) and uses a randomized strategy (probability measure  $P$  on the sequences of Reality's moves) and Forecaster computes his moves as conditional expectations w.r. to  $P$ :  $\mathcal{K}_n$  is a non-negative martingale, and so  $\mathcal{K}_n \rightarrow \infty$  with probability 0.

Game-theoretic SLLN:

- Reality need not be oblivious (or even follow a strategy)
- Forecaster need not ignore Skeptic (this is what makes defensive forecasting possible)

Caveat: I assumed that Skeptic's strategy was measurable.  
Empirical fact: for all kinds of limit theorems, Skeptic's strategy we construct is measurable; moreover, it is continuous.

Recent (2004) observation: this approach can be used for designing forecasting algorithms.

For any continuous strategy for Skeptic there exists a strategy for Forecaster that does not allow Skeptic's capital to grow.

## The difficulty with forecasting

There is no forecasting algorithm that “works” for every sequence. Dawid’s (1985) example:

$$y_n := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p_n < 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This sequence looks computable and so can be predicted perfectly. But the algorithm producing  $p_n$  is always wrong!

Two very natural “cheats”:

**Continuity:** consider only continuous strategies for Skeptic.

Goes back to Kolmogorov’s school of the foundations of probability (Levin 1976).

**Randomness:** allow Forecaster to use randomization (Foster & Vohra 1998 and many followers).

We are using the first cheat. **Brouwer’s principle:** computable functions are always continuous.

Modified protocol:

$\mathcal{K}_0 := 1.$

FOR  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ :

Reality announces  $x_n \in \mathbf{X}.$

Skeptic announces continuous  $S_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$

Forecaster announces  $p_n \in [0, 1].$

Reality announces  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}.$

$\mathcal{K}_n := \mathcal{K}_{n-1} + S_n(p_n)(y_n - p_n).$

END FOR.

**Theorem 1** (Takemura) Forecaster has a strategy that ensures  $\mathcal{K}_0 \geq \mathcal{K}_1 \geq \mathcal{K}_2 \cdots$ .

## Proof

- choose  $p_n$  so that  $S_n(p_n) = 0$
- if the equation  $S_n(p) = 0$  has no roots (in which case  $S_n$  never changes sign),

$$p_n := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } S_n > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } S_n < 0 \end{cases}$$

QED

Can be easily generalized; Intermediate Value Theorem  $\mapsto$  numerous fixed point and minimax theorems in topological vector spaces.

## Research program I (forecasting)

- Decide which property (such as LLN, CLT, LIL, Hoeffding's inequality, . . . ) you want Forecaster's moves to satisfy.
- Prove the corresponding game-theoretic result.
- Apply Theorem 1.
- If necessary, streamline the resulting forecasting algorithm.

What does it give in the case of LLN?

In fact, nothing interesting: Forecaster performs his task **too well**. E.g., he can choose

$$p_n := \begin{cases} 1/2 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ y_{n-1} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

ensuring

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - p_i) \right| \leq 1/2$$

for all  $n$  (much better than using the true probabilities).

We need a “convoluted” LLN. Suppose  $\Phi : [0, 1] \times \mathbf{X} \rightarrow H$  (feature mapping to an inner product space) and

$$c_\Phi := \sup_{p,x} \|\Phi(p, x)\| < \infty.$$

The convoluted LLN: for any  $\delta \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$\left\| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) \Phi(p_n, x_n) \right\| \leq \frac{c_\Phi}{\sqrt{N\delta}}$$

with probability at least  $1 - \delta$ . An easy modification of the standard statement ( $\Phi \equiv 1$ , Kolmogorov 1929). True both measure-theoretically (with  $\Phi$  measurable) and game-theoretically.

Let

$$\mathbf{k}((p, x), (p', x')) = \langle \Phi(p, x), \Phi(p', x') \rangle$$

(the [kernel](#)). Suppose  $\mathbf{k}$  is continuous in  $p$ . Applying Theorem 1 to Kolmogorov's proof: there exists a forecasting strategy (the [K29 algorithm with parameter  \$\mathbf{k}\$](#) ) that guarantees

$$\forall N : \left\| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) \Phi(p_n, x_n) \right\| \leq \frac{c_{\Phi}}{\sqrt{N}}$$

(somewhat better than when using the true probabilities, esp. in view of the LIL).

Problem with Research Program I in the binary case: works too well. Already in response to WLLN, Theorem 1 produces predictions that satisfy most other laws. Might be interesting for unbounded  $y_n$  (connections with empirical processes).

The K29 algorithm with parameter  $k$

FOR  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ :

  Read  $x_n \in \mathbf{X}$ .

  Set  $S_n(p) := \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} k((p, x_n), (p_i, x_i))(y_i - p_i)$  for  $p \in [0, 1]$ .

  Output any root  $p$  of  $S_n(p) = 0$  as  $p_n$ ;

    if there are no roots,  $p_n := (1 + \text{sign } S_n)/2$ .

  Read  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$ .

END FOR.

Since  $S_n$  is continuous,  $\text{sign } S_n$  is well defined in this context.

Intuition:  $p_n$  is chosen so that  $p_i$  are unbiased forecasts for  $y_i$  on the rounds  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$  for which  $(p_i, x_i)$  is similar to  $(p_n, x_n)$ .

A **reproducing kernel Hilbert space** (RKHS) on  $Z$  (such as  $\mathbf{X}$  or  $[0, 1] \times \mathbf{X}$ ) is a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{F}$  of real-valued functions on  $Z$  such that the evaluation functional  $f \in \mathcal{F} \mapsto f(z)$  is continuous for each  $z \in Z$ . By the Riesz–Fischer theorem, for each  $z \in Z$  there exists a function  $\mathbf{k}_z \in \mathcal{F}$  such that

$$f(z) = \langle \mathbf{k}_z, f \rangle_{\mathcal{F}}, \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Let

$$\mathbf{c}_{\mathcal{F}} := \sup_{z \in Z} \|\mathbf{k}_z\|_{\mathcal{F}};$$

we will be interested in the case  $\mathbf{c}_{\mathcal{F}} < \infty$ .

The corresponding kernel:

$$\mathbf{k}(z, z') := \langle \mathbf{k}_z, \mathbf{k}_{z'} \rangle_{\mathcal{F}};$$

$c_{\mathcal{F}}$  can be equivalently defined as  $\sup_z \mathbf{k}(z, z)$ . The K29 property stated earlier implies (when applied to  $\Phi(p, x) := \mathbf{k}_{p,x}$ ):

**Theorem 2** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a RKHS on  $[0, 1] \times \mathbf{X}$ . K29 with the kernel  $\mathbf{k}$  ensures

$$\left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) f(p_n, x_n) \right| \leq \frac{c_{\mathcal{F}} \|f\|_{\mathcal{F}}}{\sqrt{N}}$$

for all  $N$  and  $f$ .

## Examples

A “Sobolev norm”  $\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}}$  of  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}}^2 := \left( \int_0^1 f(t) dt \right)^2 + \int_0^1 (f'(t))^2 dt$$

( $\infty$  if  $f$  is not absolutely continuous etc.).

Its kernel is

$$\mathbf{k}(x, x') = \frac{1}{2} \min^2(x, x') + \frac{1}{2} \min^2(1 - x, 1 - x') + \frac{5}{6}$$

(Craven and Wahba 1979); so  $c_{\mathcal{S}} = 4/3$ .

For functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}'}^2 := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^2(t) dt + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (f'(t))^2 dt$$

with kernel

$$\mathbf{k}(x, x') = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-|x - x'|)$$

(Thomas-Agnan 1996).

In  $[0, 1]^K$  or  $\mathbb{R}^K$ : tensor products (also popular: thin-plate splines).

Moving between kernels and norms ( $\approx$  inner products): non-trivial. Kernels: used in algorithms; norms: in stating their properties.

## Calibration and resolution (informal discussion)

The forecasts  $p_n$ ,  $n = 1, \dots, N$ , are **well calibrated** if, for any  $p^* \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: p_n \approx p^*} y_n}{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: p_n \approx p^*} 1} \approx p^*$$

provided  $\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: p_n \approx p^*} 1$  is not too small.

Can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: p_n \approx p^*} (y_n - p_n)}{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: p_n \approx p^*} 1} \approx 0.$$

The forecasts  $p_n$ ,  $n = 1, \dots, N$ , have **good resolution** if, for any  $x^* \in \mathbf{X}$ ,

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: x_n \approx x^*} (y_n - p_n)}{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: x_n \approx x^*} 1} \approx 0$$

provided the denominator is not too small.

The forecasts  $p_n$ ,  $n = 1, \dots, N$ , have **good calibration-cum-resolution** if, for any  $(p^*, x^*) \in [0, 1] \times \mathbf{X}$ ,

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: (p_n, x_n) \approx (p^*, x^*)} (y_n - p_n)}{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N: (p_n, x_n) \approx (p^*, x^*)} 1} \approx 0$$

provided the denominator is not too small.

For concreteness: **calibration**.

To make sense of the  $\approx$ , consider a “soft neighborhood”  $f \in \mathcal{S}$  of  $p^*$ :  $f(p^*) = 1$  and  $f(p) = 0$  unless  $p$  is close to  $p^*$ .

The K29 forecasts will be well calibrated,

$$\frac{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N} f(p_n)(y_n - p_n)}{\sum_{n=1, \dots, N} f(p_n)} \approx 0,$$

if  $\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}}$  is not large and

$$\sum_{n=1}^N f(p_n) \gg \sqrt{N}.$$

**Competitive on-line prediction**: we are given a pool of decision strategies and our goal is to perform almost as well as the best strategy in the pool. No assumptions about the reality.

**Defensive forecasting**  $\mapsto$  a new proof technique in competitive on-line prediction.

This talk: **prediction**  $\mapsto$  **forecasting** or **decision making**.

Decision-making protocol:

Loss<sub>0</sub> := 0.

FOR  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ :

    Reality announces  $x_n \in \mathbf{X}$ .

    Decision Maker announces  $\gamma_n \in \Gamma$ .

    Reality announces  $y_n \in \{0, 1\}$ .

    Loss <sub>$n$</sub>  := Loss <sub>$n-1$</sub>  +  $\lambda(y_n, \gamma_n)$ .

END FOR.

$\lambda$ : the loss function.

## The difference between the two protocols

- In the forecasting protocol, our goal to produce probabilistic **statements** (in principle, they can be falsified: turn out to be false).
- In the decision-making protocol, we are merely minimizing our loss.

Decision rule  $D : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \Gamma$ .

We want to compete against decision rules that are not too irregular with no assumptions about Reality. Let  $\mathbf{X} = [0, 1]$  at first. Irregularity is measured with the Sobolev norm.

**Proposition** Suppose  $\mathbf{X} = \Gamma = [0, 1]$  and  $\lambda(y, \gamma) = |y - \gamma|$ .  
Decision Maker has a strategy that guarantees

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) + \frac{\|2D - 1\|_{\mathcal{S}} + 1}{\sqrt{N}}$$

for all  $N$  and  $D$ .

When is Decision Maker **competitive with  $D$** ? Let

$$f := 2D - 1 \in [-1, 1]$$

(“symmetrized”  $D$ ).

We have

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}} \leq \left| \int_0^1 f(t) dt \right| + \sqrt{\int_0^1 (f'(t))^2 dt} \leq 1 + \text{“mean slope of } f\text{”}.$$

OK if the mean slope  $\ll \sqrt{N}$ . Especially simple case:  
continuous piece-wise linear functions (dense in  $C([0, 1])$ ).

No upper bound on  $\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}}$ , so we have **universal consistency**: for any continuous prediction rule  $D$ ,

$$\limsup_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) \right) \leq 0.$$

This is a minimal property.

## Research program II (decision making)

- Choose a goal that could be achieved if you knew the true probabilities generating the observations.
- Construct a decision strategy provably achieving your goal.
- Isolate a continuous law of probability on which the proof depends.
- Use defensive forecasting to get rid of the true probabilities.

The goal should be:

1. in terms of observables;
2. achievable regardless of what the true probabilities are.

The goal has to be [relative](#).

Fix a **choice function**  $G : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Gamma$ :

$$G(p) \in \arg \min_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \lambda(p, \gamma),$$

where

$$\lambda(p, \gamma) := p\lambda(1, \gamma) + (1 - p)\lambda(0, \gamma).$$

For the “square” and “log loss” functions one can take  $G(p) := p$ .

The **exposure** of  $G$ :

$$\text{Exp}_G(p) := \lambda(1, G(p)) - \lambda(0, G(p))$$

(assumed continuous; a modification of this definition also works for the absolute loss function).

The **exposure** of a decision rule  $D : \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \Gamma$ :

$$\text{Exp}_D(x) := \lambda(1, D(x)) - \lambda(0, D(x)).$$

**Informal statement** Suppose  $\|\text{Exp}_G\|_{\mathcal{S}}$  is not large. The decisions  $\gamma_n := G(p_n)$  (“ELM principle”), with  $p_n$  output by ALN with a Sobolev kernel, satisfy

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \lesssim \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n))$$

for all  $N$  and all decision rules  $D$  with  $\|\text{Exp}_D\|_{\mathcal{S}}$  not too large.

Proof Subtracting

$$\lambda(p, \gamma) = p\lambda(1, \gamma) + (1 - p)\lambda(0, \gamma)$$

from

$$\lambda(y, \gamma) = y\lambda(1, \gamma) + (1 - y)\lambda(0, \gamma)$$

gives

$$\lambda(y, \gamma) - \lambda(p, \gamma) = (y - p)(\lambda(1, \gamma) - \lambda(0, \gamma)).$$

In conjunction with Theorem 2:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) &= \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, G(p_n)) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(p_n, G(p_n)) + \sum_{n=1}^N \left( \lambda(y_n, G(p_n)) - \lambda(p_n, G(p_n)) \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(p_n, G(p_n)) + \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) \left( \lambda(1, G(p_n)) - \lambda(0, G(p_n)) \right) \\ &\approx \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(p_n, G(p_n))\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(p_n, D(x_n)) \\
&= \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) - \sum_{n=1}^N (\lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) - \lambda(p_n, D(x_n))) \\
&= \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) - \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - p_n) (\lambda(1, D(x_n)) - \lambda(0, D(x_n))) \\
&\qquad\qquad\qquad \approx \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)).
\end{aligned}$$

**Summary of the proof technique:** to show that the actual loss of our decision strategy does not exceed the actual loss of a decision rule  $D$  by much, we notice that

- the actual loss  $\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, G(p_n))$  of our decision strategy is approximately equal, by Theorem 2, to the (one-step-ahead conditional) expected loss  $\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(p_n, G(p_n))$  of our strategy;
- since we used the Expected Loss Minimization principle, the expected loss of our strategy does not exceed the expected loss of  $D$ ;
- the expected loss of  $D$  is approximately equal to its actual loss (again by Theorem 2).

**Theorem 3** (special cases: specific loss functions and the Sobolev space  $\mathcal{S}'$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ ) Let  $\Gamma = [0, 1]$  and  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $\lambda(y, \gamma) = (y - \gamma)^2$ . Decision Maker has a strategy that guarantees

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) + \frac{3}{8} (\|2D - 1\|_{\mathcal{S}'} + 1) \sqrt{N}$$

for all  $N$  and  $D$ .

Suppose  $\lambda(y, \gamma) = |y - \gamma|$ . Decision Maker has a strategy that guarantees

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{4} (\|2D - 1\|_{\mathcal{S}'} + 1) \sqrt{N}$$

for all  $N$  and  $D$ .

Suppose

$$\lambda(y, \gamma) = -y \ln \gamma - (1 - y) \ln(1 - \gamma).$$

Decision Maker has a strategy that guarantees

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) + 0.7 \left( \left\| \ln \frac{D}{1 - D} \right\|_{\mathcal{S}'} + 1 \right) \sqrt{N}$$

for all  $N$  and  $D$ .

General theorem: any RKHS in place of  $\mathcal{S}'$ ; convex loss functions (if unbounded, the tails must decay faster than  $1/t$ ; in the log loss game, they decay exponentially fast).

Natural developments: extend to non-convex loss functions (with a little randomization) and loss functions depending on several future observations.

## Limitations of defensive forecasting

Competitive on-line prediction: its goal implicitly assumes a **small** decision maker.

Remember a typical guarantee:

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, \gamma_n) \leq \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda(y_n, D(x_n)) + (\|2D - 1\|_{\mathcal{S}} + 1) \sqrt{N}.$$

Ideal probability forecasts (actual) are not enough in big decision making!

Simple example:  $\Gamma = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $\lambda$  is given by the matrix

		Reality	
		0	1
Decision Maker	0	1	2
	1	2	0

Reality's strategy:  $y_n := \gamma_n$ . Decision Maker's theory: Reality always chooses  $y_n = 0$ .

Decision Maker's mistake: he was being greedy (concentrated on exploitation and completely neglected exploration). But:

- he acted optimally given his beliefs,
- his beliefs have been verified by what actually happened.

We have to worry about what would have happened if we had acted in a different way.

My hope: game-theoretic probability has an important role to play in big decision making as well. A standard picture in the philosophy of science (Popper, Kuhn, Lakatos, . . . ): science progresses via struggle between (probabilistic) theories. It is possible that something like this happens in individual (human and animal) learning as well. **Testing** of probabilistic theories is crucial. The game-theoretic version of Cournot's principle: more flexible; at each time we know to what degree a theory has been falsified.

Small decision making is important; two popular examples in learning theory: prediction (evaluated with a loss function) and portfolio selection.

Big decision making: might be even more important in practice, but also might be mathematically less elegant (cf. PDE).

## Related literature

[Levin](#) (1976): explained by [Gacs](#) (2005). (No computability.)

Randomization approach to calibration: [Foster and Vohra](#) (1998); [Fudenberg, Levine, Lehrer, Sandroni, Smorodinsky](#), . . . . (Asymptotic results.)

Continuity approach rediscovered by [Kakade and Foster](#) (2004). (Asymptotic results.)

[Hannan](#) 1957: the beginning of competitive on-line prediction.

[Littlestone, Warmuth, Vovk, Cesa-Bianchi, Freund, Schapire](#), . . . (from 1989): “prediction with expert advice”, with numerous applications to competitive on-line prediction.

## Further details

### Game-theoretic probability:

Glenn Shafer and Vladimir Vovk, [Probability and finance: it's only a game](#), New York: Wiley, 2001

### Defensive forecasting:

<http://www.probabilityandfinance.com>, Working Papers 8, 10, 13–16.