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APPLICATIONS
Image Segmentation

**Image segmentation problem:** Decompose a given image into segments, i.e. regions containing “similar” pixels.

First step in many computer vision problems

**Example:** Segments might be regions of the image depicting the same object.

**Semantics Problem:** How should we infer objects from segments?
Segmentation via Image Labeling

(S. Yu and M. Berthod; CVIU 1995)
Markov Random Field Formulation

Model pixel label probability through Markov Random Fields

Probability of a particular labeling \( L \) is

\[
P(L) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left( \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} (-V_{cL_c}) \right) \propto \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \exp(-V_{cL_c}),
\]

where \( V_{cL_c} \) is the clique potential of \( L \) in clique \( c \)

Assuming a Gibbs distribution, the posteriori probability is

\[
P(L \mid Y) \propto \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \exp(-V_{cL_c})
\]

MAP solution is obtained by maximizing

\[
f(L) = \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} -V_{cL_c}
\]
Use game theory to maximize $f(L)$

Relaxation scheme in which
- Pixels are players
- Labels are available strategies

Payoff of pixel $i$ depends on the labels of its neighbours

$$u_i(L) = - \sum_{c \in C_i} V_c L_c$$

Theorem: L is a local maximum for $f(L)$ iff is it a Nash equilibrium for the defined game
Relaxation Scheme

1. Initialize $L^{(0)} = (l_1^{(0)}, \ldots, l_n^{(0)})$

2. At iteration $k$, for each object $i$, choose a label

   $l_i' = \arg\max_{l_i \in \Lambda_i \setminus \{l_i^{(k)}\}} u_i(l_i, L_i^{(k)})$

   If $u_i(l_i', L_i^{(k)}) > u_i(L_i^{(k)})$ accept the new label with probability $\alpha$, otherwise reject it

3. If $L^{(k+1)}$ is a Nash point, stop, else go to step 2

Proposition: for any $0<\alpha<1$, $L^{(k)}$ converges to a Nash equilibrium

Note: randomization is necessary to avoid oscillations
Relation to Relaxation Labeling

If the potentials of cliques of size greater than 2 sum to zero the game is a polymatrix game and is thus related to relaxation labelling

The proposed relaxation scheme thus generalizes (discrete) relaxation labeling to higher order clique potentials
Texture Segmentation
Example Segmentation
Integration of region and boundary modules

(A. Chakraborty and J. S. Duncan; TPAMI 1999)
Integration of Region and Boundary

Goal is to integrate region-based approaches with boundary-based approaches

Objectives of region-based and boundary-based are incommensurable

Due to exponential explosion of pixel dependencies in the general case, attempts to integrate the approaches into a single objective function result in ad hoc solutions

Avoid the problem of single-objective by casting it into a game theoretic framework in which the output of one module affects the objective function of the other
Integration of Region and Boundary

Generalized two player game in which strategies are a continuum

- The players are the region module and the boundary module
- The strategies are the possible region and boundary configurations

The payoff for each player is the posterior of the module

The selection of one module enters as a prior in the computation of the posterior of the other module (limited interaction)
The region is modeled through a Markov Random Field

- Pixels labels $x$ are estimated maximizing the posterior conditioned to the intensity observations $Y$ and the boundary prior $p$

$$
\arg\max_x P(x|Y, p) = \arg\max_x P(x|Y)P(p|x)
$$

The boundary is modeled through a snake model

- Boundary curve $p$ is estimated maximizing the posterior conditioned to the gradient observations $I$ and the boundary prior $x$

$$
\arg\max_p P(p|I, x) = \arg\max_p P(p)P(I|p)P(x|p)
$$
Synthetic Example
Example segmentation

Input image

Single function integration

Game theoretic integration

Overlaid on template
Comparison vs. Single Objective
Example Segmentation

- Input image
- Hand segmented
- No region integration
- GT integration
Example Segmentation
Example Segmentation

Input image

Hand segmented

No region integration

GT integration
Example Segmentation
Segmentation Using Dominant Sets
Graph-based segmentation

An image is represented as an edge-weighted undirected graph, where vertices correspond to individual pixels and the edge-weights reflect the “similarity” between pairs of vertices.

Our clustering algorithm basically consists of iteratively finding a dominant set in the graph using replicator dynamics and then removing it from the graph, until all vertices have been clustered.

\[
\text{Partition\_into\_dominant\_sets}(G) \\
\text{repeat} \\
\text{find a dominant set} \\
\text{remove it from graph} \\
\text{until all vertices have been clustered}
\]
Experimental setup

The similarity between pixels $i$ and $j$ was measured by:

$$w(i, j) = \exp \left( -\frac{\|F(i) - F(j)\|_2^2}{\sigma^2} \right)$$

where $\sigma$ is a positive real number which affects the decreasing rate of $w$, and:

- $F(i) \equiv$ (normalized) intensity of pixel $i$, for intensity segmentation
- $F(i) = [v, vs \sin(h), vs \cos(h)](i)$, where $h, s, v$ are the HSV values of pixel $i$, for color segmentation
- $F(i) = [|I * f_1|, \ldots, |I * f_k|](i)$ is a vector based on texture information at pixel $i$, the $f_i$ being DOOG filters at various scales and orientations, for texture segmentation
Intensity Segmentation

Use Dominant set framework to cluster pixels into coherent segments
Affinity based on intensity/color/texture similarity
Intensity Segmentation

Felzenszwalb and Huttenlocher (2003).
Intensity Segmentation

Intensity Segmentation

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; TPAMI 2007
Color Segmentation

Original image  Dominant sets  Ncut

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; TPAMI 2007
Texture Segmentation

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; TPAMI 2007
Texture Segmentation

(a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g) (h)

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; TPAMI 2007
Out-of sample Segmentation

Pairwise clustering has problematic scaling behavior

Subsample the pixels and assigning out-of-sample pixels after the clustering process has taken place

Recall that the sign of $w_{SU\{i\}}(i)$ provides an indication as to whether $i$ is tightly or loosely coupled with the vertices in $S'$.

Accordingly, we use the following rule for predicting cluster membership of unseen data $i$:

$$\text{if } w_{SU\{i\}}(i) > 0, \text{ then assign vertex } i \text{ to cluster } S'. \text{ }$$

Can be computed in linear time w.r.t. the size of $S$
Intensity Segmentation

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; NIPS 2004
Color Segmentation

M. Pavan and M. Pelillo; NIPS 2004
Alternative Approach

Recall that the probability of a surviving strategy at equilibrium is related to the centrality of the element to the cluster

Use the element with higher probability as a class prototype

Assign new elements to the class with the most similar prototype

Constant time w.r.t. the size of the clusters
Ideal for very large datasets (video)
Video Segmentation

A. Torsello, M. Pavan, and M. Pelillo; EMMCVPR 2005
Hierarchical segmentation and integration of boundary information

- Integrate boundary information into pixel affinity
- Key idea:
  - Define a regularizer based on edge response
  - Use it to impose a scale space on dominant sets
- Assume random walk from pixel to pixel that is more likely to move along rather than across edges

$$\gamma(i, j) = \begin{cases} e^{-k\frac{\nabla I_i + \nabla I_j}{2}} & \text{if } (i, j) \in E_M \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

- Let $L$ be the Laplacian of the edge-response mesh with weight $\gamma$
- A lazy random walk is a stochastic process that once in node $i$ it moves to node $j$ with probability
Diffusion Kernel

A. Torsello and M. Pelillo; EMMCVPR 2009
Regularized Quadratic Program

- Define the regularized quadratic program

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad f_t(x) = x' \left[ A - \alpha_t \left( I - e^{-Lt} \right) \right] x \\
\text{subject to} & \quad x \in \Delta
\end{align*}
\]

- Proposition: Let \( \lambda_1(A), \lambda_2(A), \ldots, \lambda_n(A) \) represent the largest, second largest, ..., smallest eigenvalue of matrix \( A \)

If

\[
\alpha_t > \frac{\lambda_1(A)}{1 - e^{-\lambda_{n-1}(A) t}}
\]

then \( f_t \) is a strictly concave function in \( \Delta \).

Further, if

\[
\alpha_t > \frac{n \lambda_1(A)}{1 - e^{-\lambda_{n-1}(A) t}}
\]

the only solution of the regularized quadratic program belongs to the interior of \( \Delta \).
Selection of relevant scales

• How do we chose the $\alpha$ at which to separate the levels?
• A good choice should be stable: cohesiveness should not change much.

• Consider the entropy of the selected cluster

\[ H(x) = - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \log x_i \]

  – It is a measure of the size and compactness of the cluster

• Cut on plateaus of the entropy
Hierarchical Segments

A. Torsello and M. Pelillo; EMMCVPR 2009
Hierarchical Segments

A. Torsello and M. Pelillo; EMMCVPR 2009
References

Medical Image Analysis
Analysis of fMRI images

Problems

- detect coherent subregions in cortical areas on the basis of similarities between fMRI time series
- Localization of activation foci, i.e., functional networks related to a specific cognitive task
Experimental Setup

Patient assigned a word matching Stroop task

This task requires a subject to respond to a particular stimulus dimension while a competing stimulus dimension has to be suppressed.

Top row answers: NO

Bottom row answers: YES

Brain response is tracked through time
Parcellation is the process of subdividing a ROI into functional subregions.

Apply replicator equation on the matrix of correlation of each voxel time-series.

Extract clusters that form connected and compact components.

Results are consistent with brain physiology.
Within-Subject Variability

Inter- and intra-subject variability is low
Meta-Analysis: Recognition of Networks

The reconstruction of functional networks require the analysis of co-activation of foci

1. Extract foci from activation maxima
2. Computation of co-activation maxima
Activated Foci

Activation foci are calculated from the list of activation maxima.
Dominant Networks

Use replicator equation on co-activation matrix to extract co-activated foci which form
References


Content-Based Image Retrieval

Content-Based Image Retrieval

Content-based image retrieval focus on searching images in database similar to the query image.

There exists a semantic gap between the limited descriptive power of low-level visual features and high-level concepts.

Relevance feedback: Use user feedback to improve relevance of images retrieved from a query image.
Approach

1. Use feature vector distance for initial query image
2. User labels into relevant ($I^+$) and irrelevant ($I^-$) sets
3. Construct training set $(g_i, y_i)$
   \[ y_i = \begin{cases} 
   +1 & \text{if } g_i \in I^+ \\
   -1 & \text{if } g_i \in I^- 
   \end{cases} \]
4. Train SVM to obtain distance $d(g)$ between features of relevant images and classifier surface
   \[ d(g) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i^* y_i K(g_n, g_i) + b^* \]
5. Rearrange distances $d(g)$ by descending order
6. Cluster images into similarity clusters with dominant sets and report in order of importance within each cluster
7. If further refinement necessary, repeat steps 2 to 7
   Dominant sets are used to reassess relevance order in the positive set (step 6)
Approach
Examples

No ds reassessment of order of positive examples
Examples

Order of positive examples reassessed through ds
Examples

No ds reassessment of order of positive examples
Order of positive examples reassessed through ds
Precision and Recall

![Precision and Recall Graphs](image)

- Left graph: Precision vs. Feedback times for SVM and DSC+SVM.
- Right graph: Recall vs. Feedback times for SVM and DSC+SVM.
Matching and Inlier Selection
Matching Problem

The matching problem is one of finding correspondences within a set of elements, or features.

Central to any recognition task where the object to be recognized is naturally divided into several parts.

Correspondences are allowed to compete with one another in a matching game, a non-cooperative game where:

- potential associations between the items to be matched correspond to strategies
- payoffs reflect the degree of compatibility between competing hypotheses

The solutions of the matching problem correspond to ESS’s (dominant sets in the association space).

The framework can deal with general many-to-many matching problems even in the presence of asymmetric compatibilities.
Matching game

Let O1 and O2 be the two sets of features that we want to match and \( A \subseteq O1 \times O2 \) the set of feasible associations that satisfy the unary constraints. Each feasible association represents a possible matching hypothesis.

Let \( C : A \times A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \) be a set of pairwise compatibilities that measure the support that one association gives to the other.

A submatch (or simply a match) is a set of associations, which satisfies the pairwise feasibility constraints, and two additional criteria:

- High internal compatibility, i.e. the associations belonging to the match are mutually highly compatible
- Low external compatibility, i.e. associations outside the match are scarcely compatible with those inside.

The proposed approach generalizes the association graph technique described by Barrow and Burstall to continuous structural constraints.
Properties of Matching Games

Domain-specific information is confined to the definition of the compatibility function.

We are able to deal with many-to-many, one-to-many, many-to-one and one-to-one relations incorporating any hard binary constraints with the compatibilities (setting them to 0)

Theorem: Consider a matching-game with compatibilities $C = (c_{ij})$ with $c_{ij} \geq 0$ and $c_{ii} = 0$. If $x \in \Delta$ is an ESS then $c_{ij} > 0$ for all $i$, $j \in \sigma(x)$
Matching Examples
Matching Examples
GT Matcher and Sparsity

The game-theoretic matcher deviates from the quadratic assignment tradition in that it is very selective: it limits to a cohesive set of association even if feasible associations might still be available.

The matcher is tuned towards low false positives rather than low false negatives such as quadratic assignment.

Quadratic assignment is greedy while the game theoretic matcher favours sparsity in the solutions.
Matching and Inlier selection

There is a domain in which this property is particularly useful: Inlier selection

When estimating a transformation acting on some data, we often need to find correspondences between observations before and after the transformation

Inlier selection is the process of selecting correspondences that are consistent with a single global transformation to be estimated even in the presence of several outlier observations

Examples of problems include surface registration or point-feature matching
Matching and Inlier selection

Typical matching strategies are based on random selection (RANSAC) or the use of local information such as feature descriptors. Global coherence checks are only introduced after a first estimation (filtering). Filtering approaches are not very robust w.r.t. outliers (or structured noise).

The game theoretic approach drives the selection of correspondences that satisfy a global compatibility criterion.
Estimation of Similarity Transformation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input images</th>
<th>SIFT features</th>
<th>Lowe (RANSAC)</th>
<th>GT matcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.jpg" alt="Image 1" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.jpg" alt="Image 2" /></td>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image13.jpg" alt="Image 13" /></td>
<td><img src="image14.jpg" alt="Image 14" /></td>
<td><img src="image15.jpg" alt="Image 15" /></td>
<td><img src="image16.jpg" alt="Image 16" /></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A. Albarelli, S. Rota-Bulò, A. Torsello, and M. Pelillo; ICCV 2009
Estimation of Similarity Transformation

A. Albarelli, S. Rota-Bulò, A. Torsello, and M. Pelillo; ICCV 2009
Surface Registration

Descriptors are used just to reduce the set of feasible associations $A$

Compatibilities are related to rigidity constraints (difference in distances between corresponding points)

No initial motion estimation required (coarse)

DARCES  Spin Images  GT matcher

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; CVPR 2010
Surface Registration

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; CVPR 2010
Surface Registration

![Graph showing final RMS error versus initial RMS error for different registration methods.](image-url)
Point-Matching for Multi-View Bundle Adjustment

Define (local) compatibility between candidate correspondences through a weak (affine) camera model.

We use the orientation and scale information in the feature descriptors to infer an affine transformation between the corresponding features. Correspondence imply transformation.

Two correspondences are compatible if they define similar transformations.

\[
\prod((a_1, a_2), (b_1, b_2)) = e^{-\lambda \max(|a_2 - a'_2|, |b_2 - b'_2|)}
\]
## Experiments

![Images of Dino and Temple sequences with keypoints highlighted.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Game-Theoretic</th>
<th>Bundler Keymatcher</th>
<th>Game-Theoretic</th>
<th>Bundler Keymatcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matches</td>
<td>14573</td>
<td>9245</td>
<td>25785</td>
<td>22317</td>
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<td>$c$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>$\leq 1$ pix</td>
<td>24.83</td>
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<td>$\leq 5$ pix</td>
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<td>45.1401</td>
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<tr>
<td>Avg.</td>
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<td>$\Delta \gamma$</td>
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<td>S. dev.</td>
<td>0.002948</td>
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<td>0.030681</td>
<td>0.014692</td>
<td>0.015442</td>
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<tr>
<td>Avg. levels</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9.27</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; 3DPVT 2010
# Experiments

![Ganesha stereo](image1)

## Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Game-Theoretic</th>
<th>Bundler Keymatcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>200</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>46</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\varepsilon \leq 1$ pix</td>
<td>98.2824</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\leq 5$ pix</td>
<td>1.7175</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>34.7716</td>
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<td>$\geq 5$ pix</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Avg.</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\Delta \gamma$</td>
<td>0.048076</td>
<td>0.078715</td>
<td>0.106485</td>
<td>0.117885</td>
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<tr>
<td>Levels</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Experiments

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; 3DPVT 2010

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello. Robust Game-Theoretic Inlier Selection for Bundle Adjustment. 3DPVT 2010.


Detection of Anomalous Behaviour and Selection of Discriminative Features
Representing Activities

Represents human activities as sequence of atomic actions

Divide sequences into fixed length pieces (n-grams)

Represent full actions as a bag of n-grams
Representing Activities

Common activities are found by extracting dominant sets from the set of bags of n-grams representing the actions.

Similarities between actions $A$ and $B$ is

$$\text{Sim}(A, B) = 1 - \sum_i k_i \frac{|h_i^A - h_i^B|}{h_i^A + h_i^B}$$

Anomalous events are those that do not fit any cluster.
Deciding the (Ab)Normality

Decide the (ab)normality of a new instance based on its closeness to the members of the closest activity-class

This is done with respect to the average closeness between all the members of the class

A new action $i$ is regular wrt the closest class $S$ if $w_S(i) > T$, where $T$ is learned from the training set
Example Activity Classification

Visualization of Discovered Activity Classes
In Loading Dock Environment

Un-Clustered Similarity Matrix
Clustered Similarity Matrix

R. Hamid et al. Artificial Intelligence 2009
Example Anomalous Activity

Fig. 14. Anomalous Activities - (a) shows a delivery vehicle leaving the loading dock with its back door still open. (b) shows an unusual number of people unloading a delivery vehicle. (c) shows a person cleaning the loading dock floor.
Selection of Discriminative Features

Adopt a similar approach to the selection of discriminative features among a large number of highly similar features.

Extract clusters of similar features and iteratively throw them away, leaving only uncommon and discriminative features.

Uses the fact that dominant set is not a partitioning scheme, but an unsupervised one-class classifier.
Application to Surface Registration

(a) First dimension  (b) Second dimension  (c) Third dimension
(d) First pass  (e) Second pass  (f) Third pass
Application to Surface Registration

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; ECCV 2010
Recognition with Textured Background
Recognition with Textured Background

A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, and A. Torsello; ICPR 2010
References


A. Albarelli, E. Rodolà, A. Cavallarin, and A. Torsello. Robust Figure Extraction on Textured Background: a Game-Theoretic Approach. To appear ICPR 2010.
Repeated Games and Online Learning
Repeated Games

Previous assumptions:
- players had complete knowledge of the game
- the game was played only once

What happens if the payoffs are not known, but the game can be repeated?
Can a player learn a good strategy from the past plays?
Repeated Games

Previous approach:
- just compute an optimal/equilibrium strategy

Another approach:
- learn how to play a game by playing it many times, and updating your strategy based on experience

Why?
- Some of the game’s utilities (especially the other players’) may be unknown to you
- The other players may not be playing an equilibrium strategy
- Computing an optimal strategy can be hard
- Learning is what humans typically do
Iterated Prisoner's Dilemma

Prisoner's dilemma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Player 1</th>
<th>defect</th>
<th>cooperate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>defect</td>
<td>-10,-10</td>
<td>-1,-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cooperate</td>
<td>-25,-1</td>
<td>-3,-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What strategies should one apply?
Can I adapt to a player willing to cooperate and cooperate myself?

Although the Prisoner's dilemma has only one Nash equilibrium (everyone defect), cooperation can be sustained in the repeated Prisoner's dilemma if the players are interested enough in future outcomes of the game to take some loss in early plays.
Tit for Tat

It was first introduced by Anatol Rapoport in Robert Axelrod's two tournaments, held around 1980. Although extremely simple it won both.

An agent using this strategy will initially cooperate, then respond in kind to an opponent's previous action: If the opponent previously was cooperative, the agent is cooperative. If not, the agent is not.

Properties
1. Unless provoked, the agent will always cooperate
2. If provoked, the agent will retaliate
3. The agent is quick to forgive
4. The agent must have a good chance of competing against the opponent more than once.

Note: used by BitTorrent to optimize download speed. (optimistic chocking)
Fictitious Play

One widely used model of learning is the process of fictitious play and its variants. (G.W. Brown 1951).

In it, each player presumes that her/his opponents are playing stationary (possibly mixed) strategies.

In this process, agents behave as if they think they are facing an unknown but stationary (possibly mixed) distribution of opponents strategies.

The players choose their actions in each period to maximize that period’s expected payoff given their assessment of the distribution of opponent’s actions.

The assessment is based on the observed frequencies of the other players past strategies.

At each round, each player thus best responds to the empirical frequency of play of his opponent.
Convergence of Fictitious Play

Such a method is of course adequate if the opponent indeed uses a stationary strategy, while it is flawed if the opponent's strategy is non-stationary. The opponent's strategy may for example be conditioned on the fictitious player's last move.

One key question about fictitious play is whether or not this play converges

- if it does, then the stationarity assumption employed by players makes sense, at least asymptotically
- if it does not, then it seems implausible that players will maintain that assumption
Convergence of Fictitious Play

Convergence properties of Fictitious Play

- If $s$ is a strict Nash equilibrium, and $s$ is played at time $t$ in the process of fictitious play, $s$ is played at all subsequent times. (strict Nash equilibria are absorbing)

- Any pure strategy steady state of fictitious play must be a Nash equilibrium

- If the empirical distributions over each player's choices converge, the strategy profile corresponding to the product of these distributions is a Nash equilibrium

- The empirical distributions converge if the game is zero-sum (Miyasawa 1961) or solvable by iterated strict dominance (Nachbar, 1990)
Convergence of Fictitious Play

Fictitious play might not converge (Shapley 1964)

Modified Rock-Scissors-Paper

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Player 2</th>
<th>Rock</th>
<th>Scissors</th>
<th>Paper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rock</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>0,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scissors</td>
<td>0,1</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>1,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>0,1</td>
<td>0,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

if the players start by choosing (Rock, Scissors), the play will cycle indefinitely.
Sequential Prediction

In a sequential prediction problem a predictor (or forecaster) observes a sequence of symbols

\[ s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots \]

each time \( t = 1, 2, \ldots \), before the \( t \)th symbol of the sequence is revealed, the forecaster guesses its value \( s_t \) on the basis of the previous \( t-1 \) observations.

**GOAL:** limit the number of prediction mistakes without making any statistical assumptions on the way the data sequence is generated
Stationary Stochastic Process

In the classical statistical learning theory, the sequence of outcomes, is assumed to be a realization of a stationary stochastic process.

Statistical properties of the process, and effective prediction rules are estimated on the basis of past observations.

In such a setup, the risk of a prediction rule may be defined as the expected value of some loss function.

Different rules are compared based on their risk.
Game against the Environment

We want to abandon the idea of a stationary stochastic process in favor of an unknown (even adversarial) mechanism.

The **forecaster** plays a game against the **environment**, which can, in principle, respond to the forecaster's previous predictions.

The goal of the forecaster is to maximize the payoff associated with his predictions.

The goal of the environment is to minimize the forecaster's payoff.
Learning with Experts

Without a probabilistic model, the notion of risk cannot be defined.

There is no obvious baseline against which to measure the forecaster’s performance.

We provide such baseline by introducing reference forecasters, also called experts.
Experts

At time $t$ experts provide an advice in the form of a vector $s_t = (s_{1,t}, \ldots, s_{n,t})^T$ of predicted symbols.

Think of experts as classifiers, observing the environment and giving a prediction.

Experts are not perfect (each expert can be wrong on any observation).

We want to get good prediction (high payoff) based on expert advice.

A good prediction is consistent with the performance of the best experts.
The forecaster does not have
• knowledge of the game (payoff function)
• knowledge of the environment's strategy profile

The forecaster knows the payoffs received by each strategy against each previous play of the environment

However the knowledge is based on the actual pure strategies selected by the environment, not its strategy profile
Prediction Game

The game is played repeatedly in a sequence of rounds.

1. The **environment** chooses mixed strategy $y_t'$, and plays (pure) strategy $y_t$ according to the distribution $y_t'$

2. The **experts** provide their predictions

3. The **forecaster** chooses an expert according to mixed strategy $x_t$

The **forecaster** is permitted to observe the payoff $u_1(e_i, y_t)$ that is, the payoff it would have obtained had it played following pure strategy (expert) $i$
Prediction Game

The goal of the forecaster is to do almost as well as the best expert against the actual sequence of plays $y_1, \ldots, y_T$

That is, the cumulative payoff

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} u_1(x_t, y_t)$$

Should not be “much worse” that the best (mixed) expert in hindsight

$$\max_x \sum_{t=1}^{T} u_1(x, y_t)$$
Learnability

There are two main questions regarding this prediction game

1. Is there a solution? I.e., is there a strategy that will work even in this adversarial environment?

2. Can we learn such solution based on the previous plays?
Minimax and Learnability

The environment's goal is to minimize the forecaster's payoff

Zero-sum two player game

We are within the hypotheses of the Minimax theorem

There exists a strategy $x$ such that

$$\forall y \in \Delta, u_1(x, y) \geq v$$

The value $v$ is the best the forecaster can be guaranteed since there exists a strategy $y$ such that

$$\forall x \in \Delta, u_1(x, y) \leq v$$

Moreover, $(x,y)$ is a Nash equilibrium
Regret

We define the **external regret** of having played strategy sequence $x=(x_1, ..., x_T)$ w.r.t. expert $e$ as the loss in payoff we incurred in by not having followed $e$'s advice

$$R_e(x) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} u_1(e, y_t) - u_1(x_t, y_t)$$

The learner's goal is to minimize the maximum regret w.r.t. any expert.
Minimax and Learnability

If the forecaster predicts according to a Nash equilibrium $x$, he is guaranteed a payoff $v$ even against and adversarial environment.

Theorem: Let $G$ be a zero-sum game with value $v$. If the forecaster plays for $T$ steps a procedure with external regret $R$, then its average payoff is at least $v - R/T$.

Algorithm can thus seek to minimize the external regret.
Regret-Based Learning

Assume \{0,1\} utilities, and let consider loss \( L(x,y)=1-u(x,y) \) rather than utility \( u(x,y) \)

Greedy algorithm
The greedy algorithm at each time \( t \) selects the (mixed) strategy \( x \) that, if played for the first \( t-1 \) plays, would have given the minimum regret

The greedy algorithm's loss is

\[
L_G \leq NL_{\text{min}} + (N - 1)
\]

where \( L_{\text{min}} \) is the loss incurred by the best expert

No deterministic algorithm can obtain a better ratio than \( N! \)
Weighted Majority Forecaster

The idea is to assign weights $w_i$ to expert $i$ that reflect its past performance, and pick an expert with probability proportional to its weight.

Randomized Weighted Majority (RWM) Algorithm
Initially: $w_i = 1$ and $p_i = 1/N$, for $i=1,...,n$.
At time $t$: If $L_t = 1$ let $w_t = w_{t-1}(1 - \eta)$; else $w_t = w_{t-1}$
Use mixed profile
$$\frac{1}{\sum_i w_i} (w_1, \ldots, w_n)$$

Randomized Weighted Majority achieves loss
$$L_{RWM} \leq (1 + \eta) L_{min} + \frac{\log(N)}{\eta}$$
Experts and Boosting

In general experts can be any (weak) predictor/classifier

Finding an optimal strategy over expert advices is equivalent to finding an optimal combination of classifiers

Boosting is the problem of converting a weak learning algorithm that performs just slightly better than random guessing into one that performs with arbitrarily good accuracy

Boosting works by running the weak learning algorithm many times on many distributions, and to combine the selected hypotheses into a final hypothesis
Boosting

(Y. Freund and R. E. Schapire, 1996)

Boosting proceeds in rounds alternating

1. The booster constructs a distribution $p^{(k)}$ on the sample space $X$ and passes it to the weak learner
2. The weak learner produces an hypothesis $h^{(k)} \in H$ with error at most $\frac{1}{2} - \gamma$;

After $T$ rounds the hypotheses $h^{(1)},...,h^{(T)}$ are combined into a final hypothesis $h$

Main questions

- How do we chose $p^{(k)}$?
- How do we combine the hypotheses?
Boosting and Games

Define a two player game where

- the booster's strategies are related to the possible samples
- the weak learner's strategies are the available hypotheses
- The booster's payoff is defined as follows:

\[
u(x_i, h_j) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } h_j(x_i) = c(x_i) \\
1 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

The booster's goal is to feed a bad distributions to the weak learner.

Due to the minimax theorem we have

\[u(x, h^*) = \Pr_{h \sim h^*} (h(x) \neq c(x)) \leq v \leq 1/2 - \gamma \leq 1/2\]

**Less than half of the hypotheses are wrong!**

Combine them by weighted majority (weighted according to \(h^*)\)
Boosting and Games

Alternate the game

1. The weak learner returns a guaranteed optimal hypothesis \( h_t \) satisfying

\[
\Pr_{x \sim p(t-1)^*} (h_t(x) = c(x)) \geq 1/2 + \gamma
\]

2. The booster responds by using randomized weighted majority approach to compute distribution \( p_t^* \) over samples

After \( T \) repetitions, the boosted hypothesis \( h^* \) on a new sample \( x \) is obtained by majority voting among \( h_1(x), \ldots, h_T(x) \)
References


