
Mixability is Bayes Risk Curvature Relative to Log Loss

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Abstract

Mixability of a loss governs the best possible performance when aggregating expert predictions with respect to that loss. The determination of the mixability constant for binary losses is straightforward but opaque. In the binary case we make this transparent and simpler by characterising mixability in terms of the second derivative of the Bayes risk of proper losses. We then extend this result to multiclass proper losses where there are few existing results. We show that mixability is governed by the Hessian of the Bayes risk, relative to the Hessian of the Bayes risk for log loss. We conclude by comparing our result to other work that bounds prediction performance in terms of the geometry of the Bayes risk.

1 Introduction

Mixability is a property of a loss function that governs the performance of an aggregating forecaster in the prediction with of experts setting. The notion is due to Vovk (1990, 1995). Extensions to mixability were presented by Kalnishkan and Vyugin (2002b). The motivation for studying mixability is summarised below (this summary is based on the presentation of Kalnishkan and Vyugin (2008)).¹

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, n\}$ be the outcome space. We will consider a prediction game where the loss of the learner making predictions $v_1, v_2, \dots \in \mathcal{V}$ is measured by a loss function $\ell: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ cumulatively: for $T \in \mathbb{N}$, $\text{Loss}(T) := \sum_{t=1}^T \ell(y_t, v_t)$, where $y_1, y_2, \dots \in \mathcal{Y}$ are outcomes. The learner has access to predictions v_t^i , $t = 1, 2, \dots$, $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ generated by N experts $\mathcal{E}_1, \dots, \mathcal{E}_N$ that attempt to predict the same sequence. The goal of the learner is to predict nearly as well as the best expert. A *merging strategy* $\mathcal{M}: \bigcup_{t=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{Y}^t \times (\mathcal{V}^N)^t) \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ takes the outcomes y_1, \dots, y_{t-1} and predictions v_s^i , $i = 1, \dots, N$ for times $s = 1, \dots, t$ and outputs an aggregated prediction $v_t^{\mathcal{M}}$, incurring loss $\ell(y_t, v_t^{\mathcal{M}})$ when y_t is revealed. After T rounds, the loss of \mathcal{M} is $\text{Loss}_{\mathcal{M}}(T) = \sum_{t=1}^T \ell(y_t, v_t^{\mathcal{M}})$. The loss of expert \mathcal{E}_i is $\text{Loss}_{\mathcal{E}_i}(T) = \sum_{t=1}^T \ell(y_t, v_t^i)$. When \mathcal{M} is the aggregating algorithm (Vovk, 1995), β -mixability (see Section 3 for the definition) implies for all $t \in \mathbb{N}$, all $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$,

$$\text{Loss}_{\mathcal{M}}(t) \leq \text{Loss}_{\mathcal{E}_i}(t) + \frac{\ln N}{\beta}. \quad (1)$$

Conversely, if ℓ is not β -mixable for any $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$, then it is not possible to predict as well as the best expert up to an additive constant using any merging strategy.

¹Kalnishkan and Vyugin (2008) denote mixability by $\bar{\beta} \in (0, 1)$; we use $\beta = -\log \bar{\beta} \in (0, \infty)$.

Thus determining β_ℓ (the largest β such that ℓ is β -mixable) is equivalent to precisely bounding the prediction error of the aggregating algorithm. The mixability of several binary losses and the Brier score in the multiclass case (Vovk and Zhdanov, 2009) is known. However a general characterisation of β_ℓ in terms of other key properties of the loss has been missing. The present paper shows how β_ℓ depends upon the curvature of the conditional Bayes risk for ℓ when ℓ is a strictly proper continuously differentiable multiclass loss (see Theorem 10).

We use the following notation throughout. Let $[n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$ and \mathbb{R}_+ the non-negative reals. The transpose of a vector x is x' . If x is a n -vector, $A = \text{diag}(x)$ is the $n \times n$ matrix with entries $A_{i,i} = x_i$, $i \in [n]$ and $A_{i,j} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. We also write $\text{diag}(x_i)_{i=1}^n := \text{diag}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \text{diag}((x_1, \dots, x_n)')$. The inner product of two n -vectors x and y is denoted by matrix product $x'y$. We sometimes write $A \cdot B$ for the matrix product AB for clarity when required. The n -simplex $\Delta^n := \{x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)' \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_i \geq 0, i \in [n], \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1\}$. Other notation is defined in Appendix A which also includes several matrix calculus results we use.

2 Proper Multiclass Losses

We consider multiclass losses for class probability estimation. A *loss function* $\ell : \Delta^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^n$ assigns a loss vector $\ell(q) = (\ell_1(q), \dots, \ell_n(q))$ to each distribution $q \in \Delta^n$ where $\ell_i(q)$ ($= \ell(i, q)$ traditionally) is the penalty for predicting q when outcome $i \in [n]$ occurs.² If the outcomes are distributed with probability $p \in \Delta^n$ then the *risk* for predicting q is just the expected loss $L(p, q) := p'\ell(q) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \ell_i(q)$. The *Bayes risk* for p is the minimal achievable risk for that outcome distribution, $\underline{L}(p) := \inf_{q \in \Delta^n} L(p, q)$. We say that a loss is *proper* whenever the minimal risk is always achieved by predicting the true outcome distribution, that is, $\underline{L}(p) = L(p, p)$ for all $p \in \Delta^n$. We say a proper loss is *strictly proper* if there exists no $q \neq p$ such that $L(p, q) = \underline{L}(p)$.

Proper losses are defined only on Δ^n which is a $(n-1)$ -dimensional submanifold of \mathbb{R}_+^n . In order to define the derivatives we will need, it is necessary to project down onto $n-1$ dimensions. Let $\Pi_\Delta : \Delta^n \rightarrow \tilde{\Delta}^n$ denote the projection of the n -simplex Δ^n onto its “bottom”, denoted $\tilde{\Delta}^n$. That is, $\Pi_\Delta(p) := (p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}) =: \tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n$ is the projection of p onto its first $n-1$ coordinates. Similarly, we will project ℓ 's image $\Lambda := \ell(\Delta^n)$ using $\Pi_\Lambda(\lambda) := (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{n-1})$ for $\lambda \in \Lambda$ with range denoted $\tilde{\Lambda}$. Since $p_n = p_n(\tilde{p}) := 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \tilde{p}_i$ we see that Π_Δ is invertible. Specifically, $\Pi_\Delta^{-1}(\tilde{p}) = (\tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{n-1}, p_n(\tilde{p}))$. Thus, any function of p can be expressed as a function of \tilde{p} . In particular, given a loss $\ell : \Delta^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ we can write $\ell(\tilde{p}) = \ell(\Pi_\Delta^{-1}(\tilde{p}))$ for $\tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n$ and use $\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) := \Pi_\Lambda(\ell(\tilde{p}))$ to denote its projection onto its first $n-1$ coordinates (see Figure 1).

As it is central to our results, we assume all losses are proper and suitably continuously differentiable for the remainder of the paper. We will additionally assume strict properness whenever we require the Hessian of the Bayes risk to be invertible (see Lemma 5).

Lemma 1 *A continuously differentiable (strictly) proper loss ℓ has (strictly) concave Bayes risk \underline{L} and a risk L that satisfies the stationarity condition: for each p in the relative interior of Δ^n we have $p'D\ell(p) = 0$. Furthermore, ℓ and Π_Λ are invertible and for all $p \in \Delta^n$, the vector p is normal to the surface $\Lambda = \ell(\Delta^n)$ at $\ell(p)$.*

Proof: The Bayes risk $\underline{L}(p)$ is the infimum of a set of linear functions $p \mapsto p'\ell(q)$ and thus concave. Each linear function is tangent to $\ell(\Delta^n)$ at a single point when ℓ is strictly proper and so \underline{L} is strictly concave. Properness guarantees that for all $p, q \in \Delta^n$ we have $p'\ell(p) \leq p'\ell(q)$ so the function $L_p : q \mapsto p'\ell(q)$ has a minima at $p = q$ and so $D L_p(q) = p'D\ell(q) = 0$ when $q = p$, giving stationarity. Since for every $p \in \Delta^n$, $p'D\ell(p) = 0$ we see p is orthogonal to the tangent

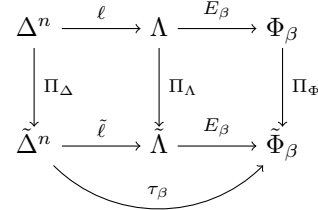


Figure 1: Mappings and spaces.

²Technically, we should allow $\ell(p) = \infty$ to allow for log loss. However, we are only concerned with the behaviour of ℓ in the relative interior of Δ^n and use Δ^n in that sense.

space of Λ at $\ell(p)$ and thus normal to Λ at $\ell(p)$. Now suppose there exist $p, q \in \Delta^n$ such that $\ell(p) = \ell(q)$. Since we have just shown that p and q must both be normal to Λ at $\ell(p) = \ell(q)$ and as ℓ is assumed to be continuously differentiable, it must be the case the normals are co-linear, that is, $p = \alpha q$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. However, since $p \in \Delta^n$, $1 = \sum_i p_i = \alpha \sum_i q_i = \alpha$ and thus $p = q$, showing ℓ is invertible.

In order to establish that Π_Λ is invertible we proceed by contradiction and assume ℓ is proper and there exist $p, q \in \Delta^n$ s.t. $\ell_i(p) = \ell_i(q)$ for $i \in [n-1]$ but $\ell_n(p) \neq \ell_n(q)$. Without loss of generality assume $\ell_n(p) < \ell_n(q)$ (otherwise just swap p and q). This means that $q'\ell(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n q_i \ell_i(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} q_i \ell_i(p) + q_n \ell_n(p) < q'\ell(q)$. However, this contradicts properness of ℓ and therefore the assumption that $\ell_n(p) \neq \ell_n(q)$. \blacksquare

3 Mixability

We use the following characterisation of mixability (as discussed by Vovk and Zhdanov (2009)) and motivate our main result by looking at the binary case. To define mixability we need the notions of a superprediction set and a parametrised exponential operator. The *superprediction set* S_ℓ for a loss $\ell : \Delta^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is the set of points in \mathbb{R}^n that point-wise dominate some point on the loss surface. That is,

$$S_\ell := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists q \in \Delta^n, \forall i \in [n], \ell_i(q) \leq \lambda_i\}.$$

The β -exponential operator is defined for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by $E_\beta(\lambda) := (e^{-\beta\lambda_1}, \dots, e^{-\beta\lambda_n})$. It is clearly invertible, with inverse $E_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = -\beta^{-1}(\ln \phi_1, \dots, \ln \phi_n)$. A loss ℓ is β -mixable when the set $\Phi_\beta := E_\beta(S_\ell)$ is convex. The *mixability constant* β_ℓ of a loss ℓ is the largest β such that ℓ is β -mixable:

$$\beta_\ell := \sup\{\beta > 0 : \ell \text{ is } \beta\text{-mixable}\}.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} E_\beta(S_\ell) &= \{E_\beta(\lambda) : \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n, \exists q \in \Delta^n, \forall i \in [n], \ell_i(q) \leq \lambda_i\} \\ &= \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists q \in \Delta^n, \forall i \in [n], e^{-\beta\ell_i(q)} \geq z_i\}, \end{aligned}$$

since $x \mapsto e^{-\beta x}$ is decreasing for $\beta > 0$. Hence in order for Φ_β to be convex the function f such that $\text{graph}(f) = \{(e^{-\beta\ell_1(q)}, \dots, e^{-\beta\ell_n(q)}) : q \in \Delta^n\}$ needs to be *concave*.

3.1 The Binary Case

For twice differentiable binary losses ℓ it is known (Haussler et al., 1998) that

$$\beta_\ell = \min_{\tilde{p} \in [0,1]} \frac{\tilde{\ell}'_1(\tilde{p})\tilde{\ell}''_2(\tilde{p}) - \tilde{\ell}''_1(\tilde{p})\tilde{\ell}'_2(\tilde{p})}{\tilde{\ell}'_1(\tilde{p})\tilde{\ell}'_2(\tilde{p})(\tilde{\ell}'_2(\tilde{p}) - \tilde{\ell}'_1(\tilde{p}))}. \quad (2)$$

When a proper binary loss ℓ is differentiable, the stationarity condition implies

$$w(\tilde{p}) = w_\ell(\tilde{p}) = \frac{\tilde{\ell}'_2(\tilde{p})}{1 - \tilde{p}} = \frac{\tilde{\ell}'_1(\tilde{p})}{\tilde{p}}, \quad (3)$$

where the *weight function* $w_\ell(\tilde{p}) := -\tilde{\ell}''(\tilde{p}) \geq 0$ (see Reid and Williamson (2009)). Equation 3 implies $\tilde{\ell}'_2(\tilde{p}) = (\tilde{p} - 1)w(\tilde{p})$, $\tilde{\ell}'_1(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}w(\tilde{p})$ and hence $\tilde{\ell}''_2(\tilde{p}) = w(\tilde{p}) + (\tilde{p} - 1)w'(\tilde{p})$ and $\tilde{\ell}''_1(\tilde{p}) = w(\tilde{p}) + \tilde{p}w'(\tilde{p})$. Substituting these expressions into (2) gives

$$\beta_\ell = \min_{\tilde{p} \in [0,1]} \frac{\tilde{p}w(\tilde{p})[w(\tilde{p}) + (\tilde{p} - 1)w'(\tilde{p})] - [w(\tilde{p}) + \tilde{p}w'(\tilde{p})](\tilde{p} - 1)w(\tilde{p})}{\tilde{p}w(\tilde{p})(\tilde{p} - 1)w(\tilde{p})[(\tilde{p} - 1)w(\tilde{p}) - \tilde{p}w(\tilde{p})]} = \min_{\tilde{p} \in [0,1]} \frac{1}{\tilde{p}(1 - \tilde{p})w(\tilde{p})}.$$

Observing that $L_{\log}(p) = -p_1 \log p_1 - p_2 \log p_2$ we have $\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) = -\tilde{p} \log \tilde{p} - (1 - \tilde{p}) \log(1 - \tilde{p})$ and thus $\tilde{L}_{\log}''(\tilde{p}) = \frac{-1}{\tilde{p}(1-\tilde{p})}$ and so $w_{\log}(\tilde{p}) = \frac{1}{\tilde{p}(1-\tilde{p})}$. Thus

$$\beta_\ell = \min_{\tilde{p} \in [0,1]} \frac{w_{\log}(\tilde{p})}{w_\ell(\tilde{p})} = \min_{\tilde{p} \in [0,1]} \frac{L_{\log}''(\tilde{p})}{\underline{L}''(\tilde{p})}. \quad (4)$$

That is, the mixability constant of binary proper losses is the minimal ratio of the weight functions for log loss relative and the loss in question. The rest of this paper is devoted to the generalisation of (4) to the multiclass case. That there is a relationship between Bayes risk and mixability was also pointed out (in a less explicit form) by Kalnishkan et al. (2004).

3.2 Mixability and the Concavity of the function f_β

Our aim is to understand mixability in terms of other intrinsic properties of the loss function. In particular, we will relate mixability of a loss to the curvature of its Bayes risk surface. In order to do so, we need to be able to compute the curvature of the β -exponentiated superprediction set in order to determine when it is convex. This is done by first defining a function $f_\beta : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with hypograph $\text{hyp}(f_\beta) := \{(\tilde{\phi}, y) \in \mathbb{R}^n : y \leq f_\beta(\tilde{\phi})\}$ equal to $E_\beta(S_\ell)$ and then computing the curvature of f_β . Before we can define f_β we require certain properties of E_β and a mapping $\tau_\beta : \tilde{\Delta}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ defined by

$$\tau_\beta(\tilde{p}) := E_\beta(\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p})) = \left(e^{-\beta \tilde{\ell}_1(\tilde{p})}, \dots, e^{-\beta \tilde{\ell}_{n-1}(\tilde{p})} \right).$$

This takes a point \tilde{p} to a point $\tilde{\phi}$ which is the projection of $\phi = E_\beta(\ell(p))$ onto its first $n-1$ coordinates. The range of τ_β is denoted $\tilde{\Phi}_\beta$ (see Figure 1).³

Lemma 2 *Let $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and $\phi := E_\beta(\lambda)$. Then $E_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = -\beta^{-1}(\ln \phi_1, \dots, \ln \phi_n)$ and for all $\alpha \neq 0$, $E_{\alpha\beta}(E_\beta^{-1}(\phi)) = (\phi_1^\alpha, \dots, \phi_n^\alpha)$. The derivatives of E_β and its inverse satisfy $DE_\beta(\lambda) = -\beta \text{diag}(E_\beta(\lambda))$ and $DE_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = -\beta^{-1} [\text{diag}(\phi)]^{-1}$. The Hessian of E_β^{-1} is*

$$\text{HE}_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = \frac{1}{\beta} \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(\phi_1^{-2}, 0, \dots, 0) \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \phi_n^{-2}) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

When $\beta = 1$ and $\ell = \ell_{\log} := p \mapsto -(\ln p_1, \dots, \ln p_n)$ the map τ_1 is the identity map—that is, $\tilde{\phi} = \tau_1(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}$ —and $E_1^{-1}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{\ell}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$ is the (projected) log loss.

Proof: The results concerning inverses and derivatives follow immediately from the definitions. By (21) the Hessian $\text{HE}_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = D(DE_\beta^{-1}(\phi))$ and so

$$\text{HE}_\beta^{-1}(\phi) = D \left(\left(-\frac{1}{\beta} [\text{diag}(\phi)]^{-1} \right)' \right) = -\frac{1}{\beta} D \text{diag}(\phi_i^{-1})_{i=1}^n.$$

Let $h(\phi) = \text{diag}(\phi_i^{-1})_{i=1}^n$ and write $h(\phi) = F(g(\phi))$ where $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $F(\phi) = \text{diag}(\phi)$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $g(\phi) = (\phi_1^{-1}, \dots, \phi_n^{-1})'$. We have $f(\text{vec } \phi) = \text{vec } F(\phi) = (\phi_1, 0, \dots, 0; \dots; 0, \dots, 0, \phi_n)'$ which is a vector in \mathbb{R}^{n^2} . Now

$$Df(\text{vec } \phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(e_1^n) \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(e_n^n) \end{bmatrix}.$$

³We overload E_β^{-1} using it as both a map $\Lambda \rightarrow \Phi_\beta$ and from $\tilde{\Lambda} \rightarrow \tilde{\Phi}_\beta$. This should not cause confusion because the latter is simply a codimension 1 restriction of the former. Lemma 2 holds for n and $n-1$.

Furthermore $Dg(\phi) = \text{diag}(\phi_i^{-2})_{i=1}^n$. Thus by the chain rule

$$Dh(\phi) = Df(g(\phi)) \cdot Dg(\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(e_1) \cdot \text{diag}(-\phi_i^{-2})_{i=1}^n \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(e_n) \cdot \text{diag}(-\phi_i^{-2})_{i=1}^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(-\phi_1^{-2}, 0, \dots, 0) \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, -\phi_n^{-2}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

The result for $\beta = 1$ and ℓ_{\log} follows from $\tau_1(\tilde{p}) = E_1(\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p})) = (e^{-1 \cdot -\ln \tilde{p}_1}, \dots, e^{-1 \cdot -\ln \tilde{p}_{n-1}})$. \blacksquare

Lemma 3 *The map $\tilde{\ell} : \tilde{\Lambda} \rightarrow \tilde{\Delta}$ is invertible. Also, for all $\beta > 0$, the mapping $\tau_\beta : \tilde{\Delta}_n \rightarrow \tilde{\Phi}_\beta$ is invertible with inverse $\tau_\beta^{-1} = \tilde{\ell}^{-1} \circ E_\beta^{-1}$.*

Proof: By “diagram chasing” in Figure 1 we see that $\tilde{\ell}^{-1} = \Pi_\Lambda \circ \ell \circ \Pi_\Delta^{-1}$ and $\tau_\beta^{-1} = \Pi_\Delta \circ \ell^{-1} \circ E_\beta^{-1} \circ \Pi_\Phi^{-1}$ provided all the functions on the right hand sides exist. Π_Δ and ℓ exist by definition, Π_Δ^{-1} exists since $p_i(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}_i$ for $i \in [n-1]$ and $p_n(\tilde{p}) = 1 - \sum_i \tilde{p}_i$. The inverse ℓ^{-1} exists by Lemma 1 and E_β^{-1} by Lemma 2. Lastly, Π_Φ is invertible since we see $\Pi_\Phi = E_\beta \circ \Pi_\Lambda^{-1} \circ \tilde{E}_\beta^{-1}$ and \tilde{E}_β^{-1} clearly exists due to its form and Π_Λ^{-1} because of Lemma 1. \blacksquare

We can now define

$$f_\beta : \tilde{\Phi}_\beta \ni \tilde{\phi} \mapsto e^{-\beta \tilde{\ell}_n(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))} \in [0, \infty). \quad (6)$$

This can be thought of as the inverse of the projection of the β -exponentiated superprediction set $\tilde{\Phi}_\beta$ onto its first $n-1$ coordinates. That is, if $\phi \in \Phi_\beta$ and $\tilde{\phi} = \Pi_{\tilde{\Phi}_\beta}(\phi)$ then $\phi = (\tilde{\phi}_1, \dots, \tilde{\phi}_{n-1}, f_\beta(\tilde{\phi}))$. This function plays a central role in the remainder of this paper because it coincides with the boundary of the β -exponentiated superprediction set.

Lemma 4 *Let $\beta > 0$ and f_β be defined as in (6). Then $\text{hyp } f_\beta = \tilde{\Phi}_\beta$.*

Proof: We have $\phi = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n)' = (e^{-\beta \ell_1(\tilde{p})}, \dots, e^{-\beta \ell_n(\tilde{p})})'$. We express ϕ_n as a function of $\tilde{\phi} = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_{n-1})' = \tau_\beta(\tilde{p})$ using $\phi_n = e^{-\beta \ell_n(\tilde{p})} = e^{-\beta \ell_n(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))}$. Hence $\text{graph}(f_\beta) = \{(e^{-\beta \ell_1(p)}, \dots, e^{-\beta \ell_n(p)})' : p \in \Delta^n\}$. Since for $\beta > 0$, E_β is monotone decreasing in each argument, $\lambda_i \geq \ell_i(p)$ for all $i \in [n]$ implies $E_\beta(\lambda) \leq E_\beta(\ell(p))$ (coordinatewise). \blacksquare

3.3 Relating Concavity of f_β to Hessian of \underline{L}

The aim of this subsection is to express the Hessian of f_β in terms of the Bayes risk of the loss function defining f_β . We first note that a twice differentiable function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is concave if and only if its Hessian at x , $\text{H}f(x)$, is negative semi-definite for all $x \in X$ (Hiriart-Urruty and Lemaréchal, 1993). The argument that follows consists of repeated applications of the chain and inverse rules for Hessians to compute $\text{H}f_\beta$.

We rely on some consequences of the strict properness of ℓ that allow us to derive simple expressions for the Jacobian and Hessian of the projected Bayes risk $\tilde{\underline{L}} := \underline{L} \circ \Pi_\Delta^{-1} : \tilde{\Delta}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$.

Lemma 5 *Let $y(\tilde{p}) := -[p_n(\tilde{p})]^{-1} \tilde{p}$. Then $Y(\tilde{p}) := -p_n(\tilde{p}) \text{D}y(\tilde{p}) = \left(I_{n-1} + \frac{1}{p_n} \tilde{p} \mathbb{1}'_{n-1} \right)$ is invertible for all \tilde{p} , and*

$$\text{D}\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) = y(\tilde{p})' \cdot \text{D}\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}). \quad (7)$$

The projected Bayes risk function defined by $\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) := \underline{L}(\Pi_\Delta^{-1}(\tilde{p}))$ satisfies

$$\text{D}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{\ell}'(\tilde{p}) - \tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) \mathbb{1}'_{n-1} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) = Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot \text{D}\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}). \quad (9)$$

Furthermore, for strictly proper ℓ the matrix $\text{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})$ is negative definite and invertible for all \tilde{p} and when $\beta = 1$ and $\ell = \ell_{\log}$ is the log loss,

$$\text{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) = -Y(\tilde{p})' [\text{diag}(\tilde{p})]^{-1}. \quad (10)$$

Proof: The stationarity condition (Lemma 1) guarantees that $p'D\ell(p) = 0$ for all $p \in \Delta^n$. However, since $p = (\tilde{p}, p_n(\tilde{p}))$ and $\ell(p) = (\tilde{\ell}_1(\tilde{p}), \dots, \tilde{\ell}_{n-1}(\tilde{p}), \tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}))$ we have $\tilde{p}'D\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) + p_n D\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) = 0$ which can be rearranged to obtain the required result.

By the product rule,

$$\begin{aligned} Dy(\tilde{p}) &= -\tilde{p}D[p_n(\tilde{p})^{-1}] - [p_n(\tilde{p})^{-1}]D\tilde{p} \\ &= \tilde{p}[p_n(\tilde{p})^{-2}]Dp_n(\tilde{p}) - [p_n(\tilde{p})^{-1}]I_{n-1} \\ &= -\tilde{p}[p_n(\tilde{p})^{-2}]\mathbb{1}'_{n-1} - [p_n(\tilde{p})^{-1}]I_{n-1} \\ &= -\frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})} \left[I_{n-1} + \frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})}\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1} \right] \end{aligned}$$

since $p_n(\tilde{p}) = 1 - \sum_{i \in [n-1]} \tilde{p}_i$ implies $Dp_n(\tilde{p}) = -\mathbb{1}'_{n-1}$. This establishes that $Y(\tilde{p}) = -p_n(\tilde{p})Dy(\tilde{p})$. That this matrix is invertible can be easily checked since $(I_{n-1} - \tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1})(I_{n-1} + \tilde{p}^{-1}\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1}) = I_{n-1}$ by expanding and noting $\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1}\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1} = (1 - p_n)\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1}$.

The Bayes risk $\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}'\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) + p_n(\tilde{p})\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p})$. Taking the derivative and using the product rule ($Da'b = (Da')b + a'(Db)$) gives

$$\begin{aligned} D\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) &= D \left[\tilde{p}'\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) \right] + D \left[p_n(\tilde{p})\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) \right] \\ &= \tilde{\ell}'(\tilde{p}) + \tilde{p}'D\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) + [Dp_n(\tilde{p})]\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) + p_n(\tilde{p})D\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) \\ &= \tilde{\ell}'(\tilde{p}) - p_n(\tilde{p})D\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) + \tilde{\ell}_n\tilde{p}\mathbb{1}'_{n-1} + p_n(\tilde{p})D\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) \end{aligned}$$

by (7). Thus, $D\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{\ell}'(\tilde{p}) - \tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p})\mathbb{1}'_{n-1}$, establishing (8).

Equation 9 is obtained by taking derivatives once more and using (7) again, yielding

$$H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) = D \left(\left(D\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) \right)' \right) = D\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) - \mathbb{1}_{n-1} \cdot D\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) = \left(I_{n-1} + \frac{1}{p_n} \mathbb{1}_{n-1}\tilde{p}' \right) D\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p})$$

as required. Now $\tilde{L}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{L}(p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}, p_n(\tilde{p})) = \tilde{L}(p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}, 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i) = \underline{L}(C(p))$ where C is affine. Since $p \mapsto \underline{L}(p)$ is strictly concave (Lemma 1) it follows (Hiriart-Urruty and Lemaréchal, 1993) that \tilde{L} is also strictly concave and thus $H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})$ is negative definite. It is invertible since we have shown $Y(\tilde{p})$ is invertible and $D\tilde{\ell}$ is invertible by the inverse function theorem and the invertibility of $\tilde{\ell}$ (Lemma 3).

Finally, equation 10 holds since Lemma 2 gives us $E_1^{-1} = \tilde{\ell}_{\log}$ so (9) specialises to $H\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) = Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot D\tilde{\ell}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) = Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot DE_1^{-1}(\tilde{p}) = -Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot [\text{diag}(\tilde{p})]^{-1}$, also by Lemma 2. \blacksquare

3.4 Completion of the Argument

Recall that our aim is to compute the Hessian of the boundary of the β -exponentiated super-prediction set and determine when it is negative semidefinite. The boundary is described by the function f_β which can be written as the composition $h_\beta \circ g_\beta$ where $h_\beta : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ and $g_\beta : \tilde{\Phi}_\beta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ are defined by $h_\beta(z) := e^{-\beta z}$ and $g_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) := \tilde{\ell}_n(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))$. The Hessian of f_β can be expanded in terms of g_β using the chain rule for the Hessian (Theorem 13) as follows.

Lemma 6 For all $\tilde{\phi} \in \tilde{\Phi}$, the Hessian of f_β at $\tilde{\phi}$ is

$$Hf_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) = \beta e^{-\beta g_\beta(\tilde{\phi})} \Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi}), \quad (11)$$

where $\Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) := \beta Dg_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot Dg_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) - Hg(\tilde{\phi})$. Furthermore, for $\beta > 0$ the negative semi-definiteness of $Hf_\beta(\tilde{\phi})$ (and thus the concavity of f_β) is equivalent to the negative semi-definiteness of $\Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi})$.

Proof: Using $f := f_\beta$ and $g := g_\beta$ temporarily and letting $z = g(\tilde{\phi})$, the chain rule for \mathbf{H} gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}f(\tilde{\phi}) &= \left(I_1 \otimes \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi})' \right) \cdot (\mathbf{H}h_\beta(z)) \cdot \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi}) + (\mathbf{D}h_\beta(z) \otimes I_{n-1}) \cdot \mathbf{H}g(\tilde{\phi}) \\ &= \beta^2 e^{-\beta z} \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi}) - \beta e^{\beta z} \mathbf{H}g(\tilde{\phi}) \\ &= \beta e^{\beta g(\tilde{\phi})} \left[\beta \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi}) - \mathbf{H}g(\tilde{\phi}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

since $\alpha \otimes A = \alpha A$ for scalar α and matrix A and $\mathbf{D}h(z) = \mathbf{D}[\exp(-\beta z)] = -\beta e^{-\beta z}$ so $\mathbf{H}h(z) = \beta^2 e^{-\beta z}$. Whether $\mathbf{H}f \preceq$ depends only on Γ_β since $\beta e^{-\beta g(\tilde{\phi})}$ is positive for all $\beta > 0$ and $\tilde{\phi}$. \blacksquare

Lemma 7 For strictly proper ℓ and $\lambda := E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi})$ and $\tilde{p} := \tilde{\ell}^{-1}(\lambda)$,

$$\mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi}) = y(\tilde{p})' A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) \tag{12}$$

$$\mathbf{H}g(\tilde{\phi}) = -\frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})} A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \left[\beta \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) + Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \right] \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}), \tag{13}$$

where $A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) := \mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi})$.

Proof: By definition, $g(\tilde{\phi}) := \tilde{\ell}_n(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))$. Since $\tau_\beta^{-1} = \tilde{\ell}^{-1} \circ E_\beta^{-1}$ we have $g = \tilde{\ell}_n \circ \tilde{\ell}^{-1} \circ E_\beta^{-1}$. Thus, by Lemma 5 equation (7), the inverse function theorem, and chain rule we have

$$\mathbf{D}g(\tilde{\phi}) = \mathbf{D}\tilde{\ell}_n(\tilde{p}) \cdot \mathbf{D}\tilde{\ell}^{-1}(\lambda) \cdot \mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) = y(\tilde{p})' \mathbf{D}\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[\mathbf{D}\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p}) \right]^{-1} \cdot \left[\mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \right] = y(\tilde{p})' A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})$$

yielding (12). Since $\tilde{p} = \tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi})$ and $\mathbf{H}g = \mathbf{D}((\mathbf{D}g)')$ (see (21)), the chain and product rules give

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}g(\tilde{\phi}) &= \mathbf{D} \left[\left(\mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \right)' \cdot y \left(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \right) \right] \\ &= \left(y(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))' \otimes I_{n-1} \right) \cdot \mathbf{D} \left(\mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi})' \right) + \left(I_1 \otimes (\mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}))' \right) \cdot \mathbf{D} \left(y \left(\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \right) \right) \\ &= (y(\tilde{p})' \otimes I_{n-1}) \cdot \mathbf{H}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) + \left(\mathbf{D}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \right)' \cdot \mathbf{D}y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \mathbf{D}\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) \\ &= -\frac{\beta}{p_n(\tilde{p})} A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) \cdot \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) + A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \mathbf{D}y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \mathbf{D}\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}). \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

The first summand above is due to (5) and the fact that

$$\begin{aligned} (y \otimes I_{n-1}) \cdot \mathbf{H}E_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) &= \frac{1}{\beta} [y_1 I_{n-1}, \dots, y_{n-1} I_{n-1}] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(\phi_1^{-2}, 0, \dots, 0) \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \phi_{n-1}^{-2}) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} y_i \cdot I_{n-1} \cdot \text{diag}(0, \dots, 0, \phi_i^{-2}, 0, \dots, 0) \\ &= \frac{1}{\beta} \text{diag}(y_i \phi_i^{-2})_{i=1}^{n-1} \\ &= \frac{-\beta}{p_n(\tilde{p})} A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}). \end{aligned}$$

The last equality holds because $A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) = \beta^{-2} \text{diag}(\phi_i^{-2})_{i=1}^{n-1}$ by Lemma 2, the definition of $y(\tilde{p}) = -[p_n(\tilde{p})]^{-1} \tilde{p}$, and because all the matrices are diagonal and thus commute.

The second summand in (14) reduces by $Dy(\tilde{p}) = -\frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})}Y(\tilde{p})$ from Lemma 5 and $\tau_\beta = E_\beta \circ \tilde{\ell}$: $D\tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) = \left[DE_\beta(\lambda) \cdot D\tilde{\ell}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} = \left[DE_\beta(\lambda) \cdot (Y(\tilde{p})')^{-1} \cdot H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} = \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot DE_\beta^{-1}(\lambda)$. Substituting these into (14) gives

$$Hg(\tilde{\phi}) = -\frac{\beta}{p_n(\tilde{p})}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) \cdot \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) - \frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}),$$

which can be factored into the required result. \blacksquare

We can now use the last two lemmata to express the function Γ_β in terms of the Hessian of the Bayes risk functions for the specified loss ℓ and the log loss.

Lemma 8 *The matrix-valued function Γ_β satisfies, for all $\tilde{\phi} \in \tilde{\Phi}$ and $\tilde{p} = \tau_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi})$,*

$$\Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) = \frac{1}{p_n}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot Y(\tilde{p}) \left[\left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} - \beta \left[H\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \right] \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}), \quad (15)$$

and, for each $\tilde{\phi}$, is negative semi-definite if and only if $R(\beta, \ell, \tilde{p}) := \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} - \beta \left[H\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1}$ is negative semi-definite.

Proof: Substituting the values of Dg and Hg from Lemma 7 into the definition of Γ_β from Lemma 6 and then using Lemma 2 and the definition of $y(\tilde{p})$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) &= \beta A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot y(\tilde{p}) \cdot y(\tilde{p})' \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) + \frac{1}{p_n(\tilde{p})}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \left[\beta \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) + Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \right] \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) \\ &= \frac{1}{p_n}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \left[\beta \frac{1}{p_n}\tilde{p} \cdot \tilde{p}' + \beta \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) + Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \right] \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}). \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Using Lemma 5 we then see that

$$\begin{aligned} -Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' &= -Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[-Y(\tilde{p})' \text{diag}(\tilde{p})^{-1}\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \\ &= Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) \cdot (Y(\tilde{p})')^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \\ &= (I_{n-1} + \frac{1}{p_n}\mathbb{1}_{n-1}\tilde{p}') \cdot \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) \\ &= \text{diag}(\tilde{p}) + \frac{1}{p_n}\tilde{p} \cdot \tilde{p}'. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this for the appropriate terms in (16) gives

$$\Gamma_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) = \frac{1}{p_n}A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})' \cdot \left[Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' - \beta Y(\tilde{p}) \cdot \left[H\tilde{L}_{\log}(\tilde{p})\right]^{-1} \cdot Y(\tilde{p})' \right] \cdot A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})$$

which equals (15).

Since $\Gamma_\beta = [p_n]^{-1}BRB'$ where $B = A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})'Y(\tilde{p})$ and $R = R(\beta, \ell, \tilde{p})$ the definition of negative semi-definiteness and the positivity of p_n means we need to show that $\forall x : x'\Gamma_\beta x \leq 0 \iff \forall y : y'Ry \leq 0$. It suffices to show that B is invertible, since we can let $y = Bx$ to establish the equivalence. The matrix $A_\beta(\tilde{\phi})$ is invertible since, by definition, $A_\beta(\tilde{\phi}) = DE_\beta^{-1}(\tilde{\phi}) = -\beta^{-1}[\text{diag}(\tilde{\phi})]^{-1}$ by Lemma 2 and so has matrix inverse $-\beta \text{diag}(\tilde{\phi})$. The matrix $Y(\tilde{p})$ is invertible by Lemma 7 Thus, B is invertible as it is the product of two invertible matrices. \blacksquare

The above arguments result in a characterisation of the concavity of the function f_β (via its Hessian)—and hence the convexity of the β -exponentiated superprediction set—in terms of the Hessian of the Bayes risk function of the loss ℓ and the log loss ℓ_{\log} . As in the binary case (cf. (4)), this means we are now able to specify the mixability constant β_ℓ in terms of the curvature $H\tilde{L}$ of the Bayes risk for ℓ relative to the curvature $H\tilde{L}_{\log}$ of the Bayes risk for log loss.

Lemma 9 *The mixability constant β_ℓ of a twice differentiable strictly proper loss ℓ is*

$$\beta_\ell = \sup \left\{ \beta > 0 : \forall \tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n, \beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) \right\}, \quad (17)$$

where $\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) := \underline{L}(p)$ is the Bayes risk of ℓ and $\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}$ is the Bayes risk for the log loss.

Proof: By Lemma 6 and Lemma 8 we know $\mathbf{H}f_\beta(\tilde{p}) \preceq 0 \iff R(\beta, \ell, \tilde{p}) \preceq 0$. By Lemma 5, $\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \prec 0$ and $\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) \prec 0$ for all \tilde{p} and so we can use the fact that for positive definite matrices A and B we have $A \succcurlyeq B \iff B^{-1} \succcurlyeq A^{-1}$ (Horn and Johnson, 1985, Corollary 7.7.4). This means $R(\beta, \ell, \tilde{p}) \preceq 0 \iff \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})^{-1} \preceq \beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})^{-1} \iff \beta^{-1} \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) \preceq \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \iff \beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$. Therefore f_β is concave at \tilde{p} if and only if $\beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$. The mixability constant β_ℓ is defined in Section 3 to be the largest $\beta > 0$ such that the β -exponentiated superprediction set $E_\beta(S_\ell)$ is convex. This is equivalent to the function f_β being concave at all \tilde{p} . Thus, we have shown $\beta_\ell = \sup\{\beta > 0 : \forall \tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n, \beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})\}$ as required. \blacksquare

The mixability constant can also be expressed in terms of the maximal eigenvalue of the ‘‘ratio’’ of the Hessian matrices for the Bayes risk for log loss and the loss in question. In the following, $\lambda_i(A)$ will denote the i th largest (possibly repeated) eigenvalue of the $n \times n$ symmetric matrix A . That is, $\lambda_{\min}(A) := \lambda_1(A) \leq \lambda_2(A) \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n =: \lambda_{\max}(A)$ where each $\lambda_i(A)$ satisfies $|A - \lambda_i(A)I| = 0$.

Theorem 10 *The mixability constant β_ℓ for the strictly proper loss ℓ satisfies*

$$\beta_\ell = \min_{\tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n} \lambda_{\max} \left((\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}))^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) \right). \quad (18)$$

Proof: We define $C_\beta(\tilde{p}) := \beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) - \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$ and $\rho(\tilde{p}) := \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$ and for any fixed \tilde{p} , we first show that zero is an eigenvalue of $C_\beta(\tilde{p})$ if and only if β is an eigenvalue of $\rho(\tilde{p})$. This can be seen since $\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})$ is invertible (Lemma 5) so

$$\begin{aligned} |C_\beta(\tilde{p}) - 0I| = 0 &\iff |\beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) - \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})| = 0 \iff |\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})^{-1}| |\beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) - \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})| = 0 \\ &\iff \left| \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})^{-1} \cdot [\beta \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) - \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})] \right| = 0 \iff |\beta I - \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})| = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since a symmetric matrix is p.s.d. if and only if all its eigenvalues are non-negative it must be the case that if $\lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p})) \geq 0$ then $C_\beta(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq 0$ since every other eigenvalue is bigger than the minimum one. Conversely, if $C_\beta(\tilde{p}) \not\succeq 0$ then at least one eigenvalue must be negative, thus the smallest eigenvalue must be negative. Thus, $\lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p})) \geq 0 \iff C_\beta(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq 0$. Now define $\beta(\tilde{p}) := \sup\{\beta > 0 : C_\beta(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq 0\} = \sup\{\beta > 0 : \lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p})) \geq 0\}$. We show that for each \tilde{p} the function $\beta \mapsto \lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p}))$ is continuous and only has a single root. First, continuity is because the entries of $C_\beta(\tilde{p})$ are continuous in β for each \tilde{p} and eigenvalues are continuous functions of their matrix’s entries (Horn and Johnson, 1985, Appendix D). Second, as a function of its matrix arguments, the minimum eigenvalue λ_{\min} is known to be concave (Magnus and Neudecker, 1999, §11.6). Thus, for any fixed \tilde{p} , its restriction to the convex set of matrices $\{C_\beta(\tilde{p}) : \beta > 0\}$ is also concave in its entries and so in β . Since $C_0(\tilde{p}) = -\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p})$ is positive definite for every \tilde{p} (Lemma 5) we have $\lambda_{\min}(C_0(\tilde{p})) > 0$ and so, by the concavity of the map $\beta \mapsto \lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p}))$, there can be only one $\beta > 0$ for which $\lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p})) = 0$ and by continuity it must be largest non-negative one, that is, $\beta(\tilde{p})$.

Thus $\beta(\tilde{p}) = \sup\{\beta > 0 : \lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p})) = 0\} = \sup\{\beta > 0 : \beta \text{ is an eigenvalue of } \rho(\tilde{p})\} = \lambda_{\max}(\rho(\tilde{p}))$. Now let $\beta^* := \min_{\tilde{p}} \beta(\tilde{p}) = \min_{\tilde{p}} \lambda_{\max}(\rho(\tilde{p}))$ and let \tilde{p}^* be a minimiser so that $\beta^* = \beta(\tilde{p}^*)$. We now claim that $C_{\beta^*}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq 0$ for all \tilde{p} since if there was some \tilde{p}' such that $C_{\beta^*}(\tilde{p}') \not\succeq 0$ we would have $\beta(\tilde{p}') < \beta^*$ since $\beta \mapsto \lambda_{\min}(C_\beta(\tilde{p}'))$ only has a single root—a contradiction. Thus, since we have shown β^* is the largest β such that $C_{\beta^*}(\tilde{p}) \succcurlyeq 0$ it must be β_ℓ , by Lemma 9, as required. \blacksquare

Equation 18 reduces to (4) when $n = 2$ since the maximum eigenvalue of a 1×1 matrix is simply its single entry.

4 Discussion

In combination with the existing results on mixability, our result bounds the performance of certain predictors in terms of the Hessian of the Bayes risk $\mathbf{H}\underline{L}$ which depends on the choice of loss function. This implies a generalisation of the main result of Kalnishkan and Vyugin (2002a) which shows there can be no “predictive complexity” when the curvature of f_β vanishes (in the binary case). This means there can not exist a mixability constant β_ℓ of the form (1) in such a situation. This is apparent from (18) since β_ℓ is not defined when $\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p})$ is singular (which occurs when $\mathbf{H}f_\beta$ vanishes).

One can use (18) to confirm that the mixability constant for the Brier score is one, in accord with the calculation of Vovk and Zhdanov (2009). (The calculation is relegated to the additional material due to lack of space.)

We briefly relate this combination with recent work by Abernethy et al. (2009). They formulate the problem slightly differently. They do not restrict themselves to proper losses and so the predictions are not restricted to the simplex. This means it is not necessary to go to a submanifold in order for derivatives to be well defined. (It may well be that one can avoid the explicit projection down to $\tilde{\Delta}^n$ using the intrinsic methods of differential geometry (Thorpe, 1979); we have been unable as yet to prove our result using that machinery.)

Abernethy et al. (2009) have developed their own bounds on cumulative loss in terms of the α -flatness (defined below) of \underline{L} . They show that α -flatness is implied by strong convexity of the loss ℓ . The duality between the loss surface and Bayes risk that they established through the use of support functions can also be seen in Lemma 5 in the relationship between the Hessian of $\tilde{\underline{L}}$ and the derivative of $\tilde{\ell}$. Although it is obscured somewhat due to our use of functions of \tilde{p} , this relationship is due to the properness of ℓ guaranteeing that ℓ^{-1} is the (homogeneously extended) Gauss map for the surface $\tilde{\underline{L}}$. Below we point out the relationship between α -flatness and the positive definiteness of $\mathbf{H}\underline{L}$ (we stress that in our work we used $\mathbf{H}\tilde{\underline{L}}$). The connection below suggests that the α -flatness condition is weak. We conjecture it will be possible to get a result like Theorem 10 in situations more general than the strictly proper losses we have worked with.

A function $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be α -flat if for all $x, x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$f(x) - f(x_0) \leq \mathbf{D}f(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + \alpha \|x - x_0\|^2. \quad (19)$$

Theorem 11 *For $\alpha > 0$, f is α -flat if and only if $f - \alpha \|\cdot\|^2$ is concave.*

Proof: Hiriart-Urruty and Lemaréchal (1993, page 183) show a function h is convex if and only if

$$h(x) \geq h(x_0) + \mathbf{D}h(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0), \quad \forall x, x_0.$$

A function h is concave if and only if $-h$ is convex. Thus h is concave if and only

$$h(x) \leq h(x_0) + \mathbf{D}h(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0), \quad \forall x, x_0.$$

Let $h(x) = f(x) - \alpha \|x\|^2$. The concavity of h is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - \alpha \|x\|^2 &\leq f(x_0) - \alpha \|x_0\|^2 + (\mathbf{D}f(x_0) - 2\alpha x_0) \cdot (x - x_0), \quad \forall x, x_0 \\ \Leftrightarrow f(x) - \alpha \|x\|^2 &\leq f(x_0) - \alpha \|x_0\|^2 + \mathbf{D}f(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) - 2\alpha x_0 \cdot (x - x_0), \quad \forall x, x_0 \\ \Leftrightarrow f(x) &\leq f(x_0) - \alpha \|x_0\|^2 + \mathbf{D}f(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + \alpha \|x\|^2 - 2\alpha x_0 \cdot x + 2\alpha \|x_0\|^2, \quad \forall x, x_0 \\ \Leftrightarrow f(x) &\leq f(x_0) + \mathbf{D}f(x_0) \cdot (x - x_0) + \alpha \|x - x_0\|^2, \quad \forall x, x_0 \\ \Leftrightarrow &(19). \end{aligned}$$

■

Thus f is α -flat if and only if $\mathbf{H}(f - \alpha \|\cdot\|^2)$ is negative semidefinite, which is equivalent to $\mathbf{H}f - 2\alpha I \preceq 0 \iff \mathbf{H}f \preceq 2\alpha I$. Hence requiring \underline{L} is α -flat is a constraint on the curvature of \underline{L} relative to a flat surface; our main result shows that the mixability constant (which is the best possible constant one can have in a bound such as (1)) is governed by the curvature of $\tilde{\underline{L}}$ normalised by the curvature of $\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}$. The necessity of comparison with log loss is not that surprising in light of the observations regarding mixability by Grünwald (2007, §17.9).

5 Conclusion

We have characterised the mixability constant for strictly proper multiclass losses. We relied on technical tricks that work for strictly proper losses, but the final result seems so intrinsic it is hard to believe it does not hold more generally. The result shows in a precise and intuitive way the effect of the choice of loss function on the performance of an aggregating forecaster.

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A Matrix Calculus

We adopt notation from Magnus and Neudecker (1999): I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, A' is the transpose of A , the n -vector $\mathbb{1}_n := (1, \dots, 1)'$, and $0_{n \times m}$ denotes the zero matrix with n rows and m columns. The unit n -vector $e_i^n := (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)'$ has a 1 in the i th coordinate and zeroes elsewhere. If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is an $n \times m$ matrix, $\text{vec } A$ is the vector of columns of A stacked on top of each other. The *Kronecker product* of an $m \times n$ matrix A with a $p \times q$ matrix B is the $mp \times nq$ matrix

$$A \otimes B := \begin{pmatrix} A_{1,1}B & \cdots & A_{1,n}B \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m,1}B & \cdots & A_{m,n}B \end{pmatrix}.$$

We use the following properties of Kronecker products (see Chapter 2 of Magnus and Neudecker (1999)): $(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) = (AC \otimes BD)$ for all appropriately sized A, B, C, D and $(A \otimes B)^{-1} = (A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1})$ for invertible A and B .

If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at c then the *partial derivative* of f_i w.r.t. the j th coordinate at c is denoted $D_j f_i(c)$ and is often⁴ also written as $[\partial f_i / \partial x_j]_{x=c}$. The $m \times n$ matrix of partial derivatives of f is the *Jacobian* of f and denoted

$$(Df(c))_{i,j} := D_j f_i(c) \quad \text{for } i \in [m], j \in [n].$$

The *inverse function theorem* relates the Jacobians of a function and its inverse (cf. Fleming (1977, §4.5)):

Theorem 12 *Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an open set and $g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a C^q function with $q \geq 1$ (i.e., continuous with at least one continuous derivative). If $Dg(s) \neq 0$ then: there exists an open set S_0 such that $s \in S_0$ and the restriction of g to S_0 is invertible; $g(S_0)$ is open; f , the inverse of the restriction of g to S_0 , is C^q ; and $Df(t) = [Dg(s)]^{-1}$ for $t = g(s)$ and $s \in S_0$.*

If F is a matrix valued function $DF(X) := Df(\text{vec } X)$ where $f(X) = \text{vec } F(X)$.

We will require the product rule for matrix valued functions (Fackler, 2005): Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$, $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$ so that $(f \times g) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times q}$. Then

$$D(f \times g)(x) = (g(x)' \otimes I_m) \cdot Df(x) + (I_q \otimes f(x)) \cdot Dg(x). \quad (20)$$

The *Hessian* at $x \in X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ of a real-valued function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the $n \times n$ real, symmetric matrix of second derivatives at x

$$(Hf(x))_{j,k} := D_{k,j} f(x) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_j}.$$

⁴See Chapter 9 of Magnus and Neudecker (1999) for why the $\partial/\partial x$ notation is a poor one for multivariate differential calculus despite its popularity.

Note that the derivative $D_{k,j}$ is in row j , column k . It is easy to establish that the Jacobian of the transpose of the Jacobian of f is the Hessian of f . That is,

$$\mathbf{H}f(x) = \mathbf{D}((\mathbf{D}f(x))') \quad (21)$$

(cf. Chapter 10 of (Magnus and Neudecker, 1999)). If $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ for $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector valued function then the Hessian of f at $x \in X$ is the $mn \times n$ matrix that consists of the Hessians of the functions f_i stacked vertically:

$$\mathbf{H}f(x) := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{H}f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{H}f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}.$$

The following theorem regarding the chain rule for Hessian matrices can be found in (Magnus and Neudecker, 1999, pg. 110).

Theorem 13 *Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , and $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be twice differentiable at a point c in the interior of S . Let T be a subset of \mathbb{R}^m containing $f(S)$, and $g : T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ be twice differentiable at the interior point $b = f(c)$. Then the function $h(x) := g(f(x))$ is twice differentiable at c and*

$$\mathbf{H}h(c) = (I_p \otimes \mathbf{D}f(c))' \cdot \mathbf{H}g(b) \cdot \mathbf{D}f(c) + (\mathbf{D}g(b) \otimes I_n) \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c).$$

Applying the chain rule to functions that are inverses of each other gives the following corollary.

Corollary 14 *Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is invertible with inverse $g := f^{-1}$. If $b = f(c)$ then*

$$\mathbf{H}f^{-1}(b) = - (G \otimes G') \mathbf{H}f(c) G$$

where $G := [\mathbf{D}f(c)]^{-1} = \mathbf{D}g(b)$.

Proof: Since $f \circ g = \text{id}$ and $\mathbf{H}[\text{id}] = 0_{n^2 \times n}$ Theorem 13 implies that for c in the interior of the domain of f and $b = f(c)$

$$\mathbf{H}(g \circ f)(c) = (I_n \otimes \mathbf{D}f(c))' \cdot \mathbf{H}g(b) \cdot \mathbf{D}f(c) + (\mathbf{D}g(b) \otimes I_n) \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c) = 0_{n^2 \times n}.$$

Solving this for $\mathbf{H}g(b)$ gives

$$\mathbf{H}g(b) = - [(I_n \otimes \mathbf{D}f(c))']^{-1} (\mathbf{D}g(b) \otimes I_n) \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c) \cdot [\mathbf{D}f(c)]^{-1}.$$

Since $(A \otimes B)^{-1} = (A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1})$ and $(A')^{-1} = (A^{-1})'$ we have $[(I \otimes B)']^{-1} = [(I \otimes B)^{-1}]' = (I^{-1} \otimes B^{-1})' = (I \otimes B^{-1})'$ so the first term in the above product simplifies to $- [(I_n \otimes \mathbf{D}f(c)^{-1})']'$. The inverse function theorem implies $\mathbf{D}g(b) = [\mathbf{D}f(c)]^{-1} =: G$ and so

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}g(b) &= -(I_n \otimes G)' \cdot (G \otimes I_n) \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c) \cdot G \\ &= -(I_n \otimes G') \cdot (G \otimes I_n) \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c) \cdot G \\ &= -(G \otimes G') \cdot \mathbf{H}f(c) \cdot G \end{aligned}$$

as required, since $(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) = (AC \otimes BD)$. ■

We need to determine positive (semi)-definiteness (pd, psd) of certain matrices. Sylvester's criterion makes this easier (see Horn and Johnson, 1985, Theorem 7.2.5).

Theorem 15 *Suppose the $n \times n$ matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^n$ is symmetric. For $k \in [n]$ denote by $A_k = [a_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^k$ the leading principal submatrix. Then A is positive definite if and only if the leading principal minors $|A_1|, \dots, |A_n|$ are all positive.*

We also use the rank one update formula for determinant

$$|A + uv'| = (1 + v'A^{-1}u) \cdot |A|. \quad (22)$$

If $A - B$ is positive definite (resp. semidefinite), then we write $A \succ B$ (resp. $A \succeq B$). Horn and Johnson (1985, Corollary 7.7.4) show that if A and B are positive definite, then

$$A \succ B \Leftrightarrow B^{-1} \succ A^{-1}. \quad (23)$$

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Additional Material

B Mixability of the Brier Score

The n -class Brier score is⁵

$$\ell_{\text{Brier}}(y, \hat{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbb{1}_{\{y_i = 1\}} - \hat{p}_i)^2,$$

where $y \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $\hat{p} \in \Delta^n$. Thus

$$L_{\text{Brier}}(p, \hat{p}) = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim p} \ell_{\text{Brier}}(Y, \hat{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim p} (\mathbb{1}_{\{Y_i = 1\}} - \hat{p}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i - 2p_i \hat{p}_i + \hat{p}_i^2.$$

Hence $\underline{L}_{\text{Brier}}(p) = L_{\text{Brier}}(p, p) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i - 2p_i p_i + p_i^2 = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2$ since $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$. Thus $\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\text{Brier}}(\tilde{p}) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i^2 + \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i\right)^2$. One can easily check that

$$H \tilde{\underline{L}}_{\text{Brier}}(\tilde{p}) = -2(I_{n-1} + \mathbb{1}_{n-1} \cdot \mathbb{1}'_{n-1}). \quad (24)$$

We need to find the largest β such that

$$K^\beta(\tilde{p}) := \frac{1}{\beta} H \tilde{\underline{L}}_{\log}(\tilde{p}) - H \tilde{\underline{L}}_{\text{Brier}}(\tilde{p})$$

is negative definite for all $\tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n$. Now substituting we have

$$\begin{aligned} K^\beta(\tilde{p}) &= \left(\frac{1}{\beta} \text{diag}(1/p_i)_{i=1}^{n-1} - \frac{1}{p_n} \mathbb{1}_{n-1} \cdot \mathbb{1}'_{n-1} \right) + 2(I_{n-1} + \mathbb{1}_{n-1} \cdot \mathbb{1}'_{n-1}) \\ &= \text{diag} \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i} \right)_{i=1}^{n-1} + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_n} \right) \mathbb{1}_{n-1} \cdot \mathbb{1}'_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$K_k^\beta(\tilde{p}) = \text{diag} \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i} \right)_{i=1}^k + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_n} \right) \mathbb{1}_k \cdot \mathbb{1}'_k.$$

Hence for $k \in [n-1]$, using (22) we have

$$\begin{aligned} |K_k^\beta(\tilde{p})| &= \left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_n} \right) \mathbb{1}'_k \cdot \text{diag} \left(\frac{1}{2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i}} \right)_{i=1}^k \cdot \mathbb{1}_k \right) \left| \text{diag} \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i} \right)_{i=1}^k \right| \\ &= \left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_n} \right) \left[\frac{\beta p_1}{2\beta p_1 - 1}, \dots, \frac{\beta p_k}{2\beta p_k - 1} \right] \mathbb{1}_k \right) \prod_{i=1}^k \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i} \right) \\ &= \left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_n} \right) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\beta p_i}{2\beta p_i - 1} \right) \prod_{i=1}^k \left(2 - \frac{1}{\beta p_i} \right). \end{aligned}$$

We will show that if $\beta = 1$ then $-K^\beta(\tilde{p})$ is positive semi-definite for all $\tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n$.

We can show $-K^\beta(\tilde{p})$ is positive definite by showing $|-K_k^\beta(\tilde{p})| = (-1)^k |K_k^\beta(\tilde{p})|$ is positive. Since log loss and the Brier score are symmetric with respect to permutation of arguments, and

⁵This is the definition used by Vovk and Zhdanov (2009). Cesa-Bianchi and Lugosi (2006) use a different definition (for the binary case) which differs by a constant. Their definition results in $\tilde{\underline{L}}(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}(1 - \tilde{p})$ and thus $\tilde{\underline{L}}''(\tilde{p}) = -2$. If $n = 2$, then $\tilde{\underline{L}}_{\text{Brier}}$ as defined above leads via (24) to $\tilde{\underline{L}}''_{\text{Brier}}(\tilde{p}) = H \tilde{\underline{L}}_{\text{Brier}}(\tilde{p}) = -2(1 + 1) = -4$.

since there can be at most one $i \in [n]$ such that $p_i > \frac{1}{2}$, we assume without loss of generality that $p_i \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for $i \in [n-1]$ and consider the two possibilities that $p_n < 1/2$ or $p_n > 1/2$. First though observe that if there exists $i^* \in [n]$ such that $p_{i^*} = 1/2$ then $|-K_k^1(\tilde{p})| = 0$ because $2 - \frac{1}{p_{i^*}} = 0$.

Observe that $0 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} p_i \leq 1 - p_n =: \gamma$.

If $p_n < \frac{1}{2}$ then $p_i < \frac{1}{2}$ for all $i \in [n]$ and thus $2 - \frac{1}{p_i} < 0$ for all $i \in [n]$ and thus $\text{sgn}\left(\prod_{i=1}^k \left(2 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right)\right) = (-1)^k$. Thus

$$\text{sgn}\left(|-K_k^1(\tilde{p})|\right) = (-1)^k \text{sgn}\left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{p_n}\right) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) (-1)^k$$

and it suffices to show that $t(\tilde{p}) := \text{sgn}\left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{p_n}\right) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = +1$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} t(\tilde{p}) &= \text{sgn}\left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{1-\gamma}\right) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) \\ &= \text{sgn}\left(1 - \gamma + (1 - 2\gamma) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) \end{aligned}$$

since $\text{sgn}(1 - \gamma) = +1$. Now $\text{sgn}\left(\frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = \text{sgn}\left(2 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) = \text{sgn}\left(p_i - \frac{1}{2}\right) = -1$ for all $i \in [n-1]$.

Thus $\text{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = -1$. Now $p_n < 1/2$ implies $\gamma > 1/2$ and so $\text{sgn}(1 - 2\gamma) = -1$. Therefore

$$\text{sgn}\left((1 - 2\gamma) \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = \text{sgn}(1 - 2\gamma) \cdot \text{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = (-1) \cdot (-1) = +1.$$

Since $1 - \gamma > 0$ we conclude that $t(\tilde{p}) = +1$.

If instead $p_n > \frac{1}{2}$, then $\gamma < \frac{1}{2}$. Let $p_n = \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$, $\epsilon > 0$. For $i \in [n-1]$, the largest value p_i can take is $\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$. As before we conclude $\text{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1}\right) = -1$, but now $\text{sgn}(1 - 2\gamma) = +1$. Thus in order to ensure $t(\tilde{p}) = +1$ we need to consider the worst case for $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i}{2p_i - 1} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{2 - \frac{1}{p_i}}$. That occurs when it is maximally negative which occurs when $p_{i^*} = \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$ for some $i^* \in [n-1]$ and $p_i = 0$ for $i \in [n-1] \setminus \{i^*\}$. In this case we have

$$\begin{aligned} t(\tilde{p}) &= \text{sgn}\left(1 + \left(2 - \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2 - \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon}}\right)\right) \\ &= \text{sgn}\left(1 + \frac{2\epsilon}{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon}{-2\epsilon}\right) = \text{sgn}\left(1 - \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon}{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon}\right) = \text{sgn}\left(\frac{2\epsilon}{\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon}\right) = +1. \end{aligned}$$

Since $|-K_k^1(\tilde{p})| = 0$ for some \tilde{p} (when there is a component equal to $1/2$), if we increased β to be larger than 1 we would not have $|-K_k^\beta(\tilde{p})| \geq 0$ for all $\tilde{p} \in \tilde{\Delta}^n$. Thus $\beta_{\text{Brier}} = 1$.