# Upper bounds for average Bayes accuracy in terms of mutual information

Charles Zheng and Yuval Benjamini September 18, 2016

These are preliminary notes.

# 1 Introduction

Suppose X and Y are continuous random variables (or vectors) which have a joint distribution with density p(x,y). Let  $p(x) = \int p(x,y)dy$  and  $p(y) = \int p(x,y)dx$  denote the respective marginal distributions, and p(y|x) = p(x,y)/p(x) denote the conditional distribution.

Mutual information is defined

$$I[p(x,y)] = \int p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)} dxdy.$$

ABE<sub>k</sub>, or k-class Average Bayes accuracy is defined as follows. Let  $X_1, ..., X_K$  be iid from p(x), and draw Z uniformly from 1, ..., k. Draw  $Y \sim p(y|X_Z)$ . Then, the average Bayes accuracy is defined as

$$ABA_k[p(x, y)] = \sup_{f} Pr[f(x_1, ..., x_k, y) = Z]$$

where the supremum is taken over all functions f. A function f which achieves the supremum is

$$f_{Bayes}(x_1, ..., x_k, y) = \operatorname{argmax}_{z \in \{1, ..., k\}} p(y|x_z),$$

where an arbitrary rule can be employed to break ties. Such a function  $f_{Bayes}$  is called a Bayes classification rule. It follows that  $ABA_k$  is given explicitly

by

$$ABA_k = \frac{1}{k} \int \left[ \prod_{i=1}^k p(x_i) dx_i \right] \int dy \max_i p(y|x_i).$$

## 2 Problem formulation

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote the collection of all joint densities p(x, y) on finite-dimensional Euclidean space. For  $\iota \in [0, \infty)$  define  $C_k(\iota)$  to be the largest k-class average Bayes error attained by any distribution p(x, y) with mutual information not exceeding  $\iota$ :

$$C_k(\iota) = \sup_{p \in \mathcal{P}: I[p(x,y)] \le \iota} ABA_k[p(x,y)].$$

A priori,  $C_k(\iota)$  exists since  $ABA_k$  is bounded between 0 and 1. Furthermore,  $C_k$  is nondecreasing since the domain of the supremum is monotonically increasing with  $\iota$ .

It follows that for any density p(x, y), we have

$$ABA_k[p(x,y)] \le C_k(I[p(x,y)]).$$

Hence  $C_k$  provides an upper bound for average Bayes error in terms of mutual information.

Conversely we have

$$I[p(x,y)] \ge C_k^{-1}(ABA_k[p(x,y)])$$

so that  $C_k^{-1}$  provides a lower bound for mutual information in terms of average Bayes error.

On the other hand, there is no nontrivial *lower* bound for average Bayes error in terms of mutual information, nor upper bound for mutual information in terms of average Bayes error, since

$$\inf_{p \in \mathcal{P}: I[p(x,y)] \le \iota} ABA_k[p(x,y)] = \frac{1}{k}.$$

regardless of  $\iota$ .

The goal of this work is to attempt to compute or approximate the functions  $C_k$  and  $C_k^{-1}$ .

# 3 Special case

We work out the special case where p(x, y) lies on the unit square, and p(x) and p(y) are both the uniform distribution. Let  $\mathcal{P}^{unif}$  denote the set of such distributions, and

$$C_k^{unif}(\iota) = \sup_{p(x,y) \in \mathcal{P}^{unif}: I[p] \le \iota} ABA_k[p].$$

We prove the following result:

**Theorem.** For any  $\iota > 0$ , there exists  $c \geq 0$  such that defining

$$Q_c(t) = \frac{\exp[ct^{k-1}]}{\int_0^1 \exp[ct^{k-1}]},$$

we have

$$\int_0^1 Q_c(t) \log Q_c(t) dt = \iota.$$

Then,

$$C_k^{unif} = \int_0^1 Q_c(t) t^{k-1} dt.$$

The proof depends on the following lemma.

**Lemma.** For any measure G on  $[0,\infty]$ , let  $G^k$  denote the measure defined by

$$G^k(A) = G(A)^k,$$

and define

$$E[G] = \int x dG(x).$$

$$H[G] = -\int x \log x dG(x)$$

and

$$\psi_k[G] = \int x d(G^k)(x).$$

Then, for any  $\iota > 0$ , there exists  $c \geq 0$  such that defining  $Q_c(t)$  as in Theorem 1, we have

$$\int_0^1 Q_c(t) \log Q_c(t) dt = \iota.$$

Then.

$$\sup_{G: E[G]=1, -H[G] \le \iota} \psi_k[G] = \int_0^1 Q_c(t) t^{k-1} dt.$$

Furthermore, the supremum is attained by a measure G that has cdf equal to  $Q_c^{-1}$ , and thus has a density g with respect to Lesbegue measure.

**Proof of Lemma.** (This will appear in the appendix of the paper.)

Consider the quantile function  $Q(t) = \inf_{x \in [0,1]} : G([0,x]) \ge t$ . Q(t) must be a monotonically increasing function from [0,1] to  $[0,\infty)$ .

We have

$$E[G] = \int_0^1 Q(t)dt$$
 
$$\psi_k[G] = \int_0^1 Q(t)x^{k-1}dt.$$

and

$$-H[G] = \int_0^1 Q(t) \log Q(t) dt.$$

For any given  $\iota$ , let  $P_{\iota}$  denote the class of probability distributions G on  $[0,\infty]$  such that E[G]=1 and  $-H[G]\leq \iota$ . From Markov's inequality, for any  $G\in P_{\iota}$  we have

$$G([x,\infty]) \le x^{-1}$$

for any  $x \geq 0$ , hence  $P_t$  is tight. From tightness, we conclude that  $P_t$  is closed under limits with respect to weak convergence. Hence, since  $\psi_k$  is a continuous function, there exists a distribution  $G^* \in P_t$  which attains the supremum

$$\sup_{G\in P_{\iota}}\psi_{k}[G].$$

Let  $\mathcal{Q}_{\iota}$  denote the collection of quantile functions of distributions in  $P_{\iota}$ . Then,  $\mathcal{Q}_{\iota}$  consists of monotonic functions  $Q:[0,1]\to[0,\infty]$  which satisfy

$$\int_0^1 Q(t)dt = 1,$$

and

$$\int_0^1 Q(t) \log Q(t) dt \le \iota.$$

Let Q denote the collection of *all* quantile functions from measures on  $[0, \infty]$ . And letting  $Q^*$  be the quantile function for  $G^*$ , we have that  $Q^*$  attains the supremum

$$\sup_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}_t} \int_0^1 Q(t) t^{k-1} dt.$$

Therefore, there exist Lagrange multipliers  $\lambda \geq 0$  and  $\nu \leq 0$  such that defining

$$\mathcal{L}[Q] = \int_0^1 Q(t)(1 + \lambda \log Q(t) + \nu t^{k-1})dt,$$

 $Q^*$  attains the infimum of  $\mathcal{L}[Q]$  over all quantile functions,

$$\mathcal{L}[Q^*] = \inf_{Q \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathcal{L}[Q].$$

We now claim that for such  $\lambda$  and  $\nu$ , we have

$$1 + \lambda + \lambda \log Q(t) + \nu t^{k-1} = 0.$$

Consider a perturbation function  $\xi:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$ . We have

$$\mathcal{L}[Q+\xi] \approx \mathcal{L}[Q] + \int_0^1 \xi(t)(1+\lambda+\lambda \log Q(t) + \nu t^{k-1})dt$$

for small  $\xi$ . Define

$$\nabla Q^*(t) = (1 + \lambda + \lambda \log Q^*(t) + \nu t^{k-1}).$$

The function  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  is a functional derivative of the Lagrangian. Note that if we were able to show that  $\nabla Q^*(t) = 0$ , as we might naively expect, this immediately yields

$$Q^*(t) = \exp[-1 - \lambda - \log \lambda - \nu t^{k-1}]. \tag{1}$$

However, the reason why we cannot simply assume  $\nabla Q^*(t) = 0$  is because the optimization occurs on a constrained space. We will ultimately show that this is the case (up to sets of neglible measure), but some delicacy is needed.

Let B denote the set of points t such that  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$ . We would like to show that B is of measure zero, which would yield (1) up to neglible sets. What needs to be done is to show that  $\nabla Q^*(t) = 0$  on a set of non-zero measure results in a contradiction. One can verify that for any t such that  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$ , one of the following four cases must apply.

- Case 1:  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$  on an isolated point; i.e. for all neigborhoods  $N_t$  of  $t, B \cap N_t$  is a set of measure zero.
- Case 2:  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$  and there does not exist an interval such that  $[a,b] \ni t$  is  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  strictly positive or negative on the interval, but there does exist a neighborhood  $N_t$  of t such that  $B \cap N_t$  has nonzero measure.
- Case 3:  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$  and there exists an interval  $[a, b] \ni t$  with  $Q^*(a) < Q^*(b)$  such that  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  is either strictly positive or negative on [a, b].
- Case 4:  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$  and there exists an interval  $[a, b] \ni t$  with  $Q^*(a) = Q^*(b)$  such that  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  is either strictly positive or negative on [a, b].

The set of all points t where case 1 applies is necessarily of zero measure. Therefore if B is non-negligible, there must exist t falling in one of the three other cases must occur. But we will show that each of cases 2 through 4 result in a contradiction.

Case 3. Define

$$\xi^{+}(t) = I\{t \in [a, b]\}(Q(b) - Q(t))$$

and

$$\xi^-(t) = I\{t \in [a,b]\}(Q(a) - Q(t)).$$

, Observe that  $Q + \epsilon \xi^+ \in \mathcal{Q}$  and  $Q + \epsilon \xi^- \in \mathcal{Q}$  for any  $\epsilon \in [0,1]$ . Now, if  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  is strictly positive on [a,b], then for some  $\epsilon > 0$  we would have  $\mathcal{L}[Q^* + \epsilon \xi^-] < \mathcal{L}[Q^*]$ , a contradiction. A similar argument with  $\xi^+$  shows that  $\nabla Q^*(t)$  cannot be strictly negative on [a,b] either.

Case 4. Without loss of generality, let a and b be the endpoints of the largest interval containing t such that  $Q^*(t)$  is constant on (a,b). Now, since  $\nabla Q^*(t) \neq 0$  on a set of nonzero measure within [a,b], it must be the case that there exists some  $u \in [a,b]$  such that

$$\int_{a}^{u} \nabla Q^{*}(t)dt \neq 0.$$

If  $\int_a^u \nabla Q^*(t)dt > 0$ , then define  $\xi^+(t) = -I\{t \in (a,u)\}$  (to be contd.)

Remark. More specifically, the supremum is attained by a distribution with density  $p_{\iota}(x,y)$  where

$$p_{\iota}(x,y) = \begin{cases} g_{\iota}(y-x) & \text{for } x \ge y\\ g_{\iota}(1+y-x) & \text{for } x < y \end{cases}$$

where

$$g_{\iota}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}G_{\iota}(x)$$

and  $G_{\iota}$  is the inverse of  $Q_{c}$ .

In this case, letting  $X_1,...,X_k \sim \text{Unif}[0,1]$ , and  $Y \sim \text{Unif}[0,1]$  define  $Z_i(y) = p(y|X_i)$ . We have  $\mathbf{E}(Z(y)) = 1$  and,

$$I[p(x,y)] = \mathbf{E}(Z(Y) \log Z(Y))$$

while

$$ABA_k[p(x,y)] = k^{-1} \mathbf{E}(\max_i Z_i(Y)).$$

Letting  $g_y$  be the density of Z(y), we have

$$I[p(x,y)] = \mathbf{E}(-H[g_Y])$$

and

$$ABA_k[p(x,y)] = \mathbf{E}(\psi_k[g_Y])$$

where

$$H[g] = -\int g(x)x \log x dx$$

and

$$\psi_k[g] = \int xg(x)G(x)^{k-1}dx$$

for  $G(x) = \int_0^x g(t)dt$ . Additionally  $g_y$  satisfies the constraint  $\int xg(x)dx = 1$  since  $\mathbf{E}[Z(y)] = 1$ .

Define the set  $D = \{(\alpha, \beta)\}$  as the set of possible values of  $(-H[g], \psi_k[g])$  taken over all distributions g supported on  $[0, \infty)$  with  $\int xg(x)dx = 1$ . Next, let  $\mathcal{C}(D)$  denote the convex hull of D. It follows that  $(I[p], ABA_k[p]) \in \mathcal{C}(D)$  since the pair is obtained via a convex average of points  $(-H[g_y], \psi_k[g])$ .

Define the upper envelope of D as the curve

$$d_k(\alpha) = \sup\{\beta : (\alpha, \beta) \in D\}.$$

We make the claim (to be shown in the following section) that  $d_k(\alpha)$  is convex in  $\alpha$ . As a result, the upper envelope of D is also the upper envelope of C(D). This in turn implies that  $C_k^{unif}(\iota) = d_k(\iota)$ . We establish these results, along with a open-form expression for  $C_k^{unif}$ , in the following section.

#### 3.1 Variational methods

Consider the quantile function  $Q(t) = G^{-1}(t)$ . Q(t) must be a continuous function from [0,1] to  $[0,\infty)$ . We can rewrite the moment constraint  $\mathbf{E}[g]=1$  as

$$\int_0^1 Q(t)dt = 1.$$

Meanwhile,  $\beta = \psi_k[g]$  takes the form

$$\beta = \int_0^1 Q(t)x^{k-1}dt.$$

and  $\alpha = -H[g]$  takes the form

$$\alpha = \int_0^1 Q(t) \log Q(t) dt.$$

To find the upper envelope, it will be useful to write the Langrangian

$$\mathcal{L}[g] = \lambda \int_0^1 Q(t)dt + \mu \int_0^1 Q(t)x^{k-1}dt + \lambda \int_0^1 Q(t)\log Q(t)dt$$
  
=  $\int_0^1 Q(t)(\lambda + \mu x^{k-1} + \nu \log Q(t))dt$ .

In order for a quantile function Q(t) to be on the upper envelope, it must be a local maximum of -H with respect to small perturbations. Therefore, consider the functional derivative

$$D[\xi] = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathcal{L}[g + \epsilon \xi] - \mathcal{L}[g]}{\epsilon}.$$

We have

$$D[\xi] = \int_0^1 \xi(t)(\lambda + \nu + \mu x^{k-1} + \nu \log Q(t))dt.$$

Now consider the following three cases:

- Q(t) is strictly monotonic, i.e. Q'(t) > 0.
- ullet Q(t) is differentiable but not strongly monotonic:
- Q(t) is not strongly monotonic: there exist intervals  $A_i = [a_i, b_i)$  such that Q(t) is constant on  $A_i$ , and isolated points  $t_i$  where  $Q'(t_i) = 0$ .

Strictly monotonic case. Because Q is defined on a closed interval, strict monotonicity further implies the property of strong monotonicity where  $\inf_{[0,1]}Q'(t) > 0$ . Therefore, for any differentiable perturbation  $\xi(t)$  with  $\sup_{[0,1]}|\xi'(t)| < \infty$ , and further imposing that  $\xi(0) \geq 0$  in the case that Q(0) = 0, there exists some  $\epsilon > 0$  such that Q(0) = 0 is still a valid quantile function. Therefore, in order for Q(t) to be a local maximum, we must have

$$0 = \lambda + \nu + \mu x^{k-1} + \nu \log Q(t)$$

for  $t \in [0,1]$ . This implies that

$$Q(t) = c_0 e^{-c_1 x^{k-1}}$$

for some  $c_0, c_1 \geq 0$ .

 $Other\ cases.\ (TODO)$  We have to show that these cannot be local maxima.

### 4 General case

We claim that the constants  $C_k^{unif}(\iota)$  obtained for the special case also apply for the general case, i.e.

$$C_k(\iota) = C_k^{unif}(\iota).$$

We make use of the following Lemma:

**Lemma.** Suppose X, Y, W, Z are continuous random variables, and that  $W \perp Y|Z$ ,  $Z \perp X|Y$ , and  $W \perp Z|(X,Y)$ . Then,

$$\mathit{I}[p(x,y)] = \mathit{I}[p((x,w),(y,z))]$$

and

$$ABA_k[p(x,y)] = ABA_k[p((x,w),(y,z))].$$

**Proof.** Due to conditional independence relationships, we have

$$p((x, w), (y, z)) = p(x, y)p(w|x)p(z|y).$$

It follows that

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{I}[p((x,w),(y,z))] &= \int dx dw dy dz \ p(x,y) p(w|x) p(z|w) \log \frac{p((x,w),(y,z))}{p(x,w) p(y,z)} \\ &= \int dx dw dy dz \ p(x,y) p(w|x) p(z|w) \log \frac{p(x,y) p(w|x) p(z|y)}{p(x) p(y) p(w|x) p(z|y)} \\ &= \int dx dw dy dz \ p(x,y) p(w|x) p(z|w) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x) p(y)} \\ &= \int dx dy \ p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x) p(y)} = \mathrm{I}[p(x,y)]. \end{split}$$

Also,

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{ABA}_k[p((x,w),(y,z))] &= \int \left[\prod_{i=1}^k p(x_i,w_i) dx_i dw_i\right] \int dy dz \ \max_i p(y,z|x_i,w_i). \\ &= \int \left[\prod_{i=1}^k p(x_i,w_i) dx_i dw_i\right] \int dy \ \max_i p(y|x_i) \int dz \ p(z|y). \\ &= \int \left[\prod_{i=1}^k p(x_i) dx_i\right] \left[\prod_{i=1}^k \int dw_i p(w_i|x_i)\right] \int dy \ \max_i p(y|x_i) \\ &= \operatorname{ABA}_k[p(x,y)]. \end{split}$$

Next, we use the fact that for any p(x,y) and  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a discrete distribution  $p_{\epsilon}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$  such that

$$|\mathrm{I}[p(x,y)] - \mathrm{I}[p_{\epsilon}(\tilde{x},\tilde{y})]| < \epsilon,$$

where for discrete distributions, one defines

$$I[p(x,y)] = \sum_{x} \sum_{y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}.$$

We require the additional condition that the marginals of the discrete distribution are close to uniform: that is, for some  $\delta > 0$ , we have

$$\sup_{x,x':p_{\epsilon}(x)>0 \text{ and } p_{\epsilon}(x')>0} \frac{p_{\epsilon}(x)}{p_{\epsilon}(x')} \leq 1 + \delta.$$

and likewise

$$\sup_{y,y':p_{\epsilon}(y)>0 \text{ and } p_{\epsilon}(y')>0} \frac{p_{\epsilon}(y)}{p_{\epsilon}(y')} \leq 1 + \delta.$$

To construct the discretization with the required properties, choose a regular rectangular grid  $\Lambda$  over the domain of p(x,y) sufficiently fine so that partitioning X,Y into grid cells, we have

$$|\mathrm{I}[p(x,y)] - \mathrm{I}[\tilde{p}(\tilde{x},\tilde{y})]| < \epsilon.$$

[NOTE: to be written more clearly] Next, define