Conditional Random Fields and Support Vector Machines: A Hybrid Approach

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Abstract

We propose a novel hybrid loss for multiclass and structured prediction problems that is a convex combination of log loss for Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) and a multiclass hinge loss for Support Vector Machines (SVMs). We provide a sufficient condition for when the hybrid loss is Fisher consistent for classification. This condition depends on a measure of dominance between labels – specifically, the gap in per observation probabilities between the most likely labels. We also prove Fisher consistency is necessary for parametric consistency when learning models such as CRFs.

We demonstrate empirically that the hybrid loss typically performs as least as well as – and often better than – both of its constituent losses on variety of tasks. In doing so we also provide an empirical comparison of the efficacy of probabilistic and margin based approaches to multiclass and structured prediction and the effects of label dominance on these results.

1 Introduction

Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) and Support Vector Machines (SVMs) can be seen as representative of two different approaches to classification problems. The former
is purely probabilistic – the conditional probability of classes given each observation is explicitly modelled – while the latter is purely discriminative – classification is performed without any attempt to model probabilities. Both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses. CRFs \[7, 11\] are known to yield the Bayes optimal solution asymptotically but often require a large number of training examples to do accurate modelling. In contrast, SVMs make more efficient use of training examples but are known to be inconsistent when there are more than two classes \[13, 8\].

Despite their differences, CRFs and SVMs appear very similar when viewed as optimisation problems. The most salient difference is the loss used by each: CRFs are trained using a log loss while SVMs typically use a hinge loss. In an attempt to capitalise on their relative strengths and avoid their weaknesses, we propose a novel hybrid loss which “blends” the two losses. After some background \(\S 2\) we provide the following analysis: We argue that Fisher Consistency for Classification (FCC) – a.k.a. classification calibration – is too coarse a notion and introduce a distribution-dependent refinement called Conditional Fisher Consistency for Classification \(\S 3\). We prove the hybrid loss is conditionally FCC and give a noise condition that relates the hybrid loss’s mixture parameter to a margin-like property of the data distribution \(\S 3.1\). We then show that, although FCC is effectively a non-parametric condition, it is also a necessary condition for consistent risk minimisation using parametric models \(\S 3.2\). Finally, we empirically test the hybrid loss on various domains including multiclass classification, Chunking and Named Entity Recognition and show it consistently performs better than either of its constituent losses \(\S 4\).

## 2 Losses for Multiclass Prediction

In classification problems observations \(x \in X\) are paired with labels \(y \in Y\) via some joint distribution \(D\) over \(X \times Y\). We will write \(D(x, y)\) for the joint probability and \(D(y|x)\) for the conditional probability of \(y\) given \(x\). Since the labels \(y\) are finite and discrete we will also use the notation \(D_y(x)\) for the conditional probability to emphasise that distributions over \(Y\) can be thought of as vectors in \(\mathbb{R}^k\) for \(k = |Y|\). We will use \(q\) to denote distributions over \(Y\) when the observations \(x \in X\) are irrelevant.

When the number of possible labels \(k = |Y| > 2\) we call the classification problem a multiclass classification problem. A special case of this type of problem is structured prediction where the set of labels \(Y\) has some combinatorial structure that typically means \(k\) is very large \(\S 4\). As seen in the experimental section below a variety of problems, such as text tagging, can be construed as structured prediction problems.

Given \(m\) training observations \(S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m\) drawn i.i.d. from \(D\), the aim of the learner is to produce a predictor \(h : X \to Y\) that minimises the misclassification error \(e_D(h) = \mathbb{P}_D[h(x) \neq y]\). Since the true distribution is unknown, an approximate solution to this problem is typically found by minimising a regularised empirical esti-

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1. In structured prediction, each output \(y\) involves relationships among 'sub-components' of \(y\). For example, the label of a pixel in an image depends on the label of neighbouring pixels. That’s where the term ‘structured’ comes from. However, different \(y\)’s are typically not assumed to possess any joint structure (i.e., it is typically assumed that the data is drawn from \(X \times Y\)). This is why structured prediction is no different in essence than multiclass classification.
mate of the risk for a surrogate loss $\ell$. Examples of surrogate losses will be discussed below.

Once a loss is specified, a solution is found by solving

$$\min_f \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(f(x_i), y_i) + \Omega(f)$$

where each model $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ assigns a vector of scores $f(x)$ to each observation and the regulariser $\Omega(f)$ penalises overly complex functions. A model $f$ found in this way can be transformed into a predictor by defining $h_f(x) = \arg\max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} f_y(x)$. We will overload the definition of misclassification error and sometimes write $e_D(f)$ as shorthand for $e_D(h_f)$.

In structured prediction, the models are usually specified in terms of a parameter vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a feature map $\phi : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by defining $f_y(x; w) = \langle w, \phi(x, y) \rangle$ and in this case the regulariser is $\Omega(f) = \lambda \|w\|^2$ for some choice of $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. This is the framework used to implement the SVMs and CRFs used in the experiments described in Section 4. Although much of our analysis does not assume any particular parametric model, we explicitly discuss the implications of doing so in §3.2.

A common surrogate loss for multiclass problems is a generalisation of the binary class hinge loss used for Support Vector Machines [5]:

$$\ell_H(f, y) = \left[1 - M(f, y)\right]_+$$

where $[z]_+ = z$ for $z > 0$ and is 0 otherwise, and $M(f, y) = f_y - \max_{y' \neq y} f_{y'}$ is the margin for the vector $f \in \mathbb{R}^k$. Intuitively, the hinge loss is minimised by models that not only classify observations correctly but also maximise the difference between the highest and second highest scores assigned to the labels.

While there are other, consistent losses for SVMs [13, 8], these cannot scale up to structured estimations due to computational issues. For example, the multiclass hinge loss $\sum_{y \neq y'} [1 + f_{y'}(x)]_+$ is shown to be consistent in [8]. However, it requires evaluating $f$ on all possible labels except the true $y$. This is intractable for structured estimation where the possible labels grow exponentially with the size of the structured output.

Since the other known and consistent multiclass hinge losses have similar intractability we will only focus on the margin-based loss $\ell_H$ which can be evaluated quickly using techniques from dynamic programming, linear programming etc. [14, 12, 1].

### 2.1 Probabilistic Models and Losses

The scores given to labels by a general model $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ can be transformed into a conditional probability distribution $p(x; f) \in [0, 1]^k$ by letting

$$p_y(x; f) = \frac{\exp(f_y(x))}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(f_{y'}(x))}.$$  

(3)

It is easy to show that under this interpretation the hinge loss for a probabilistic model $p = p(\cdot; f)$ is given by

$$\ell_H(p, y) = \left[1 - \ln \frac{p_y}{\max_{y' \neq y} p_{y'}}\right]_+.$$
Another well known loss for probabilistic models, such as CRFs, is the log loss

\[ \ell_L(p, y) = -\ln p_y. \]

This loss penalises models that assign low probability to likely instances labels and, implicitly, that assign high probability to unlikely labels.

We now propose a novel hybrid loss for probabilistic models that is a convex combination of the hinge and log losses

\[ \ell_\alpha(p, y) = \alpha\ell_L(p, y) + (1 - \alpha)\ell_H(p, y) \]  

where mixture of the two losses is controlled by a parameter \( \alpha \in [0, 1] \). Setting \( \alpha = 1 \) or \( \alpha = 0 \) recovers the log loss or hinge loss, respectively. The intention is that choosing \( \alpha \) close to 0 will emphasise having the maximum gap between the largest and second largest label probabilities while an \( \alpha \) close to 1 will force models to prefer accurate probability assessments over strong classification.

3 Fisher Consistency For Classification

A desirable property for a loss is that, given enough data, the models obtained by minimising the loss at each observation will make predictions that are consistent with the true label probabilities at each observation.

Formally, we say vector \( f \in \mathbb{R}^{Y} \) is aligned with a distribution \( q \) over \( Y \) whenever maximisers of \( f \) are also maximisers for \( q \). That is, when \( \text{argmax}_{y \in Y} f_y \subseteq \text{argmax}_{y \in Y} q_y \). If, for all label distributions \( q \), minimising the conditional risk \( L(f) = E_{y \sim q}[\ell(f, y)] \) for a loss \( \ell \) yields a vector \( f^* \) aligned with \( q \) we will say \( \ell \) is Fisher consistent for classification (FCC) \(^2\) – or classification calibrated \[13\]. This is an important property for losses since it is equivalent to the asymptotic consistency of the empirical risk minimiser for that loss \[13, \text{Theorem 2}\].

The standard multiclass hinge loss \( \ell_H \) is known to be inconsistent for classification when there are more than two classes \[8, 13\]. The analysis in \[8\] shows that the hinge loss is inconsistent whenever there is an instance \( x \) with a non-dominant distribution – that is, \( D_y(x) < \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( y \in Y \). Conversely, A distribution is dominant for an instance \( x \) if there is some \( y \) with \( D_y(x) > \frac{1}{2} \). In contrast, the log loss used to train non-parametric CRFs is Fisher consistent for probability estimation – that is, the associated risk is minimised by the true conditional distribution – and thus \( \ell_C \) is FCC since the minimising distribution is equal to \( D(x) \) and thus aligned with \( D(x) \).

3.1 Conditional Consistency of the Hybrid Loss

In order to analyse the consistency of the hybrid loss we introduce a more refined notion of Fisher consistency that takes into account the true distribution of class labels. If \( q = (q_1, \ldots, q_k) \) is a distribution over the labels \( Y \) then we say the loss \( \ell \) is conditionally consistent.
There exists an $f$ exists an $x$ so that $f(x) = g$. Of course, if a loss $\ell$ is conditionally FCC w.r.t. $q$ for all $q$ it is, by definition, (unconditionally) FCC.

**Theorem 1** Let $q = (q_1, \ldots, q_6)$ be a distribution over labels and let $y_1 = \max_y q_y$ and $y_2 = \max_{y \neq y_1} q_y$ be the two most likely labels. Then the hybrid loss $\ell_\alpha$ is conditionally FCC for $q$ whenever $\alpha > \frac{q_{y_1} - q_{y_2}}{1 - 2q_{y_1}}$.\(^{(5)}\)

For the proof see Appendix[A]. Theorem[1] can be inverted and interpreted as a constraint on the conditional distributions of some data distribution $D$ such that a hybrid loss with parameter $\alpha$ will yield consistent predictions. Specifically, the hybrid loss will be consistent if, for all $x \in X$ such that $q = D(x)$ has no dominant label (i.e., $D_y(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for all $y \in Y$), the gap $D_{y_1}(x) - D_{y_2}(x)$ between the top two probabilities is larger than $(1 - \alpha)(1 - 2D_{y_1}(x))$. When this is not the case for some $x$, the classification problem for that instance is, in some sense, too difficult to disambiguate. In this sense, the bound can be seen as a property on distributions akin to Tsybakov’s noise condition [7]. Making this analogy precise is the focus of ongoing work.

### 3.2 Parametric Consistency

Since Fisher consistency is defined point-wise on observations, it is not directly applicable to parametric models as these enforce inter-observational constraints (e.g. smoothness). Abstractly, assuming parametric hypotheses can be seen as a restriction over the space of allowable scoring functions. When learning parametric models, risks are minimised over some subset $F$ of functions from $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^Y$ instead of all possible functions. We now show that, given some weak assumptions on the hypothesis class $F$, a loss being FCC is a necessary condition if the loss is also to be $F$-consistent.

We say a loss $\ell$ is $F$-consistent if, for any distribution, minimising its associated risk over $F$ yields a hypothesis with minimal 0-1 loss in $F$. Recall that the risk of a hypothesis $f \in F$ associated with a loss $\ell$ and distribution $D$ over $X \times Y$ is $L_D(f) = \mathbb{E}_D[\ell(y, f(x))]$ and its 0-1 risk or misclassification error is $e_D(f) = \mathbb{P}_D[y \neq \operatorname{argmax}_{y' \in Y} f_{y'}(x)]$. Formally then, given a function class $F$ we say $\ell$ is $F$-consistent if, for all distributions $D$,

$$L_D(f^*) = \inf_{f \in F} L_D(f) \implies e_D(f^*) = \inf_{f \in F} e_D(f).\quad (6)$$

We need a relatively weak condition on function classes $F$ to state our theorem. We say a class $F$ is regular if the follow two properties hold: 1) For any $g \in \mathbb{R}^Y$ there exists an $x \in X$ and an $f \in F$ so that $f(x) = g$; and 2) For any $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$ there exists an $f \in F$ so that $y = \operatorname{argmax}_{y' \in Y} f_{y'}(x)$. Intuitively, the first condition

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\(^3\)While this is simpler and stronger than the usual asymptotic notation of consistency [?] it most readily relates to FCC and suffices for our discussion since we are only establishing that FCC is a necessary condition.
says that for any distribution over labels there must be a function in the class which
models it perfectly on some point in the input space. The second condition requires
that any mode can be modelled on any input. Importantly, these properties are fairly
weak in that they do not say anything about the constraints a function class might put
on relationships between distributions modelled on different inputs.

**Theorem 2** For regular function classes $\mathcal{F}$ any loss that is $\mathcal{F}$-consistent is necessarily
also Fisher Consistent for Classification (FCC).

The full proof is in Appendix B. The argument sketch is: since $\mathcal{F}$-consistency requires
(6) to hold for all $D$ it must hold for a $D$ with all of its mass on a single observation
$x_0$. If $\ell$ is not FCC there must be some label distribution $q$ and vector $g$ so that $L_q(g)$ is
minimal but $e_q(g)$ is not. Choosing $x_0$ so that $f(x_0) = g$ (by the regularity of $\mathcal{F}$) and
setting $D(y|x) = q$ gives a contradiction.

### 3.3 Generalisation Bound

We now give a PAC-Bayesian bound [10] for the generalisation error $e_D$ of the hybrid
model that can be specialised to recover a bound for the multiclass hinge loss. A
similar, alternative bound for the hybrid loss and an extended proof is available in
Appendix C.

**Theorem 3** (Generalisation Margin Bound) For any data distribution $D$, for any
prior $P$ over $w$, for any $w$, any $\delta \in (0, 1]$ and for any $\gamma > 0$ and any $\alpha \in (0, 1]$,
with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over random samples $S$ from $D$ with $m$ instances, there
exists a constant $c$, such that

$$e_D \leq P_{(x,y) \sim S}(E_{Q(M(w', y))} \leq \gamma) + O\left(\sqrt{\frac{\|w\|^2}{2\pi(1-\alpha)\gamma^2} \ln(m | |Y|) + \ln m + \ln \delta^{-1}} \right).$$

**Proof** [sketch] By choosing the weight prior $P(w) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\frac{\|w\|^2}{2}\right)$ and the pos-
terior $Q(w') = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\frac{\|w' - w\|^2}{2}\right)$, one can show $e_D = P_D(E_{Q(M(w', y))} \leq 0)$ by
symmetry argument proposed in [?]. Applying the PAC-Bayes margin bound [?]
and knowing the margin threshold $\gamma' \leq c(1 - \alpha)\gamma$ and $\text{KL}(Q || P) = \frac{\|w\|^2}{2}$ yields the
theorem.

Setting $\alpha = 0$ in the above bound recovers a margin bound for SVMs (see [?] for an
averaging classifiers of SVMs, and [?] for structured case). Unfortunately, one cannot
set $\alpha = 1$ to achieve a PAC-Bayes bound for a pure log loss classifier in this manner
due the the $(1 - \alpha)^{-1}$ dependence. However, to our knowledge, we are not aware of
any PAC-Bayes bound on the generalisation error for log loss.

### 4 Experiments
The analysis of the hybrid loss suggests it should be able to outperform the hinge loss due to its improved consistency on distributions with non-dominant labels. Furthermore, it should also make more efficient use of data than log loss on distributions with dominant labels. These hypotheses were confirmed by applying the hybrid, log and hinge losses to a number of synthetic multiclass data sets in which the data set size and proportion of examples with non-dominant labels are carefully controlled.

We also compared the hybrid loss with the log and hinge losses on several real structured estimation problems and observed that the hybrid loss regularly outperforms the other losses and consistently performs at least as well as the better of the log and hinge losses on any problem.

### 4.1 Multiclass Classification

Two types of multiclass simulations were performed. The first examined the performances of the hybrid, log and hinge losses when no observations had a dominant label. That is all observations were drawn from a $D$ with $D_{y^*}(x) < 1/2$ for all labels $y$. The second experiment considered distributions with a controlled mixture of observations with dominant and non-dominant labels.

**Non-dominant Distributions** To make the experiment as simple as possible, we considered an observation space of size $|\mathcal{X}| = 1$ and focused on varying the number of labels and their probabilities. The label set $\mathcal{Y}$ took the sizes $|\mathcal{Y}| = 3, 4, 5, \ldots, 10$. One label $y^* \in \mathcal{Y}$ was assigned probability $D_{y^*}(x) = 0.46$ and the remainder are given an equal portion of 0.54 (e.g., in the 3 class case the other labels each have probability 0.27, and in the 10 class case, 0.06). Note that this means for all the label set sizes, the gap $D_{y^*}(x) - D_{y}(x)$ is at least 0.19 which is always greater than $(1 - \alpha)(1 - 2D_{y^*}(x)) = 0.04$ so the hybrid consistency condition (5) is always met.

Features were a constant value in $\mathbb{R}^2$ as were the parameter vectors $w_y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Models were found using LBFGS [3]. The resulting training errors for hinge, log and hybrid losses are plotted in Figure 1 as a function of the number of labels. As we can clearly see, the hinge loss error increases as the number of classes increases, whereas the errors for the log and the hybrid losses remain a constant $(1 - D_{y^*}(x))$, in concordance with the consistency analysis.

**Mix of Non-dominant and Dominant Distributions** The second synthetic experiment examined how the three losses performed given various training set sizes (denoted by $m$) and various proportions of instances with non-dominant distributions (denoted by $\rho$).
Figure 2: Performance of the hybrid, hinge, and log losses on non-dominant/dominant mixtures. Points denote pairs of test accuracies for models trained on one of 60 data sets using the losses named on the axes. Score \((a/b)\) denotes the vertical loss with \(a\) wins and \(b\) losses (ties not counted).

We generated 60 different data sets, all with \(\mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}\), in the following manner: Instances came from either a non-dominant class distribution or a dominant class distribution. In the non-dominant class case, \(x \in \mathbb{R}^{100}\) is set to a predefined, constant, non-zero vector and its label distribution is \(D_1(x) = 0.4\) and \(D_y(x) = 0.15\) for \(y > 1\). In the dominant case, each dimension \(x_i\) was drawn from a normal distribution \(N(\mu = 1 + y, \sigma = 0.6)\) depending on the class \(y = 1, \ldots, 5\). The proportion \(\rho\) ranged over 10 values \(\rho = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, \ldots, 1\) and for each \(\rho\), test and validation sets of size 1000 were generated. Training set sizes of \(m = 30, 60, 100, 300, 600, 1000\) were used for each \(\rho\) value for a total of 60 training sets. The optimal regularisation parameter \(\lambda\) and hybrid loss parameter \(\alpha\) were selected using the validation set for each loss on each training set. Then models with parameters \(w_y \in \mathbb{R}^{100}\) for \(y \in \mathcal{Y}\) were found using LBFGS [3] for each of the three losses on each of the 60 training sets and then assessed using the test set.

The results are summarised in Figure 2. Each point shows the test accuracy for a pair of losses. The predominance of points above the diagonal lines in a) and b) show that the hybrid loss outperforms the hinge loss and the log loss in most of the data sets. while the log and hinge losses perform competitively against each other.

4.2 Structured Estimation

Unlike the general multiclass case, structured estimation problems have a higher chance of non-dominant distributions because of the very large number of labels as well as ties or ambiguity regarding those labels. For example, in text chunking, changing the tag one phrase while leaving the rest unchanged should not drastically change the probability predictions – especially when there are ambiguities. Because of the prevalence of non-dominant distributions, we expect that training models using a hinge loss to perform poorly on these problems relative to training with hybrid or log losses.

CONLL2000 Text Chunking Our first structured estimation experiment is carried out on the CONLL2000 text chunking task [4]. The data set has 8936 training sentences and 2012 testing sentences with 106978 and 23852 phrases (a.k.a. chunks) respectively.
The task is to divide a text into syntactically correlated parts of words such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and so on. For a sentence with $L$ chunks, its label consists of the tagging sequence of all its chunks, i.e. $y = (y^1, y^2, \ldots, y^L)$, where $y^i$ is the chunking tag for chunk $i$. As commonly used in this task, the label $y$ is modelled as a 1D Markov chain to account for the dependency between adjacent chunking tags $(y^i, y^{i+1})$ given observation $x_i$. Clearly, the model has exponentially many possible labels, which suggests there are many non-dominant classes.

Since the true underlying distribution is unknown, we train a CRF on the training set and then apply the trained model to both testing and training datasets to get an estimate of the conditional distributions for each instance. We sort the sentences $x_i$ from highest to lowest estimated probability on the true chunking label $y_i$ given $x_i$. The result is plotted in Figure 3 from which we observe the existence of many non-dominant distributions — about 1/3 of the testing sentences and about 1/4 of the training sentences.

We split the data into 3 parts: training (20%), testing (40%) and validation (40%).

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Table 1: Accuracy, precision, recall and F1 Score on the CONLL2000 text chunking task.

| Train Portion | Loss | Accuracy | Precision | Recall | F1 Score |
|---------------|------|----------|-----------|--------|----------|
| 0.1           | Hinge| 91.14    | 85.31     | 85.52  | 85.41    |
|               | Log  | 92.05    | 87.04     | 87.01  | 87.02    |
|               | Hybrid| 92.07   | 87.17     | 86.93  | 87.05    |
| 1             | Hinge| 94.61    | 91.23     | 91.37  | 91.30    |
|               | Log  | 95.10    | 92.32     | 91.97  | 92.15    |
|               | Hybrid| 95.11   | 92.35     | 92.00  | 92.17    |
Table 2: Accuracy, precision, recall and F1 Score on the baseNP chunking task for training on increasing portions of training set.

| Train Portion | Loss | Accuracy | Precision | Recall | F1 Score |
|---------------|------|----------|-----------|--------|----------|
| 0.1           | Hinge | 88.48    | 71.70     | 75.96  | 73.77    |
|               | Log  | 90.86    | 81.09     | 78.96  | 80.01    |
|               | Hybrid | 90.90   | 81.23     | 79.09  | 80.15    |
| 1             | Hinge | 94.64    | 87.58     | 88.30  | 87.94    |
|               | Log  | 95.21    | 90.07     | 88.89  | 89.48    |
|               | Hybrid | 95.24   | 90.12     | 88.98  | 89.55    |

The regularisation parameter $\lambda$ and the weight $\alpha$ were determined via parameter selection using the validation set. To see the performance with different training sizes, we took part of the training data to learn the model and gathered statistics on the test set. The accuracy, precision, recall and F1 Score on test set are reported in Table 2 when using 10% and 100% of the training set. The hybrid loss outperforms both the hinge loss and the log loss (albeit marginally).

Japanese named entity recognition

Finally, we used a multiclass data set containing 716 Japanese sentences and 17 annotated named entities. The task is to locate and classify proper nouns and numerical information in a document into certain classes of named entities such as names of persons, organizations, and locations. We train all 3 models on 216 sentences and test on 500 sentences with the default parameters found in Bottou’s CRF code. The extra parameter $\alpha$ is selected for the smallest test error. The result is reported in Table 3. Once again, the hybrid loss outperforms the others two losses.
5 Conclusion and Discussion

We have provided theoretical and empirical motivation for the use of a novel hybrid loss for multiclass and structured prediction problems which can be used in place of the more common log loss or multiclass hinge loss. This new loss attempts to blend the strength of purely discriminative approaches to classification, such as Support Vector machines, with probabilistic approaches, such as Conditional Random Fields. Theoretically, the hybrid loss enjoys better consistency guarantees than the hinge loss while experimentally we have seen that the addition of a purely discriminative component can improve accuracy when data is less prevalent.

5.1 Future Work

Theoretically, we expect that some stronger sufficient conditions on $\alpha$ are possible since the bounds used to establish Theorem 1 are not tight. Our conjecture is that a necessary and sufficient condition would include a dependency on the number of classes. We are also investigating connections between $\alpha$ and the multiclass Tsybakov noise condition \[\text{\footnotesize ?}\].

To our knowledge, the notion of a regular function class for the purposes of consistency analysis is a novel one. Characterisations of this property for various existing parametric models would make testing for regularity easier.

One current limitation of the hybrid model is the use of a single, fixed $\alpha$ for all observations in a training set. One interesting avenue to explore would be trying to dynamically estimate a good value of $\alpha$ on a per-observation basis. This may further improve the efficacy of the hybrid loss by exploiting the robustness of SVMs (low $\alpha$) when the label distribution for an observation has a dominant class but switching to probability estimation via CRFs (high $\alpha$) when this is not the case.

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A Proof for Consistency

Proof of Theorem 1 We use \( L_\alpha(p, D) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim D} [\ell_\alpha(p, y)] \) and \( \Delta(y) \) to denote distributions over \( y \). Since we a free to permute labels within \( y \) we will assume without loss of generality that \( D_1 = \max_{y \in Y} D_y \) and \( D_2 = \max_{y \neq 1} D_y \). The proof now proceeds by contradiction and assumes there is some minimiser \( p = \arg\min_{y \in \Delta(y)} L_\alpha(q, D) \) that is not aligned with \( D \). That is, there is some \( y^* \neq 1 \) such that \( p_{y^*} \geq p_1 \). For simplicity, and again without loss of generality, we will assume \( y^* = 2 \).

The first case to consider is when \( p_2 \) is a maximum and \( p_1 < p_2 \). Here we construct a \( q \) that “flips” the values of \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) and leaves all the values unchanged. That is, \( q_1 = p_2, q_2 = p_1 \) and \( q_y = p_y \) for all \( y = 3, \ldots, k \). Intuitively, this new point is closer to \( D \) and therefore the CRF component of the loss will be reduced while the SVM loss won’t increase. The difference in conditional risks satisfies

\[
L_\alpha(p, D) - L_\alpha(q, D) = \sum_{y=1}^{k} D_y(\ell_\alpha(p, y) - \ell_\alpha(q, y))
\]

since \( \ell_\alpha(p, 1) = \ell_\alpha(q, 2) \) and \( \ell_\alpha(p, 2) = \ell_\alpha(q, 1) \) and the other terms cancel by construction. As \( D_1 - D_2 > 0 \) by assumption, all that is required now is to show that \( \ell_\alpha(q, 2) - \ell_\alpha(q, 1) = \alpha \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2} + (1 - \alpha)(\ell_H(q, 2) - \ell_H(q, 1)) \) is strictly positive.

Since \( q_1 > q_2 \) for \( y \neq 1 \) we have \( \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2} > 0 \), \( \ell_H(q, 2) = \left[ 1 - \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2} \right]_+ > 1 \), and \( \ell_H(q, 1) = \left[ 1 - \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2} \right]_+ < 1 \), and so \( \ell_H(q, 2) - \ell_H(q, 1) > 1 - 1 = 0 \). Thus, \( \ell_\alpha(q, 2) - \ell_\alpha(q, 1) > 0 \) as required.

Now suppose that \( p_2 = p_1 \) is a maximum. In this case we show a slight perturbation \( q = (p_1 + \epsilon, p_2 - \epsilon, p_3, \ldots, p_k) \) yields a lower for \( \epsilon > 0 \). For \( y \neq 1, 2 \) we have \( \ell_L(p, y) - \ell(q, y) = 0 \)

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and since $p_2 > p_y$ and $q_1 > q_y$ thus $\ell_H(p, y) - \ell_H(q, y) = 1 - \ln \frac{p_2}{p_1} + 1 - \ln \frac{q_2}{q_1} = \ln \frac{p_2}{p_1} > 1 - \frac{p_1}{p_2} = -\frac{1}{p_2}$ since $-\ln x > 1 - x$ for $x \in (0, 1)$ and $q_1 = p_1 + \epsilon = p_2 + \epsilon$. Therefore

$$\ell_\alpha(p, y) - \ell_\alpha(q, y) > -\epsilon \frac{(1 - \alpha)}{p_1}$$

(7)

When $y = 1$, $\ell_L(p, 1) - \ell_L(q, 1) = -\ln \frac{p_1}{q_1} > \frac{q_1 - p_1}{p_1} = \epsilon$ and $\ell_H(p, 1) - \ell_H(q, 1) = (1 - \ln \frac{p_1}{p_2}) - (1 - \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2}) = \ln \frac{p_1}{p_2} > 1 - \frac{p_1}{p_2} = \frac{2\epsilon}{p_1 + \epsilon}$. Thus, $\ell_H(p, 1) - \ell_H(q, 1) > 1 - \frac{p_1}{p_2} = \frac{2\epsilon}{p_1 + \epsilon}$. And so

$$\ell_\alpha(p, y) - \ell_\alpha(q, y) > \epsilon \left[ \frac{\alpha}{p_1} + \frac{2(1 - \alpha)}{p_1 + \epsilon} \right]$$

(8)

Finally, when $y = 2$ we have $\ell_L(p, 2) - \ell_L(q, 2) = -\ln \frac{p_2}{q_2} > \frac{q_2 - p_2}{p_1} = \frac{2\epsilon}{p_1}$ and $\ell_H(p, 2) - \ell_H(q, 2) = (1 - \ln \frac{p_1}{p_2}) - (1 - \ln \frac{q_1}{q_2}) = \ln \frac{p_1}{p_2} > 1 - \frac{p_1}{p_2} = \frac{2\epsilon}{p_1 + \epsilon}$. Thus,

$$\ell_\alpha(p, 2) - \ell_\alpha(q, 2) > -\epsilon \left[ \frac{\alpha}{p_1} + \frac{2(1 - \alpha)}{p_1 + \epsilon} \right].$$

(9)

Putting the inequalities (7), (8) and (9) together yields

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{L_\alpha(p, D) - L_\alpha(q, D)}{\epsilon}$$

$$> \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} (D_1 - D_2) \left[ \frac{\alpha}{p_1} + \frac{2(1 - \alpha)}{p_1 + \epsilon} \right] - \sum_{y=3}^k D_y \frac{1}{p_1}$$

$$= \frac{D_1 - D_2}{p_1} (2 - \alpha) - \frac{1}{p_1} \left( D_1 - D_2 \right) (1 - \alpha)$$

$$= \frac{1}{p_1} (D_1 - D_2 + (1 - \alpha)(2D_1 - 1)).$$

Observing that since $D_1 > D_2$, when $D_1 > \frac{1}{2}$ the final term is positive without any constraint on $\alpha$ and when $D_1 < \frac{1}{2}$ the difference in risks is positive whenever

$$\alpha > 1 - \frac{D_1 - D_2}{1 - 2D_1}$$

(10)

completes the proof.

B Proof of Necessity of FCC

The proof is by contradiction. We assume we have a regular function class $\mathcal{F}$ and a loss $\ell$ which is $\mathcal{F}$-consistent but not FCC. That is, (6) holds for $\ell$ but there exists a distribution $p$ over $\mathcal{Y}$ such that there is a $g \in \mathbb{R}^\mathcal{Y}$ which minimises the conditional risk $L_p(g)$ but $\arg\max_{g \in \mathcal{Y}} g_y \neq \arg\max_{g \in \mathcal{Y}} g_y$. By the assumption of the regularity of $\mathcal{F}$ there is an $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and a $f \in \mathcal{F}$ so that $f(x) = g$. We now define a distribution $D$ over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ that puts all its mass on the set $\{x\} \times \mathcal{Y}$ so that $D(x, y) = p_y$. Since this distribution is concentrated on a single $x$ its full risk and conditional risk on $x$ are the same. That is, $L_{D}(\cdot) = L_p(\cdot)$. Thus,

$$L_D(f) = L_p(f) = \inf_{f' \in \mathcal{F}} L_p(f') = \inf_{f' \in \mathcal{F}} L_D(f')$$

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By the assumption of $\mathcal{F}$-consistency, since $f$ is a minimiser of $L_D$ it must also minimise $e_D$. Once again, the construction of $D$ means that $e_D(f) = e_p(g) = \mathbb{P}_{y \sim P}[y \neq \text{argmax}_{y' \in y} y'] = 1 - p_{y_f}$ where $y_f = \text{argmax}_y g_y$ is the label predicted by $g$. However,

$$e_D(f) = e_p(g) = 1 - p_{y_f} > 1 - p_y^*$$

since $y_* = \text{argmax}_y p_y \neq \text{argmax}_y g_y = y_f$.

By the second regularity property, there must also be an $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\text{argmax}_y \hat{f}_y(x) = y^*$ so that $e_D(f) > \inf_{f' \in \mathcal{F}} e_D(f') = e_D(\hat{f}) = 1 - p_{y^*}$. Thus, we have shown that there exists a distribution $D$ so $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is a minimiser of the risk $L_D$ but is not a minimiser of the misclassification rate $e_D$ which contradicts the assumption of the $\mathcal{F}$-consistency of $\ell$. Therefore, $\ell$ must be FCC.

\section{Proof for PAC-Bayes Bounds}

For explicitly, we rewire $M$ and $p_y$ as $M(x, y; w)$ and $p(y|x; w)$ when they are parameterized by $w$.

\textbf{Theorem 4 (Generalisation Bound)} For any data distribution $D$, for any prior $P$ over $w$, for any $\delta \in (0, 1]$ and $\alpha \in [0, 1)$ and for any $\gamma \geq 0$, for any $w$, with probability at least $1 - \delta$ over random samples $S$ from $D$ with $m$ instances, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_D \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right] \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+$$

$$+ \frac{1}{(1 - \alpha)} \left( \alpha \sqrt{\frac{1}{m}} + \frac{\ln \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(w)} + \ln A(\alpha, w) + \ln \frac{1}{\gamma(1 - e^{-\gamma})}}{2m} \right),$$

where

$$R(\alpha, w) = \alpha \mathbb{E}_D \left[ -\ln p(y|x; w) \right] + (1 - \alpha) \mathbb{E}_D \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right],$$

$$R_S(\alpha, w) = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m -\ln p(y_i|x_i; w) \right]_+ + \left( 1 - \alpha \right) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+}{m},$$

$$A(\alpha, w) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^m} e^{2m(R(\alpha, w) - R_S(\alpha, w))^2}.$$

Here $A$ is upper bounded independently of $D$. For example, for a zero-one loss, it is upper bounded by $m + 1$ (see [2]). The theorem gives a bound on the true margin error of the hybrid model. The theorem follows theorem 8 in the appendix immediately.

\textbf{Lemma 5 (PAC-Bayes bound[3, 4])} For any data distribution $D$, for any prior $P$ and posterior $Q$ over $w$, for any $\delta \in (0, 1]$ for any loss $\ell$. With probability at least $1 - \delta$ over random sample $S$ from $D$ with $m$ instances, we have

$$R(Q, \ell) \leq R_S(Q, \ell) + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P)}{2m} + \ln \left( \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}_{x \sim D^m} e^{2m(R(Q, \ell) - R_S(Q, \ell))^2}} \right)}$$

where $\text{KL}(Q||P) := \mathbb{E}_{w \sim Q} \ln \frac{Q(w)}{P(w)}$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between $Q$ and $P$, and $R(Q, \ell) = \mathbb{E}_{Q, D}[\ell(x, y; w)], R_S(Q, \ell) = \mathbb{E}_Q \sum_{i=1}^m \ell(x_i, y_i; w).$
Theorem 6 (Bound on Averaging classifier) For any data distribution $D$, for any prior $P$ and posterior $Q$ over $w$, for any $\delta \in (0, 1]$ and $\alpha \in [0, 1)$ and for any $\gamma \geq 0$. With probability at least $1 - \delta$ over random sample $S$ from $D$ with $m$ instances, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ \gamma - M(x, y; w) \right] \leq \frac{1}{m} \mathbb{E}_{Q} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ \gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w) \right] \right] + \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \sqrt{\frac{\mathbb{D}(Q \| P) + \ln A(\alpha) + \ln \frac{1}{\delta(1 - e^{-2})}}{2m}}},$$

where $\mathbb{D}(Q \| P) := \mathbb{E}_{w \sim Q} \ln \left( \frac{Q(w)}{P(w)} \right)$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence between $Q$ and $P$, and

$$R(\alpha) = \alpha \mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ - \ln p(y|x; w) \right] + (1 - \alpha) \mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ \left( \gamma - M(x, y; w) \right) \right],$$

$$R_S(\alpha) = \mathbb{E}_{Q} \left[ \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{m} - \ln p(y_i|x_i; w) \right] + (1 - \alpha) \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w) \right),$$

$$A(\alpha) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim D^m} \mathbb{E}_{w \sim P} e^{2m(R(\alpha) - R_S(\alpha))^2}.$$

**Proof** Since $\mathbb{E}_{D} \left( \mathbb{E}_{Q} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} - \ln p(y_i|x_i; w) \right] \right) = \mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ - \ln p(y|x; w) \right]$, by Chernoff bound we have

$$\mathbb{P}_{S \sim D^m} \left( \mathbb{E}_{Q} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} - \ln p(y_i|x_i; w) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ - \ln p(y|x; w) \right] < \epsilon \right) > 1 - e^{-2m\epsilon^2}.$$

Define $B(S) := \mathbb{E}_{Q} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} - \ln p(y_i|x_i; w) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{Q,D} \left[ - \ln p(y|x; w) \right]$. 

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Applying Lemma 5 for $R(\alpha)$ and $R_S(\alpha)$, we have for any $P, Q$

$$\delta > P_{S \sim D_m}\left( R(\alpha) \geq R_S(\alpha) + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}} \right)$$

$$\geq P_{S \sim D_m}\left( R(\alpha) \geq R_S(\alpha) + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}}, B(S) < \epsilon \right)$$

$$\geq P_{S \sim D_m}\left( (1 - \alpha) E_{Q,D} \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right] \geq (1 - \alpha) \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+}{m} + \alpha \epsilon + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}} B(S) < \epsilon \right)$$

$$= P_{S \sim D_m}\left( (1 - \alpha) E_{Q,D} \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right] \geq (1 - \alpha) \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+}{m} + \alpha \epsilon + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}} B(S) < \epsilon \right)$$

$$\geq P_{S \sim D_m}\left( (1 - \alpha) E_{Q,D} \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right] \geq (1 - \alpha) \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+}{m} + \alpha \epsilon + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}} \right) P_{S \sim D_m}(B(S) < \epsilon)$$

Divide two sides by $P_{S \sim D_m}(B(S) < \epsilon)$, we get

$$P_{S \sim D_m}\left( (1 - \alpha) E_{Q,D} \left[ (\gamma - M(x, y; w))_+ \right] \geq (1 - \alpha) \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\gamma - M(x_i, y_i; w))_+}{m} + \alpha \epsilon + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q||P) + \ln \frac{1}{2} + \ln A(\alpha)}{2m}} \right) \leq \frac{\delta}{P_{S \sim D_m}(B(S) < \epsilon)} \leq \frac{\delta}{1 - e^{-2m \epsilon^2}}.$$  

Let $\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m}}$, and then let $\delta' = \frac{\delta}{1 - e^{-2m \epsilon^2}} = \frac{\delta}{1 - e^{-2}}$, we get $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{\delta' (1 - e^{-2})}$. The theorem follows by substituting $\delta$ with $\delta'$ and dividing by $(1 - \alpha)$ on both sides of the inequality inside of the probability.  

$$\blacksquare$$