

A Hybrid Loss for Multiclass and Structured Prediction

Qinfeng Shi, Mark Reid, Tiberio Caetano, Anton van den Hengel, and Zhenhua Wang

Abstract—We propose a novel hybrid loss for multiclass and structured prediction problems that is a convex combination of a 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 between the probabilities of the best label and the second best label. 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 least as well as—and often better than—both of its constituent losses on a variety of tasks, such as human action recognition. In doing so we also provide an empirical comparison of the efficacy of probabilistic and margin based approaches to multiclass and structured prediction.

Index Terms—Conditional random fields, support vector machines, hybrid loss, fisher consistency, structured learning

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 not—classification is performed without any attempt to model probabilities. Both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses. CRFs [10], [16] are known to yield the Bayes optimal solution asymptotically but do not have known tight generalisation bounds. In contrast, SVMs have tighter generalisation bounds which typically shrink as the margin grows, and can easily incorporate interesting label-cost such as F1 score or hamming distance in structured cases. But SVMs could be inconsistent when there are more than two classes [11], [18].

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 (Section 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 (Section 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 (Section 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 (Section 3.2). Finally, we empirically test the hybrid loss on various domains including multiclass classification, text chunking, human action recognition and show it consistently performs as least as well as—and often better than—both of its constituent losses (Section 5).

2 LOSSES

In classification problems *observations* $x \in \mathcal{X}$ are paired with *labels* $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ via some joint distribution D over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$. 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 \mathcal{Y} can be thought of as vectors in \mathbb{R}^k for $k = |\mathcal{Y}|$. We will also use p and q to denote distributions over \mathcal{Y} but reserve their use for distributions generated by models.

2.1 Multiclass Prediction

When the number of possible labels is $k = |\mathcal{Y}| > 2$ the classification problem is known as a *multiclass* classification problem.

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 $h : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ 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 estimate of the risk for a *surrogate loss* ℓ . Examples of surrogate losses will be discussed below.

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

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

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 $h_f(x) = \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} f_y(x)$ where ties are broken in some arbitrary but deterministic way (see Section 3.2 for details). We will overload the definition of misclassification error and sometimes write $e_D(f)$ as shorthand for $e_D(h_f)$.

A common surrogate loss for multiclass problems is a generalisation of the binary class hinge loss used for SVMs [6]:

$$\ell_H(f, y) = [1 - M(f, y)]_+, \quad (2)$$

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 [11], [18], these cannot scale up to a large k . For example, the multiclass hinge loss $\sum_{j \neq y} [1 + f_j(x)]_+$ is shown to be consistent in [11]. However, it requires evaluating f on all possible labels except the true y . This is intractable for labels where the possible assignments grow exponentially. The other known and consistent multiclass hinge losses have similar intractability.

2.2 Structured Prediction

In the multiclass case $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ are assumed i.i.d. However, in many cases, they are not i.i.d. Structured prediction [1] can deal with these cases by grouping correlated labels to form a structured label y . Here the structured label y can be any object associated with x . For example, for the automated paragraph breaking problem, the input x is a document, and the output y is a sequence whose entries denote the beginning positions of the paragraphs. For image segmentation, the input x is an n_1 by n_2 image, and the structured label y is a 2-D lattice $\{y^{i,j}\}_{i=1,\dots,n_1; j=1,\dots,n_2}$. The framework of Probabilistic Graphical Models (PGMs) [8] provides a principled way of modelling the dependencies of the components of y . For a y with L components i.e., $y = (y^1, y^2, \dots, y^L)$, the graph of PGM $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ consists of the node set $\mathcal{V} = \{1, \dots, L\}$ and the edge set \mathcal{E} that reflects the dependencies. Assuming each component $y^j \in \{1, \dots, c\}$ for all j , there are $k = c^L$ many possible assignments for y . In other words, such a structured label y can be seen as a multiclass problem with k many classes in theory, although many multiclass algorithms will be intractable in the structured case.

Once the structured labels are formed, we can assume the structured input-output pairs $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$ are i.i.d. from some joint distribution. The predictors h or the models f can be learned in a fashion similar to (1). 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 $\Omega(f) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|^2$ 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 5. Although much of our analysis does not assume any particular parametric model, we explicitly discuss the implications of doing so in Section 3.2.

2.3 Probabilistic Interpretation and the Hybrid Loss

CRFs are based on a model whereby

$$p_y(x; f) = \frac{\exp(f_y(x))}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(f_y(x))}, \quad (3)$$

and use the log loss

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

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

We can see that (3) provides a probabilistic interpretation of the scores of $f_y(x)$. It is easy to show that under this interpretation the hinge loss for $p = p(\cdot; f)$ is given by

$$\ell_H(p, y) = \left[1 - \ln \frac{p_y}{\max_{y' \neq y} p_{y'}} \right]_+.$$

We now propose a novel *hybrid loss* that is a combination of the hinge and log losses

$$\ell_\alpha(p, y) = \alpha \ell_L(p, y) + (1 - \alpha) \ell_H(p, y), \quad (4)$$

where the 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 α close to 0 will emphasise having the maximum gap between the largest and second largest label probabilities while an α close to 1 will force models to prefer accurate probability assessments over strong classification.

This family of hybrid losses is similar to a recent proposal by Zhang et al. [20]. They also define a single parameter family of loss functions called *coherence functions* that interpolate between hinge loss and a loss that is closely related to loss based on log-likelihood. Like the loss presented here, their losses are surrogates for 0-1 loss and both families have the hinge loss as a limit point. A key difference between the two proposals has to do with the consistency of losses in each family: the coherence losses are all Fisher consistent for probability estimation whereas the hybrid losses satisfy a weaker form of consistency which we call conditional Fisher Consistency for Classification and analyse below.

Despite of the properties of the coherence functions, using them in structured cases is intractable. They require the evaluation of a function $\beta_j(x)$ for all classes i.e., $j = 1, \dots, k$, see Algorithm 1 step 2 (c) in [20]. Note that k grows exponentially in structured cases. They encounter the same problem as other consistent multiclass SVMs. Our hybrid loss does not have this problem.

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. We are mainly concerned with distributions $D(x)$ over the set \mathcal{Y} for some fixed (but irrelevant) x . We will therefore overload D and use it to denote a distribution over \mathcal{Y} . Whether D represents a distribution over labels or a distribution over labels and observations should be clear from context.

We say a vector $f \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Y}}$ is *aligned* with a distribution D over \mathcal{Y} whenever maximisers of f are also maximisers for D . That is, when $\operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} f_y \subseteq \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} D_y$. Since the probabilistic models described in Section 2.3 pass the components of a vector $f(x)$ through \exp and rescale, it is clear that a prediction $f(x)$ is aligned with D if and only if $p_y(x; f)$ is aligned with D . Because of this correspondence, the following definitions of consistency are equivalent regardless of whether general models and losses or their probabilistic counterparts are used.

If, for all label distributions D , minimising the conditional risk $L(f, D) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim D}[\ell(f, y)]$ for a loss ℓ yields a vector f^* aligned with D we will say ℓ is *Fisher consistent for classification* (FCC)¹—or *classification calibrated* [18]. This is an important property for losses since it is related to the asymptotic consistency of the empirical risk minimiser for that loss [18, Theorem 2].

The standard multiclass hinge loss ℓ_H is known to be inconsistent for classification when there are more than two classes [11], [18]. The analysis in [11] shows that the hinge loss is inconsistent whenever there is an instance x with a *non-dominant* distribution—that is, $D_y(x) < 1/2$ for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Conversely, a distribution is *dominant* for an instance x if there is some y with $D_y(x) \geq 1/2$. 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 ℓ_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 require the following refined notion of Fisher consistency. If $D = (D_1, \dots, D_k)$ is a (conditional) distribution over the labels \mathcal{Y} then we say the loss ℓ is *conditionally FCC with respect to D* whenever minimising the conditional risk w.r.t. D , $L(f, D) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim D}[\ell(f, y)]$ yields a predictor f^* that is aligned with D . Of course, if a loss ℓ is conditionally FCC w.r.t. D for all D it is, by definition, (unconditionally) FCC.

The following theorem provides sufficient conditions on the hybrid parameter α in terms of a label distribution D so that the hybrid loss ℓ_α is conditionally FCC w.r.t. D .

1. Note that the Fisher consistency for classification is weaker than Fisher consistency for density estimation. The former requires the same prediction only, while the latter requires the estimated density is the same as the true data distribution. In this paper, we focus on the former only. For an analysis of Fisher consistency for density estimation, we refer the reader to [15].

Theorem 1. Let $D = (D_1, \dots, D_k)$ be a distribution over \mathcal{Y} and let $D_{\max} := \max_y D_y$ be the largest probability assigned to any $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Also let $\mathcal{Y}_{\max} := \{y : D_y = D_{\max}\}$ be the set of labels with maximal probability and $D_{\text{next}} := \max_{y \notin \mathcal{Y}_{\max}} D_y$ be the second largest probability assigned to a label, or $D_{\text{next}} = \infty$ if $\mathcal{Y}_{\max} = \mathcal{Y}$. Then the hybrid loss ℓ_α is conditionally FCC for D whenever $D_{\max} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ or

$$\alpha > 1 - \frac{D_{\max} - D_{\text{next}}}{1 - 2D_{\max}}. \quad (5)$$

The proof is by contradiction and proceeds at a high level by showing that if the distribution D satisfies $D_{\max} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ or (5) but the minimiser p of the risk $L_\alpha(p, D)$ is not aligned with D we derive a falsehood. The argument is broken into two cases: when the risk minimising distribution p has a unique maximum probability and when it does not. In both cases we show how to construct an alternative distribution q (that depends on D) such that $L_\alpha(q, D) < L(p, D)$, yielding the required contradiction. In the first case, q is obtained by swapping the most probable label of p with that of D . In the second case (when p has two or more most probable labels), q is obtained by perturbing p slightly towards D .

Proof. Since we are free to permute the labels within \mathcal{Y} , we will assume without loss of generality that there are t ties for the most probable label and that $\mathcal{Y}_{\max} = \{1, \dots, t\}$ and so $D_1 = \dots = D_t$. Defining $L_\alpha(p, D) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim D}[\ell_\alpha(p, y)]$, the proof now proceeds by contradiction by assuming that there is some minimiser $p = \operatorname{argmin}_q L_\alpha(q, D)$ that is not aligned with D . For this to occur there must be some label $y^* > t$ such that p_{y^*} is as least as large as p_1, \dots, p_t . For simplicity, and again without loss of generality, we will assume that y^* is the label with the largest probability according to p (that is, $y^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_y p_y$). We are also free to have permuted labels within \mathcal{Y}_{\max} to ensure $t \in \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}_{\max}} p_y$.

The first case to consider is when p_{y^*} is strictly larger than p_t . Here we construct a new distribution q that swaps the values of p_t and p_{y^*} and leaves all the other values unchanged. That is, $q_t = p_{y^*}$, $q_{y^*} = p_t$ and $q_y = p_y$ for all $y \in \mathcal{Y} - \{t, y^*\}$. Intuitively, we will now show that this new point is “closer” to D and therefore the CRF component of the loss will be reduced while the SVM component of the loss won’t increase. To do so, we consider the difference in conditional risks:

$$\begin{aligned} L_\alpha(p, D) - L_\alpha(q, D) &= \sum_{y=1}^k D_y \cdot (\ell_\alpha(p, y) - \ell_\alpha(q, y)), \\ &= D_t \cdot (\ell_\alpha(p, t) - \ell_\alpha(q, t)), \\ &\quad + D_{y^*} \cdot (\ell_\alpha(p, y^*) - \ell_\alpha(q, y^*)), \\ &= (D_t - D_{y^*}) (\ell_\alpha(q, y^*) - \ell_\alpha(q, t)), \end{aligned}$$

since $\ell_\alpha(p, t) = \ell_\alpha(q, y^*)$ and $\ell_\alpha(p, y^*) = \ell_\alpha(q, t)$ and the other terms cancel by construction. Since, by assumption $y^* > t$, we have $D_t - D_{y^*} > 0$, so all that is required now is to show that $\ell_\alpha(q, y^*) - \ell_\alpha(q, t) = \alpha \ln \frac{q_t}{q_{y^*}} + (1 - \alpha) (\ell_H(q, y^*) - \ell_H(q, t))$ is strictly positive.

Since $p_{y^*} = q_t > q_y$ for $y \neq t$ we have $\ln \frac{q_t}{q_{y^*}} > 0$, $\ell_H(q, y^*) = [1 - \ln \frac{q_{y^*}}{q_t}]_+ > 1$, and $\ell_H(q, t) = [1 - \ln \frac{q_t}{q_{y^*}}]_+ <$

1, and so $\ell_H(q, y^*) - \ell_H(q, t) > 1 - 1 = 0$. Thus, $\ell_\alpha(q, y^*) - \ell_\alpha(q, t) > 0$ as required. This gives a contradiction and thus establishes the theorem in the case where $p_{y^*} > p_t$.

Now suppose that $p_{y^*} = p_t$. That is, there is a tie for the maximum probability label in p and at least one of these maximising labels coincides with the maximising labels of D . In this case we show that a slight perturbation of p yields a new distribution q with a strictly smaller loss. To define q we let $\epsilon > 0$ and set $q_{y^*} = p_{y^*} + \epsilon$, $q_t = p_t - \epsilon$, and $q_y = p_y$ for all other $y \neq t, y^*$. Now, for $y \neq t, y^*$ we have $\ell_L(p, y) - \ell_L(q, y) = 0$. Also for $y \neq t, y^*$ we have $p_t > p_y$ and $q_{y^*} > q_y$ thus $\ell_H(p, y) - \ell_H(q, y) = 1 - \ln \frac{p_y}{p_t} - (1 - \ln \frac{q_y}{q_{y^*}}) = \ln \frac{p_t}{q_{y^*}} > 1 - \frac{q_y}{p_t} = -\frac{\epsilon}{p_t}$ since $-\ln x > 1 - x$ for $x > 0$ and $q_{y^*} = p_{y^*} + \epsilon = p_t + \epsilon$. By substituting this inequality into the definition of ℓ_α , we see that for all $y \neq t, y^*$

$$\ell_\alpha(p, y) - \ell_\alpha(q, y) > -\epsilon \frac{(1 - \alpha)}{p_1}. \quad (6)$$

For the label y^* we see that the log loss component of ℓ_α satisfies $\ell_L(p, y^*) - \ell_L(q, y^*) = -\ln \frac{p_{y^*}}{q_{y^*}} > \frac{q_{y^*} - p_{y^*}}{q_{y^*}} = \frac{\epsilon}{q_{y^*}}$ and the difference between the hinge loss components becomes $\ell_H(p, y^*) - \ell_H(q, y^*) = (1 - \ln \frac{p_{y^*}}{p_t}) - (1 - \ln \frac{q_{y^*}}{q_t}) = \ln \frac{q_{y^*}}{q_t} = \ln \frac{p_{y^*} + \epsilon}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon}$ since $p_{y^*} = p_t$. Thus $\ell_H(p, y^*) - \ell_H(q, y^*) > 1 - \frac{p_{y^*} - \epsilon}{p_{y^*} + \epsilon} = \frac{2\epsilon}{p_{y^*} + \epsilon}$. And so

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_\alpha(p, y^*) - \ell_\alpha(q, y^*) &> \epsilon \left[\frac{\alpha}{p_{y^*} + \epsilon} + \frac{2(1 - \alpha)}{p_{y^*} + \epsilon} \right] \\ &= \epsilon \frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*} + \epsilon} > \epsilon \frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*}}, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

since $\epsilon > 0$ and $\alpha \leq 1$. Finally, for the label t we have $\ell_L(p, t) - \ell_L(q, t) = -\ln \frac{p_t}{q_t} > \frac{q_t - p_t}{q_t} = \frac{-\epsilon}{q_t} = \frac{-\epsilon}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon}$ since $q_t = p_t - \epsilon$ and $p_t = p_{y^*}$. Similarly, $\ell_H(p, t) - \ell_H(q, t) = (1 - \ln \frac{p_t}{p_t}) - (1 - \ln \frac{q_t}{q_t}) = \ln \frac{q_t}{q_{y^*}} > 1 - \frac{q_{y^*}}{q_t} = \frac{-2\epsilon}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_\alpha(p, t) - \ell_\alpha(q, t) &> -\epsilon \left[\frac{\alpha}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon} + \frac{2(1 - \alpha)}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon} \right] \\ &= -\epsilon \frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*} - \epsilon} > -\epsilon \frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*}}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Putting the inequalities (6), (7) and (8) together yields

$$\begin{aligned} L_\alpha(p, D) - L_\alpha(q, D) &> D_{y^*} \epsilon \left[\frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*}} \right] - D_t \epsilon \left[\frac{2 - \alpha}{p_{y^*}} \right] - \sum_{y \neq y^*, t} D_y \epsilon \frac{1 - \alpha}{p_{y^*}} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{p_{y^*}} [(D_{y^*} - D_t)(2 - \alpha) - (1 - D_{y^*} - D_t)(1 - \alpha)], \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{p_{y^*}} [D_{y^*} - D_t + (1 - \alpha)(2D_{y^*} - 1)]. \end{aligned}$$

Since $D_{y^*} > D_t$, when $D_{y^*} \geq \frac{1}{2}$ the final term is non-negative without any additional constraint on $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ and since $D_{y^*} > D_t$, the difference in risks is thus

positive. When $D_{y^*} < \frac{1}{2}$ the difference in risks is positive whenever

$$\alpha > 1 - \frac{D_{y^*} - D_t}{1 - 2D_{y^*}}. \quad (9)$$

Observing that $D_{max} = D_{y^*}$ and $D_{next} = D_t$ completes the proof. \square

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 α will yield consistent predictions. Specifically, the hybrid loss will be consistent if, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $q = D(x)$ has no dominant label (i.e., $D_y(x) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$), 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 [4]. Both conditions are non-constructive as they depend on the unknown distribution but provide some guidance as to the effect of parameter choices (i.e., α for the hybrid loss and regularisation constants for SVMs). Exploring the relationship between conditional FCC and the Tsybakov noise condition 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 \mathcal{F} of functions from $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Y}}$ instead of all possible functions. We now show that, given some weak assumptions on the hypothesis class \mathcal{F} , a loss being FCC is a necessary condition if the loss is also to be \mathcal{F} -consistent.

We say a loss ℓ is \mathcal{F} -consistent if, for any distribution, minimising its associated risk over \mathcal{F} yields a classifier with minimal 0-1 loss in \mathcal{F}^2 . Recall from Section 2.2 that the risk of a hypothesis $f \in \mathcal{F}$ associated with a loss ℓ and distribution D over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ is $L_D(f) = \mathbb{E}_D[\ell(y, f(x))]$ and the 0-1 risk or misclassification error for f is $e_D(f) = \mathbb{P}_D[h(x) \neq y]$ where h is some classifier deterministically derived by some tie-breaking procedure on f . More precisely, we will say a tie-breaker T is a function from the power set of \mathcal{Y} to \mathcal{Y} that guarantees $T(Y) \in Y$ for all non-empty $Y \subset \mathcal{Y}$. Finally, we define $h_f(x) = T(\text{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} f_y(x))$ to be the classifier derived from f using T .

Given a function class \mathcal{F} we say ℓ is \mathcal{F} -consistent if, for all distributions D and all tie-breakers T defining the classifiers h_f ,

$$L_D(f^*) = \inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} L_D(f) \implies e_D(h_{f^*}) = \inf_{f \in \mathcal{F}} e_D(h_f). \quad (10)$$

2. While this is simpler and stronger than the usual asymptotic notation of consistency [12] it most readily relates to FCC and suffices for our discussion since we are only establishing that FCC is a necessary condition.

We need a relatively weak condition on function classes \mathcal{F} to state our theorem. We say a class \mathcal{F} is *regular* if the following two properties hold: 1) For any $g \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{Y}}$ there exists an $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and an $f \in \mathcal{F}$ so that $f(x) = g$; and 2) For any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ there exists an $f \in \mathcal{F}$ so that there is a unique $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ which maximises $f_y(x)$.

Intuitively, the first 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 by a function that has no ties for its maximum value. 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.*

Proof. The proof is by contradiction. We assume we have a regular function class \mathcal{F} and a loss ℓ which is \mathcal{F} -consistent but not FCC. That is, (10) holds for ℓ 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 g is not aligned with p (i.e., $\text{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} g_y \notin \text{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p_y$).

By the assumption of the regularity of \mathcal{F} , property 1 means 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,

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

By the assumption of \mathcal{F} -consistency, since f is a minimiser of L_D the classifier h_f must also minimise e_D for any choice of tie-breaker T used to define h_f . Because $g = f(x)$, the construction of D implies that $e_D(h_f) = e_p(h_g) = \mathbb{P}_{y \sim p}[y \neq h_g(x)] = 1 - p_{y_g}$ where $y_g = h_g(x)$ is the label predicted by h_g . However, since g is not aligned with p by assumption and (10) holds for any T , we are free to choose the tie-breaker T defining h_g so that $h_g(x) = T(\text{argmax}_y g_y(x)) \notin \text{argmax}_y p_y$. Thus

$$e_D(h_f) = e_p(h_g) = 1 - p_{y_g} > 1 - p_{y^*}, \quad (11)$$

since $y_g \neq y^* \in \text{argmax}_y p_y$.

By the second regularity property, there must also be an $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{F}$ such that y^* is the unique maximiser of $\hat{f}_y(x)$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Since y^* is a unique maximiser, any choice of tie-breaker T will result in a classifier satisfying $h_{\hat{f}}(x) = y^*$ as any T must guarantee $T(\{y\}) \in \{y\}$ for all $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. Therefore, we arrive at the contradiction

$$1 - p_{y^*} = e_D(h_{\hat{f}}) \geq e_D(h_f) > 1 - p_{y^*},$$

since h_f is a minimiser of e_D and $e_D(h_f) > 1 - p_{y^*}$ by (11). Thus, we have shown that there exists a distribution D so $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is a minimiser of the risk L_D but h_f is not a minimiser of the misclassification rate e_D , contradicting

the assumption of the \mathcal{F} -consistency of ℓ . Therefore, ℓ must be FCC. \square

The above analysis of the hybrid loss suggests it should 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 are confirmed in the next section 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 compare the hybrid loss with the log and hinge losses on several real structured estimation problems and observe that the hybrid loss regularly outperforms the other losses and consistently performs at least as well as either of the other losses on any problem.

4 MULTICLASS CLASSIFICATION

Two types of multiclass simulations were performed. The first examined the performances of the hybrid, log and hinge losses when no observation 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.

4.1 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.

Fisher consistency analyses the behaviour of losses while observing the entire data population. To mimic seeing the entire data population and the dominant/non-dominant class case, we use a constant vector in \mathbb{R}^2 as features, and learn the parameter vectors $w_y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ for $y \in \mathcal{Y}$. The labels y take different values proportionally as follows: The label set \mathcal{Y} took the sizes $|\mathcal{Y}| = 3, 4, 5, \dots, 10'$. One label $y^* \in \mathcal{Y}$ is 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. This way, the size of training data does not affect the training error as long as the proportions of y values are not altered. In the same vein, the proportions of y values in the test data are the same as that in the training data, thus test errors and training errors should be the same in this case. Thus we plot the resulting training errors (and the test errors) for hinge, log and hybrid losses in Fig. 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.

Models were found using LBFGS [3] with inexact line search, thus landing on the hinge point almost never happens. In theory, it is a problem—it may not converge

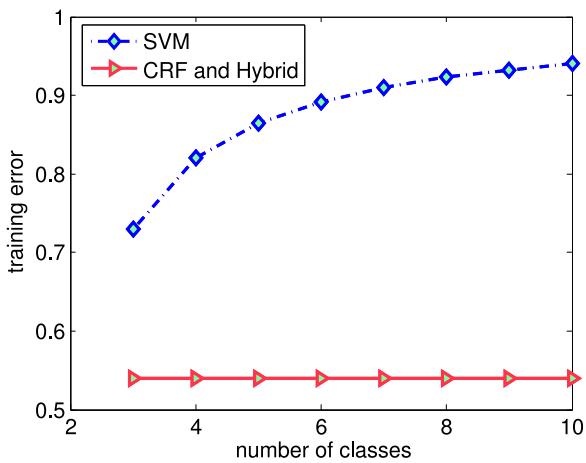


Fig. 1. Training Error with various number of classes. $\alpha = 0.5$ for the hybrid loss. Fisher consistency analyses the behaviour of a loss observing the entire data population. Thus the training data are the entire data, so are the testing data. Consequently, the training error is the testing error.

for the non-smooth optimisation problem. But in practice, it works well.

4.2 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 ρ).

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 $y = 1, \dots, 5$. The proportion ρ ranged over 10 values $\rho = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, \dots, 1$ and for each ρ , test and validation sets of size 1,000 were generated. Training set sizes of $m = 30, 60, 100, 300, 600, 1,000$ were used for each ρ value for a total of 60 training sets. The optimal regularisation parameter λ and hybrid loss parameter α 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 Fig. 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.

5 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 of one phrase while leaving the rest unchanged should not drastically change the probability predictions—especially when there are ambiguities. Due to the prevalence of non-dominant distributions, we expect models trained using the hinge loss to perform poorly on these problems relative to those trained with hybrid or log losses. We emphasise that our main motivation for investigating structured prediction problems is that, as multiclass problems, they tend to have non-dominant distributions.

5.1 CONLL2000 Text Chunking

Our first structured estimation experiment is carried out on the CONLL2000 text chunking task [5]. The data set has 8,936 training sentences and 2,012 test sentences with 106,978 and 23,852 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., $y = (y^1, y^2, \dots, y^L)$, where y^j is the chunking tag for chunk j . As is common in this task, the label y is modelled as a chain-structured graphical model to account for the dependency between adjacent chunking tags (y_i^j, y_{i+1}^{j+1}) given observation x_i . Clearly, the model has exponentially many possible labels, which suggests the absence of a dominant class.

Since the true underlying distribution is unknown, we train a CRF on the training set and then apply the trained

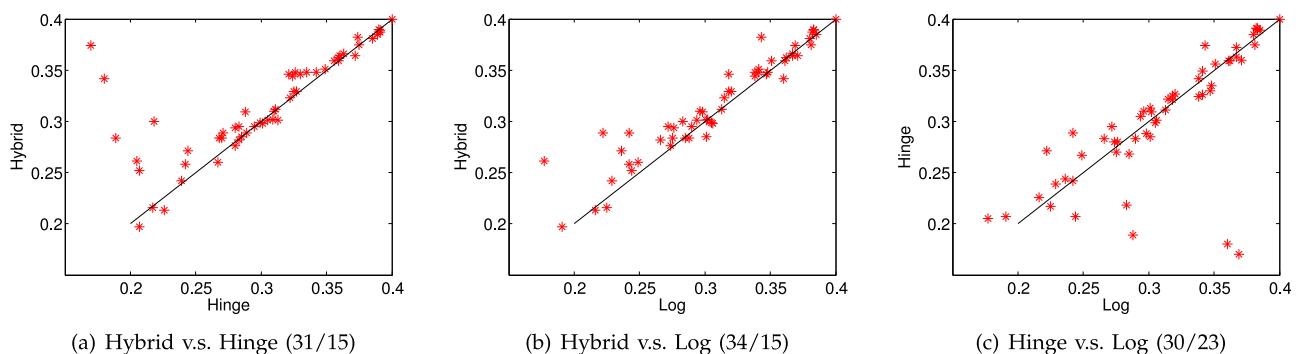


Fig. 2. Performance of the hybrid, hinge, and log losses on non-dominant/dominant mixtures. Points denote pairs of test accuracies for models trained on one of 60 data sets using the losses named on the axes. Score (a/b) denotes the vertical loss with a wins and b losses (ties not counted).

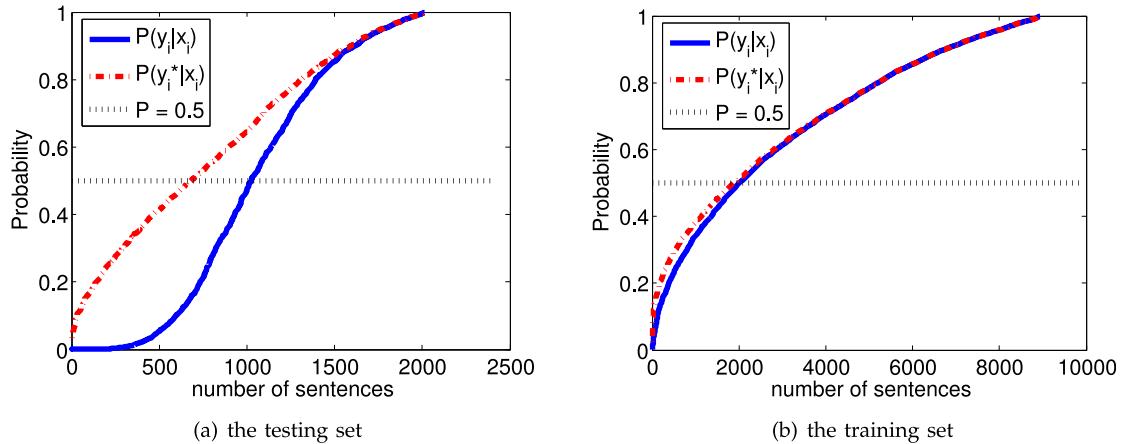


Fig. 3. Estimated probabilities of the true label $D_{y_i}(x_i)$ and most likely label $D_{y_i^*}(x_i)$. Sentences are sorted according to $D_{y_i}(x_i)$ and $D_{y_i^*}(x_i)$ respectively in ascending order. $D = 1/2$ is shown as the straight black dot line. About 700 sentences out of 2,012 in the testing set and 2,000 sentences out of 8,936 in the training set have no dominant label.

model to both testing and training data sets to obtain 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 Fig. 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 use the feature template from the CRF++ toolkit [9], and the CRF code from Leon Bottou [2]. Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) [2] is used for training. During training, dynamic programming (i.e., Viterbi algorithm) for inference is used. We split the data into three parts: training (20 percent), testing (40 percent) and validation (40 percent). The regularisation parameter λ and the weight α 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 the test set are reported in Table 1 when using 10 and 100 percent of the training set. The hybrid loss marginally outperforms both the hinge loss and the log loss.

5.2 BaseNP Chunking

A similar methodology to the previous experiment is applied to the BaseNP data set [9]. It has 900 sentences in total and the task is to automatically classify a chunking phrase as baseNP or not.

Again SGD [2] is used for training. During training, dynamic programming (i.e., Viterbi algorithm) for inference is used. We split the data into three parts: training (20 percent), testing (40 percent) and validation (40 percent). Once again, λ and α are determined via model selection on

the validation set. We report the test accuracy, precision, recall and F1 Score in Table 2 for training on increasing proportions of the training set. The hybrid marginally outperforms the other two losses on all measures.

5.3 Human Action Recognition

Here we consider recognising human actions in TV episodes, where each contains one or more persons and may interact with each other. We evaluate our method on the TVHI data set [14], which contains 300 short videos collected from TV episodes and includes five action classes: *handshake* (HS), *hug* (HG), *high-five* (HF), *kiss* (KS) and *others* (OT). Here a person labelled the action *others* means that there is no interaction between this person and any other persons in the image. Each video contains a number (up to seven) of people performing one of the five action classes. The ground-truth provided with the data set includes upper body bounding boxes, discrete body poses, the action labels and the interaction status between any pair of persons (i.e., a binary variable indicating whether there is an interaction). We manually choose 2,188 images from this data set and divide these examples into three sets without intersection: the training set (400 frames), the validating set (894 frames) and the testing set (894 frames). Here α is determined via model selection on the validation set. Note in [14] their task is to predict both interactions and actions, whereas here our task is to predict actions given interaction status. More specifically, our goal is to solve the estimation problem of finding the actions $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ of all subjects in an observation image $x \in \mathcal{X}$, given pairwise interaction status.

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

We use PGMs to model the dependency of the actions in the same image. Consider a graph $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ with each node $i \in \mathcal{V}$ representing an action variable y^i and each edge $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ reflecting the dependency of the two action variables. The edge set \mathcal{E} is constructed according to the annotated interaction status. If there is an interaction between two persons in the annotation, then an edge between two corresponding nodes is added to the edge set \mathcal{E} .

We cast this estimation problem as finding an energy function $E(x, y)$ such that for an observation image $x \in \mathcal{X}$, we assign the actions that receive the smallest energy with respect to E , that is

$$y^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} E(x, y; w). \quad (12)$$

Here we use the energy function E with unary terms U and pairwise terms S as follows,

$$E(x, y; w) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} U(y^i, x; w') + \sum_{(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}} S(y^i, y^j, x; w''), \quad (13)$$

where $w = [w'; w'']$, and

$$U(y^i, x; w') = \langle \phi_1(x^i, y^i) w' \rangle, \quad (14a)$$

$$S(y^i, y^j, x; w'') = \langle \phi_2(x^i, x^j, y^i, y^j) w'' \rangle. \quad (14b)$$

Here ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are node and edge features (which we will define later), and x^i is the sub-image of the bounding box on the i th subject. The model parameter w will be learned during training.

Our feature representation is a combination of several visual cues including multiclass SVM action classification scores, human body poses and the relative position between two individuals, which have been exploited to distinguish different actions in [13], [14]. Here we combine these visual cues in a similar way as [14]. To be specific, let $\mathbf{e}_1(y^i) \in \{0, 1\}^5$ represent an unit vector with the y^i th dimension equals 1 (0 elsewhere). Similarly, let $\mathbf{e}_2(r^{ij}) \in \{0, 1\}^6$ denote another unit vector with the r^{ij} th dimension equals 1 (0 elsewhere). Here r^{ij} denotes the relative position of person j to i . To compute r^{ij} , we employ a simple method in [14] which only requires the bounding boxes of person i and j . Each r^{ij} value represents a relative position in the set $\{\text{overlap, adjacent-left, adjacent-right, near-left, near-right, far}\}$. Let \otimes denote the Kronecker product. The features are defined as

$$\phi_1(x^i, y^i) = \mathbf{d}^i \otimes \mathbf{e}_1(y^i), \quad (15a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_2(x^i, x^j, y^i, y^j) &= \mathbf{e}_1(y^i) \otimes \mathbf{e}_1(y^j) \otimes \mathbf{e}_2(r^{ij}) \otimes \mathbf{o}^i \otimes \mathbf{o}^j \\ &\quad + \mathbf{e}_1(y^j) \otimes \mathbf{e}_1(y^i) \otimes \mathbf{e}_2(r^{ij}) \otimes \mathbf{o}^j \otimes \mathbf{o}^i, \end{aligned} \quad (15b)$$

where $\mathbf{d}^i \in \mathbb{R}^5$ is a score vector contains the action classification scores obtained by applying a multiclass SVM classifier to the histograms of gradients (HoG) descriptor

[7] extracted from the bounding box area of person i . Similarly, $\mathbf{o}^i \in \mathbb{R}^5$ represents another score vector of the pose classification scores (the descriptors for pose classification is the same as that used for action classification). Here we consider five body pose classes $\{\text{profile-left, profile-right, frontal-left, frontal-right, backwards}\}$. To extract the HoG features, we superimpose an 8×8 grid on the bounding box area and accumulate HoG for each grid cell using five orientation bins. The final descriptor is a concatenation of the sub-descriptors of all cells.

Intuitively, the node term U reflects the confidence of assigning person i the action label y^i observing x^i . The edge term S encodes the correlation between actions y^i and y^j observing x^i, x^j .

Implementing Kronecker product naively to compute energies could be memory and time consuming. Fortunately, we see that the feature vectors in (15) are highly sparse (especially the edge feature). Thus we only need to multiply the non-zero components of the feature vectors with corresponding components of the w without using Kronecker product.

Following the work of SVMs for structured prediction [19], the hinge loss in this case is

$$\ell_H(x, y, w) = [\Delta(y^\dagger, y) + E(x, y; w) - E(x, y^\dagger; w)]_+, \quad (16)$$

where

$$y^\dagger = \operatorname{argmin}_y (E(y, x_i; w) - \Delta(y, y_i)). \quad (17)$$

Here Δ is a label cost function (or distance) that describes the discrepancy of two labels. We use the popular Hamming distance, which is defined as

$$\Delta_{\text{Ham}}(y, y') = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{j=1}^L \delta(y^j \neq y'^j), \quad (18)$$

where $y = (y^j)_{j=1}^L$ and $y' = (y'^j)_{j=1}^L$.

For the log loss, let $E(x, y; w) = -f_y(x)$. Thus, according to (3) we have

$$p(y|x; w) = \frac{\exp(-E(x, y; w))}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(-E(x, y'; w))}. \quad (19)$$

So the log loss is

$$\ell_L(x, y, w) = -\log \left(\frac{\exp(-E(x, y; w))}{\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(-E(x, y'; w))} \right) \quad (20)$$

$$= E(x, y; w) + \log \left(\sum_{y' \in \mathcal{Y}} \exp(-E(x, y'; w)) \right). \quad (21)$$

According to (4) the hybrid loss is

$$\ell_\alpha(x, y, w) = \alpha \ell_L(x, y, w) + (1 - \alpha) \ell_H(x, y, w). \quad (22)$$

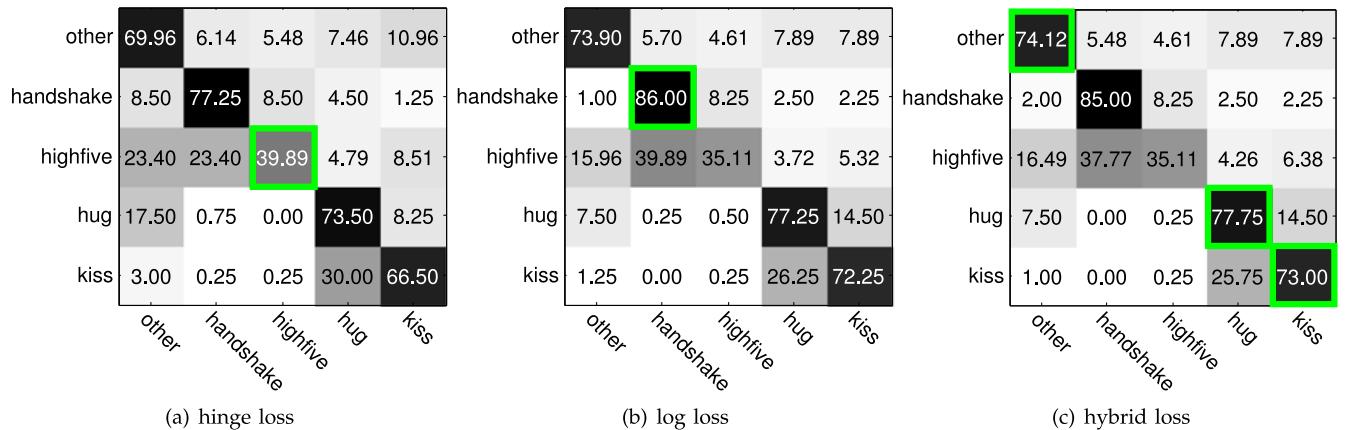


Fig. 4. Confusion matrices on the TVHI data set. For each class the best are highlighted by green rectangles. The hybrid loss achieves the best classification accuracy on three out of five action classes, i.e., *other*, *hug* and *kiss*.

The sub-gradient of the hybrid loss is simply a convex combination of the sub-gradient of the hinge loss and the gradient of the log loss. It is known that the sub-gradient of the hinge loss can be computed via standard MAP inference techniques, and the gradient of the log loss can be computed via standard marginal inference techniques. We use the max-product algorithm for the hinge loss and the sum-product algorithm for the log loss.

To accelerate the training, we apply the stochastic sub-gradient method from [17] to the hybrid loss. Here the maximum number of iterations is set to be 30 and the min-batch size is set to be 10. Once the parameters are learned, we use the standard max-product algorithm to make prediction on testing data.

In order to evaluate the recognition performance of different losses, we show the confusion matrices in Fig. 4. It can be seen that the hybrid loss achieves the best true positive rates on three classes (OT, HG and KS) out of five action classes, while the log loss and the hinge loss perform best on the HS class and the HF class respectively. Note all losses perform much worse on the HF class than the rest classes. This is because the training set is highly biased as the number of persons performing the *high-five* action in the training set is much less than other classes.

We also give some recognition examples as that shown in Fig. 5. The first column shows four input images, each containing multiple persons with occlusions making the recognition task difficult. As we can see, hinge loss performs worst with 10 persons out of 18 mislabelled. The log loss outperforms the hinge loss in general as five persons are misclassified. For the hybrid loss, persons in all images are perfectly classified except for the third image, where all three persons are misclassified.

6 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.

In general the consistency condition may not hold if α is selected by cross-validation. For example, when the selected α is very small. However, we observe the selected α values in our experiments are always very close to 1.

6.1 Future Work

Theoretically, we expect that some stronger sufficient conditions on α 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 α and the multiclass Tsybakov noise condition [4].

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

In structured prediction, there is still a big gap between the analysis and the practice. For example, in structured prediction, we know the parametric hinge loss is not consistent for binary label cost function, but we don't know whether the parametric hybrid loss is. Moreover, we don't have theoretical results for general label cost functions. To better connect our theory with actual practice on structured prediction problems, we plan to investigate consistency for general cost functions (e.g., Hamming loss) that are more commonly used in these problems.

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Fig. 5. Visualisation of some action predictions using different losses. **FIRST COLUMN:** the input images; **SECOND COLUMN:** the hinge loss results; **THIRD COLUMN:** the log loss results; **FOURTH COLUMN:** the hybrid loss results. The PGMS are superimposed on the images with green node and red node indicate correct and incorrect predictions respectively. Note OT, HS, HF, HG, KS denote five action classes: *others*, *handshake*, *highfive*, *hug*, *kiss*. The edges (line segments in pink) come from the interaction annotation in the data set, and are used to model the dependency between two action variables of subjects.

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