

048843

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## 1 Testing a simple active algorithm

### 1.1 Synthetic dataset

**a** Since  $\Sigma_+ = \Sigma_- = \Sigma$  and  $P(w_-) = P(w_+) = \frac{1}{2}$  we get that the Bayes Classifier is:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^{k/2} \cdot |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{(x-\mu_-)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu_-)} = \frac{1}{2\pi^{k/2} \cdot |\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{(x-\mu_+)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu_+)} \quad (1)$$

Multiplying by  $2\pi^{k/2} \cdot |\Sigma|^{1/2}$  and taking log from both sides results with:

$$(x - \mu_-)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_-) = (x - \mu_+)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu_+)$$

Straightforward derivation leads to:

$$2x^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_- - \mu_+) = \mu_-^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_- - \mu_+^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_+$$

Thus we get

$$W = \Sigma^{-1} (\mu_- - \mu_+) ; \quad b = -\frac{1}{2} (\mu_-^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_- - \mu_+^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu_+)$$

**b** Here we apply same derivation but for the general case in which  $\Sigma_- \neq \Sigma_+$ , this results with:

$$\frac{1}{2\pi^{k/2} \cdot |\Sigma_-|^{1/2}} e^{(x-\mu_-)^T \Sigma_-^{-1} (x-\mu_-)} = \frac{1}{2\pi^{k/2} \cdot |\Sigma_+|^{1/2}} e^{(x-\mu_+)^T \Sigma_+^{-1} (x-\mu_+)} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{|\Sigma_+|^{1/2}}{|\Sigma_-|^{1/2}} e^{(x-\mu_-)^T \Sigma_-^{-1} (x-\mu_-)} = e^{(x-\mu_+)^T \Sigma_+^{-1} (x-\mu_+)} \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma_+|) - \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma_-|) + (x - \mu_-)^T \Sigma_-^{-1} (x - \mu_-) = (x - \mu_+)^T \Sigma_+^{-1} (x - \mu_+) \quad (4)$$

Defining  $c1 = \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma_+|) - \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma_-|)$  and simplifying the equation leads to

$$c1 + x^T (\Sigma_-^{-1} - \Sigma_+^{-1}) x + 2x^T (\Sigma_+ \mu_+ - \Sigma_- \mu_-) = \mu_+^T \Sigma_+ \mu_+ - \mu_-^T \Sigma_- \mu_- \quad (5)$$

Thus we results with quadratic classifier:  $x^T A x + x^T b + c$  where  $c = c1 + \mu_-^T \Sigma_- \mu_- - \mu_+^T \Sigma_+ \mu_+$ ,  $A = \Sigma_-^{-1} - \Sigma_+^{-1}$  and  $b = 2(\Sigma_+ \mu_+ - \Sigma_- \mu_-)$

c As can be seen in table 1 ,the first experiment in which the mean is normalized by  $\sqrt{d}$  the accuracy results is roughly constant while for the second experiment for which  $\mu_{+/-} = \pm(1, 1, \dots, 1)$  we get perfect classification for  $d \geq 20$

Experiment	d=1	d=20	d=50	d=200
$\mu_{\pm} = \pm(1, 1, \dots, 1)/\sqrt{d}$	84%	84.5%	83.5%	84.6%
$\mu_{\pm} = \pm(1, 1, \dots, 1)$	84%	100%	100%	100%

In both of the cases we get the same Bayes estimator (as seen in the first section, with this section's parameters):

$$W = (\mu_- - \mu_+) ; \quad b = -\frac{1}{2}(\mu_-^T \mu_- - \mu_+^T \mu_+) = 0$$

\*We get different  $W$ s but the result is a same classifier.

We can notice that the classifier, as expected is symmetric and is through the origin. more specifically, it does not change with the dimension.

For the normalized case: The distance between the means of the two distributions and the origin stays the same as the dimension increases

$$dist = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d (\mu_+ - 0)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d 1/d} = 1$$

For the non-normalized case: The distance between the means of the two distributions and the origin grows as the dimension increases

$$dist = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d (\mu_+ - 0)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d 1} = \sqrt{d}$$

For the normalized case, although the distance of the Gaussian means from the origin is constant and equal to the variance, thus we get constant accuracy of 85% (which makes as for each as for each Gaussian you have 50% that bigger/smaller then the mean and an additional 34% which still on the correct side of the hyper-plane) . For the non-normalized case the distance of the Gaussian's mean from the origin scales with  $\sqrt{d}$  thus for  $d = 20$  we get that the distance from the origin is between  $4\sigma - 5\sigma$  thus the classification is perfect.

## 1.2 Test Set Results

### Setting

Throughout the experiments we used sklearn package which includes a method to optimized the parameters, *SearchGridCV*. This method run hyper parameters tuning using a simple exhaustive grid search (nested for loops) and picks the best parameters based on the cross validation score. The results were averaged over 30 trials (runs in parallel) where in each round the pool/test/val dataset are randomly chosen out of 600

samples. We note that we used the scaled breast cancer dataset no further reprocessing was done to the datasets.

As can be seen in Figure 1. SIMPLE algorithm generalize better on the dataset as it improved its hyper-plane based on the points close to the margin.

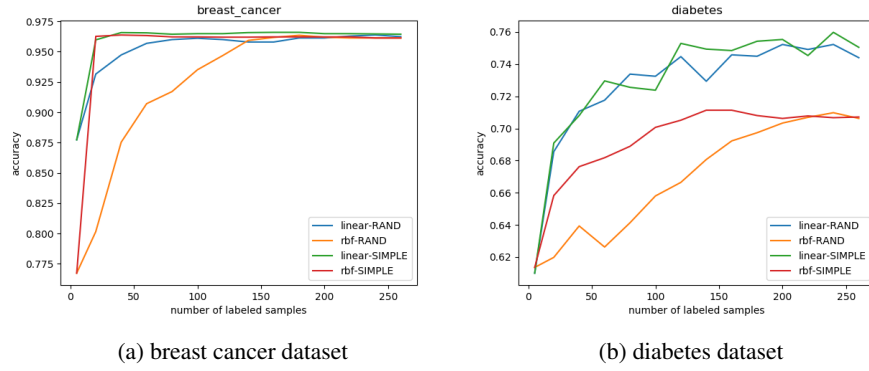


Figure 1: Accuracy (over the test set) per number of labeled samples for the "real" datasets

### 1.3 LOO Results

To reduce running time we used cross validation with five segments instead LOO. Here, by using SIMPLE algorithm we pick the hardest points to classify (the one closes to the margin, and test our performance on them. Thus, it falsely appears like that the SIMPLE algorithm perform worse then the RAND. However if we would test the SIMPLE algorithm on the subset of the training set chosen by the RAND algorithm we would see that it is actually better.

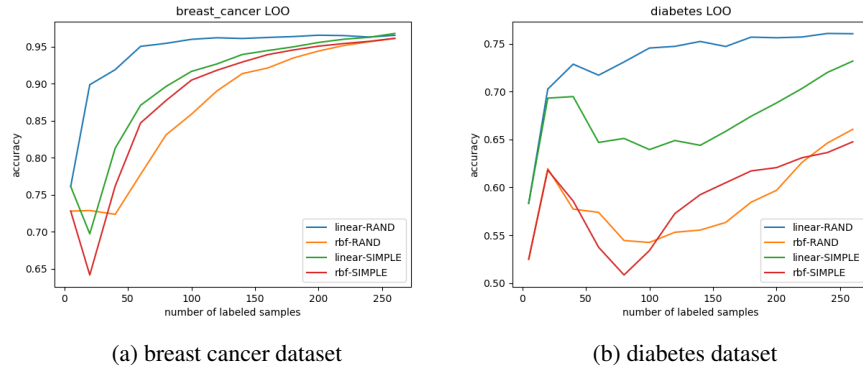
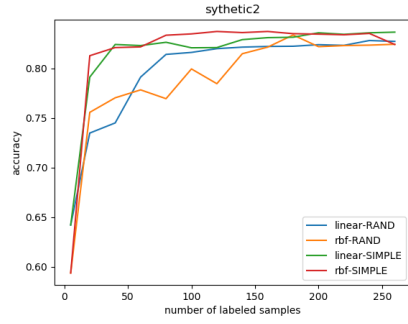


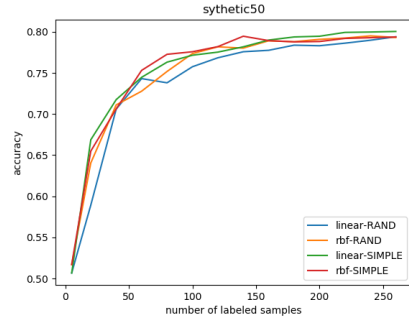
Figure 2: Accuracy (using LOO on the labeled samples) per number of labeled samples for the "real" datasets

#### 1.4 Synthetic dataset results

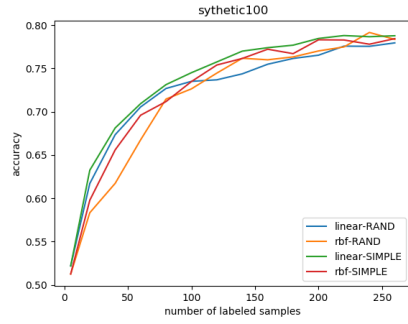
Here we see the same trends as in the "real" dataset. The SIMPLE algorithm generalize better on the test dataset and if you test the algorithms on the labeled points, since SIMPLE choose the ones closest to the margin its results are inferior, In addition we observe that the accuracy decreases with the problem dimension suggesting that the estimation error increases with the dimension. This means that ,although the Bayes estimator is a linear classifier thus the approximation error is zero the SVM can't find it. Since we know that the samples are not noisy, we simply need to increase the numbers of samples to achieve Bayes error.



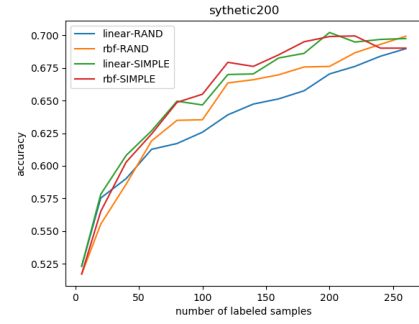
(a) Synthetic dataset with  $d=2$



(b) Synthetic dataset with  $d=50$

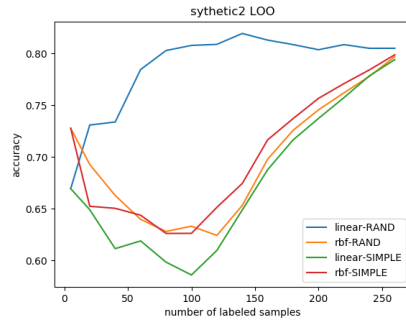


(c) Synthetic dataset with  $d=100$

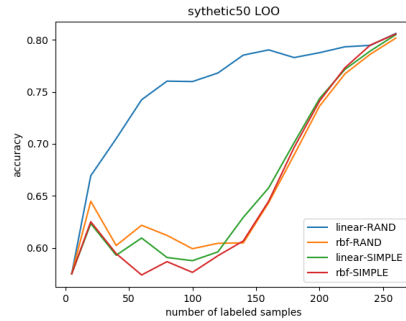


(d) Synthetic dataset with  $d=200$

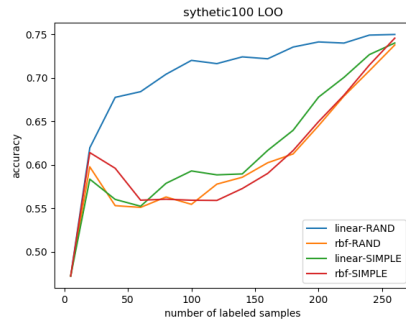
Figure 3: plots of synthetic dataset accuracy over the test set v.s number of labels sampled for  $d=2,50,100,200$



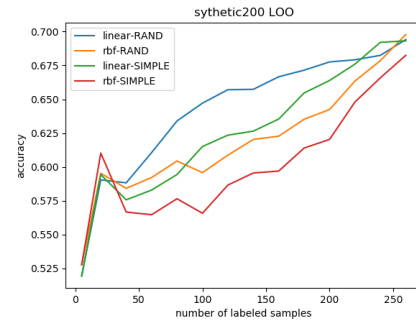
(a) Synthetic dataset with  $d=2$



(b) Synthetic dataset with  $d=50$



(c) Synthetic dataset with  $d=100$

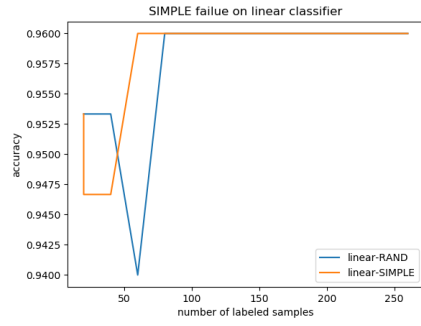


(d) Synthetic dataset with  $d=200$

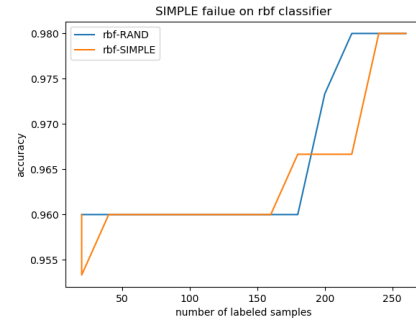
Figure 4: plots of synthetic dataset accuracy using LOO over the labels samples v.s number of labels sampled for  $d=2,50,100,200$

## 1.5 SIMPLE Algorithm Failures

For the linear classifier we'll use the 1D example from the lecture notes in which 95% of the data leads to a hyper-plane on the origin. Since, with high priority we would sample from those examples we won't see the rest of the 5% and if we would take a lot of samples until we'll get 97.5 accuracy. For the RBF kernel the example is similar only in 2D with circles. Thus we know that the classifier can reach 97.5% yet it requires almost all the samples to get to that accuracy



(a) breast cancer dataset



(b) diabetes dataset

Figure 5: Simple failure on RBF and Linear classifier





נדרש להחיות  $e$   $V_H = 3$  (כמה קבוצות 3 קבוצות)  
 ש"ה shattered

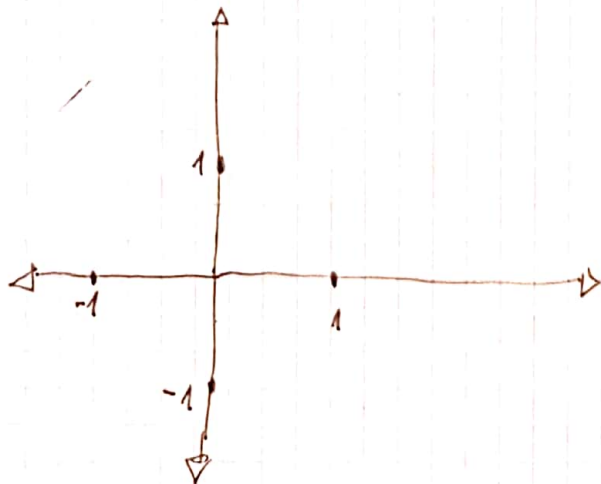
$$x_1 = \frac{2}{8}, x_2 = \frac{9}{8}, x_3 = \frac{14}{8}$$

נראה להלן טבלת קיים מסומן המסלול יוצא פשוט מה:

+++	$\Rightarrow \alpha = -5 \Rightarrow [-5, -4] \cup [-3, \infty)$
---	$\Rightarrow \alpha = 5 \Rightarrow [5, 6] \cup [7, \infty)$
++-	$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{2}{8} \Rightarrow [\frac{2}{8}, \frac{10}{8}] \cup [\frac{13}{8}, \infty)$
+-+	$\Rightarrow \alpha = -\frac{3}{8} \Rightarrow [-\frac{3}{8}, \frac{5}{8}] \cup [\frac{13}{8}, \infty)$
-++	$\Rightarrow \alpha = -1 \Rightarrow [-\frac{7}{8}, \frac{1}{8}] \cup [\frac{9}{8}, \infty)$
--+	$\Rightarrow \alpha = -\frac{13}{16} \Rightarrow [-\frac{13}{16}, \frac{3}{16}] \cup [\frac{19}{16}, \infty)$
-+-	$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{1}{8} \Rightarrow [\frac{1}{8}, \frac{3}{8}] \cup [\frac{5}{8}, \infty)$
+- -	$\Rightarrow \alpha = 0 \Rightarrow [0, 1] \cup [2, \infty)$

$$V_H = 3$$

$\mathcal{C} =$

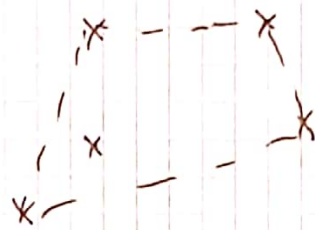


(3) ניהול קבוצות:

$\Rightarrow$  רצף של  
 שטחים ופולי  
 מרכזים "ע"  
 המערכת

נראה כי אולי יש 5 קבוצות לא מובחנות "המערכת"  
 וכן  $V_H = 5$ .

תבונן ב-5 נקודות ובעזרתן תגלה את:



מקרה I: ישנה נקודה בערך הצורה הקובעת:

. עזימנו עמוד את הנקודות על הצורה כ-1 ואת הנקודות כ-2  
בצורת המעוק. כיצד היית מוציאים את הנקודה זו מהקובע?

~~מקרה II: אין נקודה במעוק~~

הסברתי: אם הנקודות על הצורה בערך המעוק ולא כן א הקווים  
המתקנים בעזרת בערך המעוק ולכן א הצורה הקובעת  
בערך המעוק ולא ניתן שיהיה נקודה תהיה מחוץ אליו.

מקרה II: אין נקודה במעוק!  $P_1$   $P_2$

תבונן בעזרת המעוקל בייצוג ומחצית בייצוג בין 5 הנקודות  
(ככל נמצא הן שניתן ומחצית)

איתן נבחר ע"פ ב-1 ולכן בסיס המעוקל צריך לעבור  
מפנק ל-2 והוא המעוקל המעוקל  $P_1$ . כעת את המעוקל  
הנקודות מעבר יזנו ומאליק המעוקל ישר את המעוקל.  
נשאר את 3 הנקודות מעבר כ-1, 2, 3. בסדר המעוקל  
זמן י:  $(P_1) < (P_2) < (P_3)$  (ככל נמצא אין שמיון)  
נמצא לכיוון ואין נקודה בערך הצורה הקובעת:

באשר המעוקל בין  $P_1$  ל-3 צריך לעבור מתחת  $P_2$ .  
עבור ציור:  $P_1, P_2, P_3$  צריך להיות יעצור מתחת  
 $P_1$  ו-3 ונמצא את זה כ-1, 2, 3.  
אז נשאר ע"פ סוגי המעוקל.

מקרה III: אין נקודה מעבר ומאליק מתחת בייצוג ומחצית בייצוג

יתירות הנקודות המחצית ומחצית כמקור.

(ii) אם יש שתי נקודות מעבר ישנן תצפיות בייצוג (מחצית ומחצית בייצוג)

בתי ספר חרדיים הנקודת ישיבה ישיבה ונשיא מנהל.  
אשר שייך (גל) = (גל) א. הנהגה נשיא נבחר.



## (II) אינטגרציה על ידי חלקים

הנחה:

$$P(X > t) \leq C e^{-2nt^2}$$

$$E(X^2) = \int_0^\infty P(X^2 \geq t) dt = \int_0^a P(X^2 \geq t) dt + \int_a^\infty P(X^2 \geq t) dt$$

$$\stackrel{\text{גבול}}{\rightarrow} \leq a + \int_a^\infty P(X^2 \geq t) dt = a + \int_a^\infty P(X \geq \sqrt{t}) dt$$

$$\stackrel{P < 1}{\rightarrow} \leq a + C \int_a^\infty e^{-2nt} dt = a + \frac{C e^{-2na}}{2n}$$

$$\text{כאן } a = \log(C)/n \text{ נבחר}$$

$$E[X^2] \leq \frac{\log(C)}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n} = \frac{\log(ce)}{2n}$$

$$E[X] \leq \sqrt{E[X^2]} \leq \sqrt{\frac{\log(ce)}{2n}} \quad \text{כאן}$$

## (III) דistance - I

הנחה:  $P$  ו- $P'$  הם פונקציות

$$d(h, h') = P\{h(x) \neq h'(x)\} \geq 0$$

$$d(h, h') = d(h', h) = P(h(x) \neq h'(x))$$

אם  $h = h'$  אז

$$d(h, h) = P(h(x) \neq h(x)) = 0$$

אם  $h \neq h'$  אז  $\exists x$  עבורו  $h(x) \neq h'(x)$  (אז  $P(h(x) \neq h'(x)) > 0$ )

$$d(h, h') \neq 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 d(h, h') + d(h', h'') &= \rho(h(x) \neq h'(x)) + \rho(h'(x) \neq h''(x)) \\
 &\geq \rho(h'(x) \neq h''(x) \wedge h(x) = h'(x)) \\
 &\quad + \rho(h(x) \neq h''(x) \wedge h(x) \neq h'(x)) \\
 &= \rho(h(x) \neq h''(x)) = d(h, h'')
 \end{aligned}$$

$$OIS(B(h, \varepsilon/\sqrt{d})) = \quad (2)$$

$$= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists h, h' \in B(h, \varepsilon/\sqrt{d}) \text{ with } h(x) \neq h'(x)\}$$

$$B(h, \varepsilon/\sqrt{d}) = \{h' \in H : d(h, h') \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}}\}$$

המרחק בין  $h$  ל- $h'$  הוא  $\frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}}$  כאשר  $\varepsilon$  הוא המרחק בין  $h$  ל- $h'$  ב- $\mathbb{R}^d$

$$\begin{aligned}
 d(h, h') &= \rho\{h(x) \neq h'(x)\} = \frac{V(\{h(x) \neq h'(x) : x \in \text{unit-ball}\})}{V_d} \\
 &= \frac{V(\{\text{sign}(\omega \cdot x) \neq \text{sign}(\omega' \cdot x) : x \in \text{unit-ball}\})}{V_d}
 \end{aligned}$$

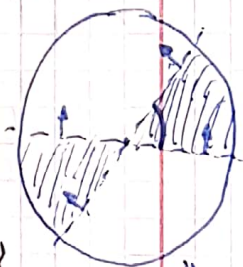
המרחק בין  $\omega$  ל- $\omega'$  הוא  $\arccos(\omega \cdot \omega')$

$$\Rightarrow B(h, \varepsilon/\sqrt{d}) = \{h' \in H : \frac{\arccos(\omega \cdot \omega')}{\pi} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}}\} =$$

$$= \{h' \in H : \frac{\arccos(\omega' \cdot \omega)}{\pi} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}}\}$$

$$= \{h' \in H : \omega' \cdot \omega \geq \cos(\frac{\pi \varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}})\}$$

$$\Rightarrow OIS[B(h, \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}})] = \{x \in \text{unit-ball} : |x \cdot \omega| \leq \sin(\frac{\pi \varepsilon}{\sqrt{d}})\}$$



המרחק בין  $\omega$  ל- $\omega'$  הוא  $\arccos(\omega \cdot \omega')$