Batch Normalization

One way to make deep networks easier to train is to use more sophisticated optimization procedures such as SGD+momentum, RMSProp, or Adam. Another strategy is to change the architecture of the network to make it easier to train. One idea along these lines is batch normalization which was proposed by [3] in 2015.

The idea is relatively straightforward. Machine learning methods tend to work better when their input data consists of uncorrelated features with zero mean and unit variance. When training a neural network, we can preprocess the data before feeding it to the network to explicitly decorrelate its features; this will ensure that the first layer of the network sees data that follows a nice distribution. However, even if we preprocess the input data, the activations at deeper layers of the network will likely no longer be decorrelated and will no longer have zero mean or unit variance since they are output from earlier layers in the network. Even worse, during the training process the distribution of features at each layer of the network will shift as the weights of each layer are updated.

The authors of [3] hypothesize that the shifting distribution of features inside deep neural networks may make training deep networks more difficult. To overcome this problem, [3] proposes to insert batch normalization layers into the network. At training time, a batch normalization layer uses a minibatch of data to estimate the mean and standard deviation of each feature. These estimated means and standard deviations are then used to center and normalize the features of the minibatch. A running average of these means and standard deviations is kept during training, and at test time these running averages are used to center and normalize features.

It is possible that this normalization strategy could reduce the representational power of the network, since it may sometimes be optimal for certain layers to have features that are not zero-mean or unit variance. To this end, the batch normalization layer includes learnable shift and scale parameters for each feature dimension.

[3] <u>Sergey Ioffe and Christian Szegedy, "Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift", ICML 2015. (https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.03167)</u>

In [1]:

```
# As usual, a bit of setup
import time
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from cs682.classifiers.fc net import *
from cs682.data utils import get CIFAR10 data
from cs682.gradient check import eval numerical gradient, eval numerical gradient a
from cs682.solver import Solver
%matplotlib inline
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (10.0, 8.0) # set default size of plots
plt.rcParams['image.interpolation'] = 'nearest'
plt.rcParams['image.cmap'] = 'gray'
# for auto-reloading external modules
# see http://stackoverflow.com/questions/1907993/autoreload-of-modules-in-ipython
%load ext autoreload
%autoreload 2
def rel_error(x, y):
    """ returns relative error """
    return np.max(np.abs(x - y) / (np.maximum(1e-8, np.abs(x) + np.abs(y))))
def print mean std(x,axis=0):
    print(' means: ', x.mean(axis=axis))
             stds: ', x.std(axis=axis))
    print('
    print()
```

In [2]:

```
# Load the (preprocessed) CIFAR10 data.
data = get CIFAR10 data()
for k, v in data.items():
  print('%s: ' % k, v.shape)
          (49000, 3, 32, 32)
X_train:
y_train:
          (49000,)
X val: (1000, 3, 32, 32)
y_val: (1000,)
X_test: (1000, 3, 32, 32)
         (1000,)
y test:
```

In []:

Batch normalization: forward

In the file cs682/layers.py, implement the batch normalization forward pass in the function batchnorm forward. Once you have done so, run the following to test your implementation.

Referencing the paper linked to above would be helpful!

In [3]:

```
# Check the training-time forward pass by checking means and variances
# of features both before and after batch normalization
# Simulate the forward pass for a two-layer network
np.random.seed(231)
N, D1, D2, D3 = 200, 50, 60, 3
X = np.random.randn(N, D1)
W1 = np.random.randn(D1, D2)
W2 = np.random.randn(D2. D3)
a = np.maximum(0, X.dot(W1)).dot(W2)
print('Before batch normalization:')
print mean std(a,axis=0)
gamma = np.ones((D3,))
beta = np.zeros((D3,))
# Means should be close to zero and stds close to one
print('After batch normalization (gamma=1, beta=0)')
a_norm, _ = batchnorm_forward(a, gamma, beta, {'mode': 'train'})
print mean std(a norm,axis=0)
gamma = np.asarray([1.0, 2.0, 3.0])
beta = np.asarray([11.0, 12.0, 13.0])
# Now means should be close to beta and stds close to gamma
print('After batch normalization (gamma=', gamma, ', beta=', beta, ')')
a norm, = batchnorm forward(a, gamma, beta, {'mode': 'train'})
print mean std(a norm,axis=0)
Before batch normalization:
  means: [ -2.3814598 -13.18038246
                                       1.917804621
  stds:
          [27.18502186 34.21455511 37.68611762]
After batch normalization (gamma=1, beta=0)
  means:
          [4.44089210e-17 8.27116153e-17 4.46864767e-17]
  stds:
          [0.99999999 1.
                                 1.
After batch normalization (gamma= [1. 2. 3.] , beta= [11. 12. 13.] )
          [11. 12. 13.]
  means:
  stds:
          [0.9999999 1.99999999 2.99999999]
```

In [4]:

```
# Check the test-time forward pass by running the training-time
# forward pass many times to warm up the running averages, and then
# checking the means and variances of activations after a test-time
# forward pass.
np.random.seed(231)
N, D1, D2, D3 = 200, 50, 60, 3
W1 = np.random.randn(D1, D2)
W2 = np.random.randn(D2, D3)
bn param = {'mode': 'train'}
qamma = np.ones(D3)
beta = np.zeros(D3)
for t in range(50):
 X = np.random.randn(N. D1)
  a = np.maximum(0, X.dot(W1)).dot(W2)
  batchnorm forward(a, gamma, beta, bn param)
bn param['mode'] = 'test'
X = np.random.randn(N, D1)
a = np.maximum(0, X.dot(W1)).dot(W2)
a norm, = batchnorm forward(a, gamma, beta, bn param)
# Means should be close to zero and stds close to one, but will be
# noisier than training-time forward passes.
print('After batch normalization (test-time):')
print mean std(a norm,axis=0)
```

```
After batch normalization (test-time):
    means: [-0.03927354 -0.04349152 -0.10452688]
    stds: [1.01531428 1.01238373 0.97819988]
```

Batch normalization: backward

Now implement the backward pass for batch normalization in the function batchnorm backward.

To derive the backward pass you should write out the computation graph for batch normalization and backprop through each of the intermediate nodes. Some intermediates may have multiple outgoing branches; make sure to sum gradients across these branches in the backward pass.

Once you have finished, run the following to numerically check your backward pass.

In [5]:

```
# Gradient check batchnorm backward pass
np.random.seed(231)
N, D = 4, 5
x = 5 * np.random.randn(N, D) + 12
gamma = np.random.randn(D)
beta = np.random.randn(D)
dout = np.random.randn(N, D)
bn param = {'mode': 'train'}
fx = lambda x: batchnorm forward(x, gamma, beta, bn param)[0]
fg = lambda \ a: batchnorm forward(x, a, beta, bn param)[0]
fb = lambda b: batchnorm forward(x, gamma, b, bn param)[0]
dx num = eval numerical gradient array(fx, x, dout)
da num = eval numerical gradient array(fg, gamma.copy(), dout)
db num = eval numerical gradient array(fb, beta.copy(), dout)
_, cache = batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
dx, dgamma, dbeta = batchnorm backward(dout, cache)
#print(dx)
#print(dx num)
#You should expect to see relative errors between 1e-13 and 1e-8
print('dx error: ', rel error(dx num, dx))
print('dgamma error: ', rel_error(da_num, dgamma))
print('dbeta error: ', rel_error(db_num, dbeta))
```

dx error: 1.6674604875341426e-09 dgamma error: 7.417225040694815e-13 dbeta error: 2.379446949959628e-12

Batch normalization: alternative backward

In class we talked about two different implementations for the sigmoid backward pass. One strategy is to write out a computation graph composed of simple operations and backprop through all intermediate values. Another strategy is to work out the derivatives on paper. For example, you can derive a very simple formula for the sigmoid function's backward pass by simplifying gradients on paper.

Surprisingly, it turns out that you can do a similar simplification for the batch normalization backward pass too.

Given a set of inputs
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}$$
, we first calculate the mean $\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N x_k$ and variance $v = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N (x_k - \mu)^2$.

With μ and v calculated, we can calculate the standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{v + \epsilon}$ and normalized data Y with $y_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}$.

The meat of our problem is to get $\frac{\partial L}{\partial X}$ from the upstream gradient $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}$. It might be challenging to directly reason about the gradients over X and Y - try reasoning about it in terms of x_i and y_i first.

You will need to come up with the derivations for $\frac{\partial L}{\partial x_i}$, by relying on the Chain Rule to first calculate the intermediate $\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x_i}$, $\frac{\partial v}{\partial x_i}$, $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x_i}$, then assemble these pieces to calculate $\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_i}$. You should make sure each of the intermediary steps are all as simple as possible.

After doing so, implement the simplified batch normalization backward pass in the function batchnorm_backward_alt and compare the two implementations by running the following. Your two implementations should compute nearly identical results, but the alternative implementation should be a bit faster.

In [18]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
N, D = 100, 500
x = 5 * np.random.randn(N, D) + 12
gamma = np.random.randn(D)
beta = np.random.randn(D)
dout = np.random.randn(N, D)
bn param = {'mode': 'train'}
out, cache = batchnorm forward(x, gamma, beta, bn param)
t1 = time.time()
dx1, dgamma1, dbeta1 = batchnorm backward(dout, cache)
t2 = time.time()
dx2, dgamma2, dbeta2 = batchnorm backward alt(dout, cache)
t3 = time.time()
print('dx difference: ', rel error(dx1, dx2))
print('dgamma difference: ', rel_error(dgamma1, dgamma2))
print('dbeta difference: ', rel_error(dbeta1, dbeta2))
print('speedup: %.2fx' % ((t2 - t1) / (t3 - t2)))
```

dx difference: 1.3759926013758996e-12

dgamma difference: 0.0 dbeta difference: 0.0

speedup: 1.64x

Fully Connected Nets with Batch Normalization

Now that you have a working implementation for batch normalization, go back to your FullyConnectedNet in the file cs682/classifiers/fc net.py . Modify your implementation to add batch normalization.

Concretely, when the normalization flag is set to "batchnorm" in the constructor, you should insert a batch normalization layer before each ReLU nonlinearity. The outputs from the last layer of the network should not be normalized. Once you are done, run the following to gradient-check your implementation.

HINT: You might find it useful to define an additional helper layer similar to those in the file cs682/layer utils.py . If you decide to do so, do it in the file cs682/classifiers/fc net.py .

```
In [7]:
```

```
np.random.seed(231)
N, D, H1, H2, C = 2, 15, 20, 30, 10
X = np.random.randn(N, D)
y = np.random.randint(C, size=(N,))
# You should expect losses between 1e-4~1e-10 for W,
# losses between 1e-08~1e-10 for b,
# and losses between 1e-08~1e-09 for beta and gammas.
for reg in [0, 3.14]:
  print('Running check with reg = ', reg)
  model = FullyConnectedNet([H1, H2], input dim=D, num classes=C,
                            reg=reg, weight scale=5e-2, dtype=np.float64,
                            normalization='batchnorm')
  loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
  print('Initial loss: ', loss)
  for name in sorted(grads):
    f = lambda : model.loss(X, y)[0]
    grad_num = eval_numerical_gradient(f, model.params[name], verbose=False, h=1e-5
    print('%s relative error: %.2e' % (name, rel error(grad num, grads[name])))
  if reg == 0: print()
```

```
Running check with reg = 0
Initial loss: 2.3004790897684924
W1 relative error: 1.48e-07
W2 relative error: 2.21e-05
W3 relative error: 3.53e-07
b1 relative error: 5.38e-09
b2 relative error: 2.09e-09
b3 relative error: 5.80e-11
Running check with reg = 3.14
Initial loss: 7.052114776533016
W1 relative error: 1.14e-08
W2 relative error: 6.87e-08
W3 relative error: 3.48e-08
b1 relative error: 1.48e-08
b2 relative error: 1.72e-09
b3 relative error: 1.80e-10
```

Batchnorm for deep networks

Run the following to train a six-layer network on a subset of 1000 training examples both with and without batch normalization.

In [8]:

np.random.seed(231)

```
# Try training a very deep net with batchnorm
hidden_dims = [100, 100, 100, 100, 100]
num train = 1000
small data = {
  'X_train': data['X_train'][:num_train],
  'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
  'X val': data['X val'],
  'y val': data['y val'],
}
weight scale = 2e-2
bn model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normalization=
model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normalization=Non
bn solver = Solver(bn model, small data,
                num epochs=10, batch size=50,
                update rule='adam',
                optim config={
                  'learning rate': 1e-3,
                verbose=True, print every=20)
bn solver.train()
solver = Solver(model, small data,
                num epochs=10, batch size=50,
                update rule='adam',
                optim config={
                  'learning rate': 1e-3,
                verbose=True, print every=20)
solver.train()
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE_STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs682/o
ptim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sqrt
 w += - config['learning rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config['v'])
+ config['epsilon'])
(Iteration 1 / 200) loss: 2.302838
(Epoch 0 / 10) train acc: 0.094000; val acc: 0.091000
(Epoch 1 / 10) train acc: 0.173000; val acc: 0.170000
(Iteration 21 / 200) loss: 2.142771
(Epoch 2 / 10) train acc: 0.239000; val acc: 0.206000
(Iteration 41 / 200) loss: 2.072768
(Epoch 3 / 10) train acc: 0.222000; val_acc: 0.226000
(Iteration 61 / 200) loss: 2.236435
(Epoch 4 / 10) train acc: 0.273000; val acc: 0.198000
(Iteration 81 / 200) loss: 1.918919
(Epoch 5 / 10) train acc: 0.335000; val acc: 0.282000
(Iteration 101 / 200) loss: 1.584420
(Epoch 6 / 10) train acc: 0.340000; val acc: 0.259000
(Iteration 121 / 200) loss: 1.824977
(Epoch 7 / 10) train acc: 0.390000; val_acc: 0.292000
(Iteration 141 / 200) loss: 1.596657
```

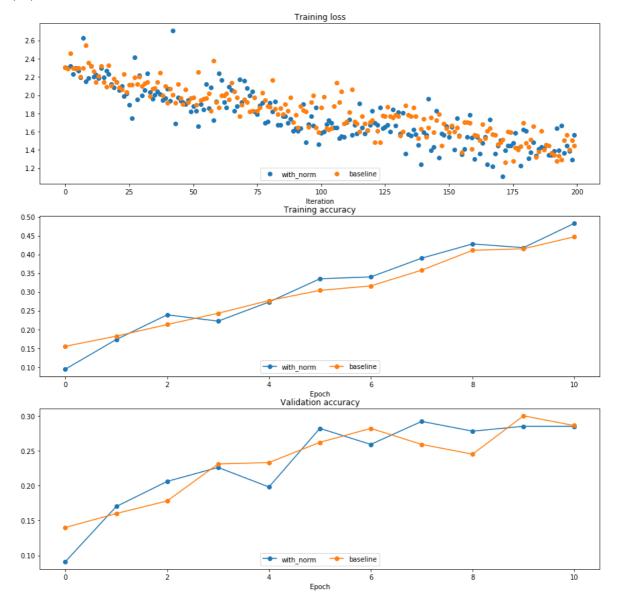
(Epoch 8 / 10) train acc: 0.428000; val acc: 0.278000

```
(Iteration 161 / 200) loss: 1.299441
(Epoch 9 / 10) train acc: 0.418000; val acc: 0.285000
(Iteration 181 / 200) loss: 1.606497
(Epoch 10 / 10) train acc: 0.483000; val_acc: 0.285000
(Iteration 1 / 200) loss: 2.302332
(Epoch 0 / 10) train acc: 0.155000; val acc: 0.140000
(Epoch 1 / 10) train acc: 0.182000; val acc: 0.160000
(Iteration 21 / 200) loss: 2.143171
(Epoch 2 / 10) train acc: 0.213000; val acc: 0.178000
(Iteration 41 / 200) loss: 1.915774
(Epoch 3 / 10) train acc: 0.243000; val acc: 0.231000
(Iteration 61 / 200) loss: 1.864075
(Epoch 4 / 10) train acc: 0.277000; val acc: 0.233000
(Iteration 81 / 200) loss: 1.873217
(Epoch 5 / 10) train acc: 0.304000; val acc: 0.262000
(Iteration 101 / 200) loss: 1.866051
(Epoch 6 / 10) train acc: 0.316000; val acc: 0.282000
(Iteration 121 / 200) loss: 1.722272
(Epoch 7 / 10) train acc: 0.358000; val_acc: 0.259000
(Iteration 141 / 200) loss: 1.743690
(Epoch 8 / 10) train acc: 0.411000; val acc: 0.245000
(Iteration 161 / 200) loss: 1.566057
(Epoch 9 / 10) train acc: 0.415000; val acc: 0.300000
(Iteration 181 / 200) loss: 1.477539
(Epoch 10 / 10) train acc: 0.447000; val acc: 0.286000
```

Run the following to visualize the results from two networks trained above. You should find that using batch normalization helps the network to converge much faster.

In [9]:

```
def plot training history(title, label, baseline, bn solvers, plot fn, bl marker='
    """utility function for plotting training history"""
    plt.title(title)
    plt.xlabel(label)
    bn plots = [plot fn(bn solver) for bn solver in bn solvers]
    bl plot = plot fn(baseline)
    num bn = len(bn plots)
    for i in range(num bn):
        label='with norm'
        if labels is not None:
            label += str(labels[i])
        plt.plot(bn_plots[i], bn_marker, label=label)
    label='baseline'
    if labels is not None:
        label += str(labels[0])
    plt.plot(bl plot, bl marker, label=label)
    plt.legend(loc='lower center', ncol=num bn+1)
plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
plot training history('Training loss','Iteration', solver, [bn solver], \
                      lambda x: x.loss history, bl marker='o', bn marker='o')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
plot_training_history('Training accuracy','Epoch', solver, [bn_solver], \
                      lambda x: x.train acc history, bl marker='-o', bn marker='-o'
plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
plot_training_history('Validation accuracy', 'Epoch', solver, [bn_solver], \
                      lambda x: x.val acc history, bl marker='-o', bn marker='-o')
plt.gcf().set size inches(15, 15)
plt.show()
```



Batch normalization and initialization

We will now run a small experiment to study the interaction of batch normalization and weight initialization.

The first cell will train 8-layer networks both with and without batch normalization using different scales for weight initialization. The second layer will plot training accuracy, validation set accuracy, and training loss as a function of the weight initialization scale.

In [10]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
# Try training a very deep net with batchnorm
hidden dims = [50, 50, 50, 50, 50, 50, 50]
num train = 1000
small data = {
  'X train': data['X train'][:num train],
  'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
  'X val': data['X val'],
  'y val': data['y val'],
}
bn solvers ws = \{\}
solvers ws = \{\}
weight scales = np.logspace(-4, 0, num=20)
for i, weight scale in enumerate(weight scales):
  print('Running weight scale %d / %d' % (i + 1, len(weight_scales)))
  bn model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normalization
  model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normalization=N
  bn solver = Solver(bn model, small data,
                  num epochs=10, batch size=50,
                  update rule='adam',
                  optim config={
                     'learning rate': 1e-3,
                  },
                  verbose=False, print every=200)
  bn solver.train()
  bn solvers ws[weight scale] = bn solver
  solver = Solver(model, small data,
                  num epochs=10, batch size=50,
                  update rule='adam',
                  optim config={
                     'learning rate': 1e-3,
                  },
                  verbose=False, print every=200)
  solver.train()
  solvers_ws[weight_scale] = solver
```

Running weight scale 1 / 20

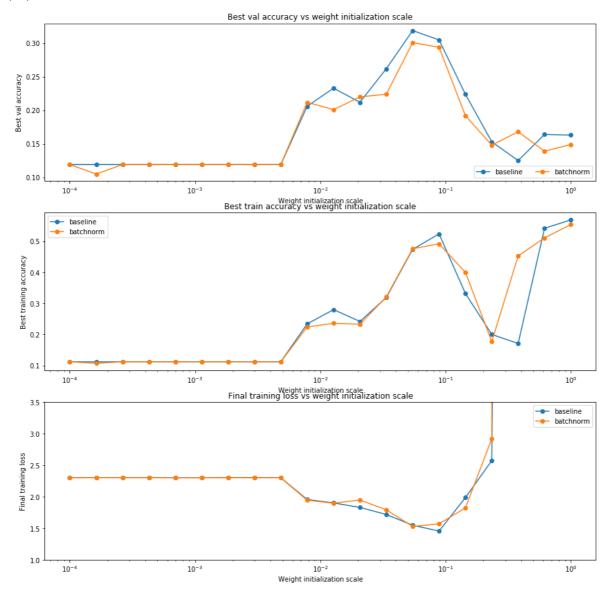
```
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE_STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs682/o
ptim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sqrt
    w += - config['learning_rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config['v'])
+ config['epsilon'])

Running weight scale 2 / 20
Running weight scale 3 / 20
Running weight scale 4 / 20
Running weight scale 4 / 20
Running weight scale 5 / 20
Running weight scale 6 / 20
Running weight scale 7 / 20
Running weight scale 8 / 20
Running weight scale 9 / 20
Running weight scale 10 / 20
Running weight scale 11 / 20
```

Running weight scale 12 / 20
Running weight scale 13 / 20
Running weight scale 14 / 20
Running weight scale 15 / 20
Running weight scale 16 / 20
Running weight scale 17 / 20
Running weight scale 18 / 20
Running weight scale 19 / 20
Running weight scale 20 / 20

In [11]:

```
# Plot results of weight scale experiment
best train accs, bn best train accs = [], []
best val accs, bn best val accs = [], []
final train loss, bn final train loss = [], []
for ws in weight scales:
  best train accs.append(max(solvers ws[ws].train acc history))
  bn best train accs.append(max(bn solvers ws[ws].train acc history))
  best val accs.append(max(solvers ws[ws].val acc history))
  bn best val accs.append(max(bn solvers ws[ws].val acc history))
  final train loss.append(np.mean(solvers ws[ws].loss history[-100:]))
  bn final train loss.append(np.mean(bn solvers ws[ws].loss history[-100:]))
plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
plt.title('Best val accuracy vs weight initialization scale')
plt.xlabel('Weight initialization scale')
plt.ylabel('Best val accuracy')
plt.semilogx(weight_scales, best_val_accs, '-o', label='baseline')
plt.semilogx(weight_scales, bn_best_val_accs, '-o', label='batchnorm')
plt.legend(ncol=2, loc='lower right')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
plt.title('Best train accuracy vs weight initialization scale')
plt.xlabel('Weight initialization scale')
plt.ylabel('Best training accuracy')
plt.semilogx(weight_scales, best_train_accs, '-o', label='baseline')
plt.semilogx(weight scales, bn best train accs, '-o', label='batchnorm')
plt.legend()
plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
plt.title('Final training loss vs weight initialization scale')
plt.xlabel('Weight initialization scale')
plt.ylabel('Final training loss')
plt.semilogx(weight scales, final_train_loss, '-o', label='baseline')
plt.semilogx(weight scales, bn final train loss, '-o', label='batchnorm')
plt.legend()
plt.gca().set ylim(1.0, 3.5)
plt.gcf().set size inches(15, 15)
plt.show()
```



Inline Question 1:

Describe the results of this experiment. How does the scale of weight initialization affect models with/without batch normalization differently, and why?

Answer:

Even with a bad initialization, batchnorm is less likely to be affected. I think this is because that normlization is done in every layer of the network so the size of the input to the next layer is relatively stable compared to that of the baseline model

Batch normalization and batch size

We will now run a small experiment to study the interaction of batch normalization and batch size.

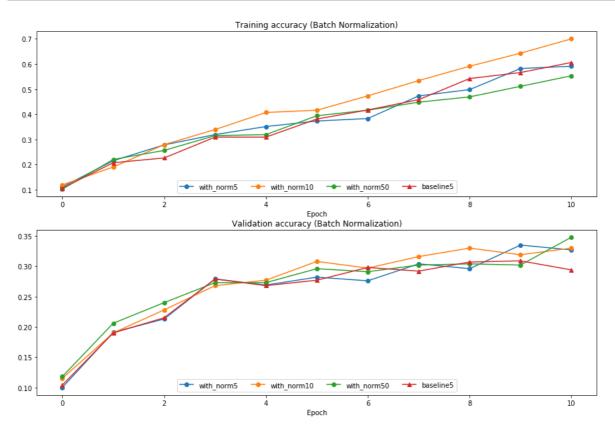
The first cell will train 6-layer networks both with and without batch normalization using different batch sizes. The second layer will plot training accuracy and validation set accuracy over time.

In [12]:

```
def run batchsize experiments(normalization mode):
    np.random.seed(231)
    # Try training a very deep net with batchnorm
    hidden dims = [100, 100, 100, 100, 100]
    num train = 1000
    small data = {
      'X_train': data['X_train'][:num_train],
      'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
      'X_val': data['X_val'],
      'y val': data['y val'],
    n epochs=10
    weight scale = 2e-2
    batch sizes = [5,10,50]
    lr = 10**(-3.5)
    solver bsize = batch sizes[0]
    print('No normalization: batch size = ',solver bsize)
    model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normalization
    solver = Solver(model, small data,
                    num epochs=n epochs, batch size=solver bsize,
                    update rule='adam',
                    optim config={
                      'learning rate': lr,
                    },
                    verbose=False)
    solver.train()
    bn solvers = []
    for i in range(len(batch sizes)):
        b size=batch sizes[i]
        print('Normalization: batch size = ',b size)
        bn model = FullyConnectedNet(hidden dims, weight scale=weight scale, normal
        bn solver = Solver(bn model, small data,
                        num epochs=n epochs, batch size=b size,
                        update rule='adam',
                        optim config={
                           'learning rate': lr,
                        verbose=False)
        bn solver.train()
        bn_solvers.append(bn_solver)
    return bn_solvers, solver, batch_sizes
batch sizes = [5,10,50]
bn solvers bsize, solver bsize, batch sizes = run batchsize experiments('batchnorm'
No normalization: batch size = 5
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE_STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs682/o
ptim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sqrt
 w += - config['learning rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config['v'])
+ config['epsilon'])
Normalization: batch size = 5
```

Normalization: batch size = 10 Normalization: batch size = 50

In [13]:



Inline Question 2:

Describe the results of this experiment. What does this imply about the relationship between batch normalization and batch size? Why is this relationship observed?

Answer:

Batch norm improves with larger batch size. This is because the on larger data sets it is normalised on larger data sizes

Layer Normalization

Batch normalization has proved to be effective in making networks easier to train, but the dependency on batch size makes it less useful in complex networks which have a cap on the input batch size due to hardware limitations.

Several alternatives to batch normalization have been proposed to mitigate this problem; one such technique is Layer Normalization [4]. Instead of normalizing over the batch, we normalize over the features. In other words, when using Layer Normalization, each feature vector corresponding to a single datapoint is normalized based on the sum of all terms within that feature vector.

[4] <u>Ba, Jimmy Lei, Jamie Ryan Kiros, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. "Layer Normalization." stat 1050 (2016): 21. (https://arxiv.org/pdf/1607.06450.pdf)</u>

Inline Question 3:

Which of these data preprocessing steps is analogous to batch normalization, and which is analogous to layer normalization?

- 1. Scaling each image in the dataset, so that the RGB channels for each row of pixels within an image sums up to 1.
- 2. Scaling each image in the dataset, so that the RGB channels for all pixels within an image sums up to 1.
- 3. Subtracting the mean image of the dataset from each image in the dataset.
- 4. Setting all RGB values to either 0 or 1 depending on a given threshold.

Answer:

batch normalization: Subtracting the mean image of the dataset from each image in the dataset. layer normalization: Scaling each image in the dataset, so that the RGB channels for all pixels within an image sums up to 1.

Layer Normalization: Implementation

Now you'll implement layer normalization. This step should be relatively straightforward, as conceptually the implementation is almost identical to that of batch normalization. One significant difference though is that for layer normalization, we do not keep track of the moving moments, and the testing phase is identical to the training phase, where the mean and variance are directly calculated per datapoint.

Here's what you need to do:

 In cs682/layers.py, implement the forward pass for layer normalization in the function layernorm_backward.

Run the cell below to check your results.

 In cs682/layers.py, implement the backward pass for layer normalization in the function layernorm_backward.

Run the second cell below to check your results.

Modify cs682/classifiers/fc_net.py to add layer normalization to the FullyConnectedNet.
 When the normalization flag is set to "layernorm" in the constructor, you should insert a layer normalization layer before each ReLU nonlinearity.

Run the third cell below to run the batch size experiment on layer normalization.

In [14]:

```
# Check the training-time forward pass by checking means and variances
# of features both before and after layer normalization
# Simulate the forward pass for a two-layer network
np.random.seed(231)
N, D1, D2, D3 = 4, 50, 60, 3
X = np.random.randn(N, D1)
W1 = np.random.randn(D1, D2)
W2 = np.random.randn(D2, D3)
a = np.maximum(0, X.dot(W1)).dot(W2)
print('Before layer normalization:')
print mean std(a,axis=1)
gamma = np.ones(D3)
beta = np.zeros(D3)
# Means should be close to zero and stds close to one
print('After layer normalization (gamma=1, beta=0)')
a norm, = layernorm forward(a, gamma, beta, {'mode': 'train'})
print_mean_std(a_norm,axis=1)
gamma = np.asarray([3.0,3.0,3.0])
beta = np.asarray([5.0,5.0,5.0])
# Now means should be close to beta and stds close to gamma
print('After layer normalization (gamma=', gamma, ', beta=', beta, ')')
a_norm, _ = layernorm_forward(a, gamma, beta, {'mode': 'train'})
print mean std(a norm,axis=1)
Before layer normalization:
         [-59.06673243 -47.60782686 -43.31137368 -26.40991744]
  means:
  stds:
          [10.07429373 28.39478981 35.28360729 4.01831507]
After layer normalization (gamma=1, beta=0)
  means:
         [-4.81096644e-16 0.00000000e+00 7.40148683e-17 -5.92118946
e-161
          [0.9999995 0.99999999 1.
  stds:
                                            0.999999691
After layer normalization (gamma= [3. 3. 3.], beta= [5. 5. 5.])
  means:
          [5. 5. 5. 5.]
          [2.99999985 2.99999998 2.99999999 2.999999907]
  stds:
```

In [15]:

```
# Gradient check batchnorm backward pass
np.random.seed(231)
N, D = 4, 5
x = 5 * np.random.randn(N, D) + 12
gamma = np.random.randn(D)
beta = np.random.randn(D)
dout = np.random.randn(N, D)
ln param = {}
fx = lambda x: layernorm forward(x, gamma, beta, ln param)[0]
fg = lambda a: layernorm_forward(x, a, beta, ln_param)[0]
fb = lambda b: layernorm forward(x, gamma, b, ln param)[0]
dx num = eval numerical gradient array(fx, x, dout)
da num = eval numerical gradient array(fg, gamma.copy(), dout)
db num = eval numerical gradient array(fb, beta.copy(), dout)
, cache = layernorm forward(x, gamma, beta, ln param)
dx, dgamma, dbeta = layernorm backward(dout, cache)
#You should expect to see relative errors between 1e-12 and 1e-8
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx num, dx))
#print(dx num)
#print(np.sum(dx, axis=0))
print('dgamma error: ', rel_error(da_num, dgamma))
#print(da num)
#print(dgamma)
print('dbeta error: ', rel error(db num, dbeta))
#print(db num)
#print(dbeta)
```

dx error: 2.107277492956569e-09 dgamma error: 4.519489546032799e-12 dbeta error: 2.5842537629899423e-12

Layer Normalization and batch size

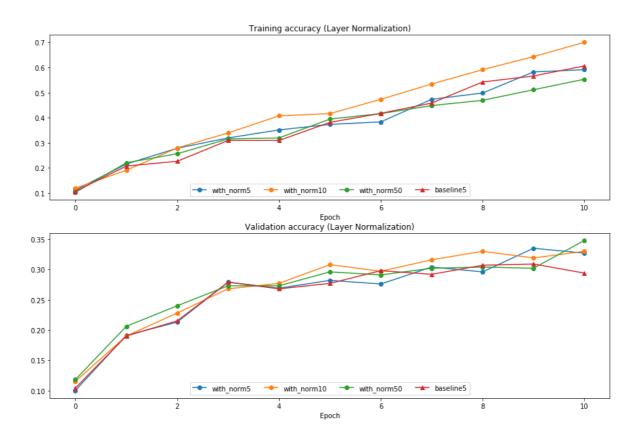
We will now run the previous batch size experiment with layer normalization instead of batch normalization. Compared to the previous experiment, you should see a markedly smaller influence of batch size on the training history!

In [16]:

```
No normalization: batch size = 5
```

```
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE_STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs682/o
ptim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sqrt
   w += - config['learning_rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config['v'])
+ config['epsilon'])
```

Normalization: batch size = 5 Normalization: batch size = 10 Normalization: batch size = 50



Inline Question 4:

When is layer normalization likely to not work well, and why?

- 1. Using it in a very deep network
- 2. Having a very small dimension of features

3. Having a high regularization term

Answer:

Having a high regularization term: This is because regularization tries to decrease the differences between the features. and this can affect the features and the layer now.

In []:		

Dropout

Dropout [1] is a technique for regularizing neural networks by randomly setting some features to zero during the forward pass. In this exercise you will implement a dropout layer and modify your fully-connected network to optionally use dropout.

[1] <u>Geoffrey E. Hinton et al, "Improving neural networks by preventing co-adaptation of feature detectors", arXiv 2012 (https://arxiv.org/abs/1207.0580)</u>

In [1]:

```
# As usual, a bit of setup
from __future__ import print function
import time
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from cs682.classifiers.fc net import *
from cs682.data utils import get CIFAR10 data
from cs682.gradient check import eval numerical gradient, eval numerical gradient a
from cs682.solver import Solver
%matplotlib inline
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (10.0, 8.0) # set default size of plots
plt.rcParams['image.interpolation'] = 'nearest'
plt.rcParams['image.cmap'] = 'gray'
# for auto-reloading external modules
# see http://stackoverflow.com/questions/1907993/autoreload-of-modules-in-ipython
%load ext autoreload
%autoreload 2
def rel error(x, y):
  """ returns relative error """
  return np.max(np.abs(x - y) / (np.maximum(1e-8, np.abs(x) + np.abs(y))))
```

In [2]:

```
# Load the (preprocessed) CIFAR10 data.

data = get_CIFAR10_data()
for k, v in data.items():
    print('%s: ' % k, v.shape)

X_train: (49000, 3, 32, 32)
y_train: (49000,)
X_val: (1000, 3, 32, 32)
y_val: (1000,)
X_test: (1000, 3, 32, 32)
y test: (1000,)
```

Dropout forward pass

In the file cs682/layers.py, implement the forward pass for dropout. Since dropout behaves differently during training and testing, make sure to implement the operation for both modes.

Once you have done so, run the cell below to test your implementation.

In [8]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(500, 500) + 10

for p in [0.25, 0.4, 0.7]:
   out, _ = dropout_forward(x, {'mode': 'train', 'p': p})
   out_test, _ = dropout_forward(x, {'mode': 'test', 'p': p})

print('Running tests with p = ', p)
   print('Mean of input: ', x.mean())
   print('Mean of train-time output: ', out_mean())
   print('Mean of test-time output: ', out_test.mean())
   print('Fraction of train-time output set to zero: ', (out == 0).mean())
   print('Fraction of test-time output set to zero: ', (out_test == 0).mean())
   print()
```

```
Mean of input: 10.000207878477502
Mean of train-time output: 10.014059116977283
Mean of test-time output: 10.000207878477502
Fraction of train-time output set to zero: 0.749784
Fraction of test-time output set to zero:
Running tests with p = 0.4
Mean of input:
               10.000207878477502
Mean of train-time output: 9.977917658761159
Mean of test-time output: 10.000207878477502
Fraction of train-time output set to zero:
Fraction of test-time output set to zero:
Running tests with p = 0.7
Mean of input:
               10.000207878477502
Mean of train-time output: 9.987811912159426
Mean of test-time output:
                          10.000207878477502
Fraction of train-time output set to zero:
Fraction of test-time output set to zero: 0.0
```

Dropout backward pass

Running tests with p = 0.25

In the file cs682/layers.py, implement the backward pass for dropout. After doing so, run the following cell to numerically gradient-check your implementation.

In [9]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(10, 10) + 10
dout = np.random.randn(*x.shape)

dropout_param = {'mode': 'train', 'p': 0.2, 'seed': 123}
out, cache = dropout_forward(x, dropout_param)
dx = dropout_backward(dout, cache)
dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda xx: dropout_forward(xx, dropout_param)
# Error should be around e-10 or less
print('dx relative error: ', rel_error(dx, dx_num))
```

dx relative error: 5.44560814873387e-11

Inline Question 1:

What happens if we do not divide the values being passed through inverse dropout by p in the dropout layer? Why does that happen?

Answer:

It is multiplied by p in the dropout layer to match the number of neurons being learned during training. we must scale the activations by p at test time to match the scaling at train time, leaving the forward pass at test time untouched.

Fully-connected nets with Dropout

In the file cs682/classifiers/fc_net.py , modify your implementation to use dropout. Specifically, if the constructor of the net receives a value that is not 1 for the dropout parameter, then the net should add dropout immediately after every ReLU nonlinearity. After doing so, run the following to numerically gradient-check your implementation.

In [10]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
N, D, H1, H2, C = 2, 15, 20, 30, 10
X = np.random.randn(N, D)
y = np.random.randint(C, size=(N,))
for dropout in [1, 0.75, 0.5]:
  print('Running check with dropout = ', dropout)
  model = FullyConnectedNet([H1, H2], input dim=D, num classes=C,
                            weight_scale=5e-2, dtype=np.float64,
                            dropout=dropout, seed=123)
  loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
  print('Initial loss: ', loss)
  # Relative errors should be around e-6 or less; Note that it's fine
  # if for dropout=1 you have W2 error be on the order of e-5.
  for name in sorted(grads):
    f = lambda : model.loss(X, y)[0]
    grad num = eval numerical gradient(f, model.params[name], verbose=False, h=1e-5
    print('%s relative error: %.2e' % (name, rel_error(grad_num, grads[name])))
  print()
```

```
Running check with dropout = 1
Initial loss: 2.3004790897684924
W1 relative error: 1.48e-07
W2 relative error: 2.21e-05
W3 relative error: 3.53e-07
b1 relative error: 5.38e-09
b2 relative error: 2.09e-09
b3 relative error: 5.80e-11
Running check with dropout = 0.75
Initial loss: 2.3016482157750753
W1 relative error: 6.96e-07
W2 relative error: 5.01e-06
W3 relative error: 2.96e-07
b1 relative error: 1.48e-08
b2 relative error: 1.72e-09
b3 relative error: 1.32e-10
Running check with dropout = 0.5
Initial loss: 2.294963257976082
W1 relative error: 1.20e-07
W2 relative error: 5.54e-07
W3 relative error: 1.48e-06
b1 relative error: 3.30e-09
b2 relative error: 4.40e-09
b3 relative error: 1.25e-10
```

Regularization experiment

As an experiment, we will train a pair of two-layer networks on 500 training examples: one will use no dropout, and one will use a keep probability of 0.25. We will then visualize the training and validation accuracies of the two networks over time.

In [11]:

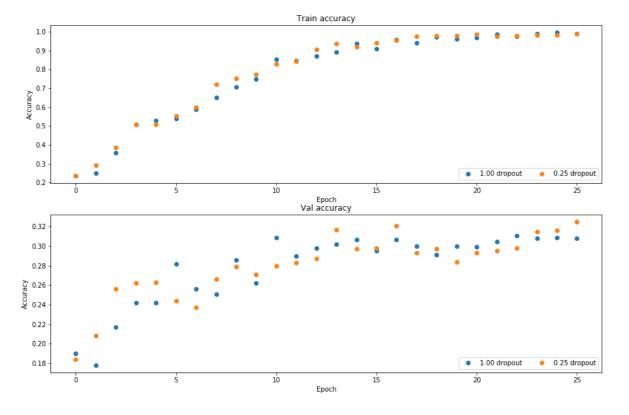
```
# Train two identical nets, one with dropout and one without
np.random.seed(231)
num train = 500
small data = {
  'X_train': data['X_train'][:num_train],
  'y train': data['y train'][:num train],
  'X val': data['X_val'],
  'y_val': data['y_val'],
solvers = {}
dropout choices = [1, 0.25]
for dropout in dropout choices:
  model = FullyConnectedNet([500], dropout=dropout)
  print(dropout)
  solver = Solver(model, small data,
                  num epochs=25, batch size=100,
                  update rule='adam',
                  optim config={
                    'learning rate': 5e-4,
                  verbose=True, print every=100)
  solver.train()
  solvers[dropout] = solver
```

```
(Iteration 1 / 125) loss: 7.856644
(Epoch 0 / 25) train acc: 0.236000; val acc: 0.190000
(Epoch 1 / 25) train acc: 0.250000; val acc: 0.178000
(Epoch 2 / 25) train acc: 0.360000; val acc: 0.217000
(Epoch 3 / 25) train acc: 0.508000; val acc: 0.242000
(Epoch 4 / 25) train acc: 0.528000; val acc: 0.242000
(Epoch 5 / 25) train acc: 0.540000; val acc: 0.282000
(Epoch 6 / 25) train acc: 0.588000; val_acc: 0.256000
(Epoch 7 / 25) train acc: 0.650000; val_acc: 0.251000
(Epoch 8 / 25) train acc: 0.708000; val acc: 0.286000
(Epoch 9 / 25) train acc: 0.750000; val acc: 0.262000
(Epoch 10 / 25) train acc: 0.854000; val_acc: 0.309000
(Epoch 11 / 25) train acc: 0.846000; val acc: 0.290000
(Epoch 12 / 25) train acc: 0.870000; val_acc: 0.298000
(Epoch 13 / 25) train acc: 0.892000; val_acc: 0.302000
(Epoch 14 / 25) train acc: 0.938000; val acc: 0.307000
(Epoch 15 / 25) train acc: 0.908000; val acc: 0.295000
(Epoch 16 / 25) train acc: 0.958000; val acc: 0.307000
(Epoch 17 / 25) train acc: 0.940000; val_acc: 0.300000
(Epoch 18 / 25) train acc: 0.972000; val_acc: 0.291000
(Epoch 19 / 25) train acc: 0.962000; val_acc: 0.300000
(Epoch 20 / 25) train acc: 0.970000; val_acc: 0.299000
(Iteration 101 / 125) loss: 0.047912
(Epoch 21 / 25) train acc: 0.986000; val acc: 0.305000
(Epoch 22 / 25) train acc: 0.976000; val acc: 0.311000
(Epoch 23 / 25) train acc: 0.988000; val acc: 0.308000
(Epoch 24 / 25) train acc: 0.996000; val_acc: 0.309000
(Epoch 25 / 25) train acc: 0.990000; val_acc: 0.308000
0.25
```

```
(Iteration 1 / 125) loss: 10.430469
(Epoch 0 / 25) train acc: 0.238000; val acc: 0.184000
(Epoch 1 / 25) train acc: 0.292000; val acc: 0.208000
(Epoch 2 / 25) train acc: 0.386000; val_acc: 0.256000
(Epoch 3 / 25) train acc: 0.510000; val acc: 0.262000
(Epoch 4 / 25) train acc: 0.508000; val acc: 0.263000
(Epoch 5 / 25) train acc: 0.552000; val_acc: 0.244000
(Epoch 6 / 25) train acc: 0.600000; val_acc: 0.237000
(Epoch 7 / 25) train acc: 0.722000; val acc: 0.266000
(Epoch 8 / 25) train acc: 0.754000; val acc: 0.279000
(Epoch 9 / 25) train acc: 0.774000; val_acc: 0.271000
(Epoch 10 / 25) train acc: 0.830000; val acc: 0.280000
(Epoch 11 / 25) train acc: 0.842000; val acc: 0.283000
(Epoch 12 / 25) train acc: 0.904000; val acc: 0.287000
(Epoch 13 / 25) train acc: 0.938000; val acc: 0.317000
(Epoch 14 / 25) train acc: 0.920000; val acc: 0.297000
(Epoch 15 / 25) train acc: 0.940000; val acc: 0.298000
(Epoch 16 / 25) train acc: 0.954000; val acc: 0.321000
(Epoch 17 / 25) train acc: 0.974000; val acc: 0.293000
(Epoch 18 / 25) train acc: 0.978000; val acc: 0.297000
(Epoch 19 / 25) train acc: 0.980000; val acc: 0.284000
(Epoch 20 / 25) train acc: 0.986000; val_acc: 0.293000
(Iteration 101 / 125) loss: 0.000018
(Epoch 21 / 25) train acc: 0.974000; val acc: 0.295000
(Epoch 22 / 25) train acc: 0.980000; val acc: 0.298000
(Epoch 23 / 25) train acc: 0.984000; val_acc: 0.315000
(Epoch 24 / 25) train acc: 0.984000; val acc: 0.316000
(Epoch 25 / 25) train acc: 0.990000; val acc: 0.325000
```

In [12]:

```
# Plot train and validation accuracies of the two models
train accs = []
val accs = []
for dropout in dropout choices:
  solver = solvers[dropout]
  train_accs.append(solver.train_acc_history[-1])
  val accs.append(solver.val acc history[-1])
plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
for dropout in dropout choices:
  plt.plot(solvers[dropout].train_acc_history, 'o', label='%.2f dropout' % dropout)
plt.title('Train accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend(ncol=2, loc='lower right')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
for dropout in dropout choices:
  plt.plot(solvers[dropout].val_acc_history, 'o', label='%.2f dropout' % dropout)
plt.title('Val accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend(ncol=2, loc='lower right')
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(15, 15)
plt.show()
```



Inline Question 2:

Compare the validation and training accuracies with and without dropout -- what do your results suggest about dropout as a regularizer?

Answer: ¶

On the validation data, the model that use dropout. The result suggest that dropout make a model harder to overfit and thus may perform better while in validation or testing.

Inline Question 3:

Suppose we are training a deep fully-connected network for image classification, with dropout after hidden layers (parameterized by keep probability p). How should we modify p, if at all, if we decide to decrease the size of the hidden layers (that is, the number of nodes in each layer)?

Answer:

```
In [15]:
```

If we decrease the size of hidden layers, p should decrease.

Sylican Invacia Sylican

```
In [16]:
```

```
File "<ipython-input-16-ec94edb575c0>", line 1
If we decrease the size of hidden layers, p should decrease.
```

SyntaxError: invalid syntax

In []:

Fully-Connected Neural Nets

In the previous homework you implemented a fully-connected two-layer neural network on CIFAR-10. The implementation was simple but not very modular since the loss and gradient were computed in a single monolithic function. This is manageable for a simple two-layer network, but would become impractical as we move to bigger models. Ideally we want to build networks using a more modular design so that we can implement different layer types in isolation and then snap them together into models with different architectures.

In this exercise we will implement fully-connected networks using a more modular approach. For each layer we will implement a forward and a backward function. The forward function will receive inputs, weights, and other parameters and will return both an output and a cache object storing data needed for the backward pass, like this:

```
def layer_forward(x, w):
    """ Receive inputs x and weights w """
    # Do some computations ...
    z = # ... some intermediate value
    # Do some more computations ...
    out = # the output

cache = (x, w, z, out) # Values we need to compute gradients
    return out, cache
```

The backward pass will receive upstream derivatives and the cache object, and will return gradients with respect to the inputs and weights, like this:

```
def layer_backward(dout, cache):
    """

Receive dout (derivative of loss with respect to outputs) and cache,
and compute derivative with respect to inputs.
    """

# Unpack cache values
    x, w, z, out = cache

# Use values in cache to compute derivatives
dx = # Derivative of loss with respect to x
dw = # Derivative of loss with respect to w
return dx, dw
```

After implementing a bunch of layers this way, we will be able to easily combine them to build classifiers with different architectures.

In addition to implementing fully-connected networks of arbitrary depth, we will also explore different update rules for optimization, and introduce Dropout as a regularizer and Batch/Layer Normalization as a tool to more efficiently optimize deep networks.

In [1]:

```
# As usual, a bit of setup
from future import print function
import time
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from cs682.classifiers.fc net import *
from cs682.data utils import get CIFAR10 data
from cs682.gradient check import eval numerical gradient, eval numerical gradient a
from cs682.solver import Solver
%matplotlib inline
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (10.0, 8.0) # set default size of plots
plt.rcParams['image.interpolation'] = 'nearest'
plt.rcParams['image.cmap'] = 'gray'
# for auto-reloading external modules
# see http://stackoverflow.com/questions/1907993/autoreload-of-modules-in-ipython
%load ext autoreload
%autoreload 2
def rel error(x, y):
  """ returns relative error """
  return np.max(np.abs(x - y) / (np.maximum(1e-8, np.abs(x) + np.abs(y))))
```

In [2]:

```
# Load the (preprocessed) CIFAR10 data.

data = get_CIFAR10_data()
for k, v in list(data.items()):
   print(('%s: ' % k, v.shape))
```

```
('X_train: ', (49000, 3, 32, 32))
('y_train: ', (49000,))
('X_val: ', (1000, 3, 32, 32))
('y_val: ', (1000,))
('X_test: ', (1000, 3, 32, 32))
('y_test: ', (1000,))
```

Affine layer: foward

Open the file cs682/layers.py and implement the affine forward function.

Once you are done you can test your implementaion by running the following:

In [3]:

```
# Test the affine forward function
num inputs = 2
input shape = (4, 5, 6)
output dim = 3
input_size = num_inputs * np.prod(input_shape)
weight size = output_dim * np.prod(input_shape)
x = np.linspace(-0.1, 0.5, num=input size).reshape(num inputs, *input shape)
w = np.linspace(-0.2, 0.3, num=weight size).reshape(np.prod(input shape), output di
b = np.linspace(-0.3, 0.1, num=output dim)
out, = affine forward(x, w, b)
correct out = np.array([[1.49834967, 1.70660132, 1.91485297],
                        [ 3.25553199,
                                       3.5141327,
                                                    3.7727334211)
# Compare your output with ours. The error should be around e-9 or less.
print('Testing affine_forward function:')
print('difference: ', rel_error(out, correct_out))
```

Testing affine_forward function: difference: 9.769847728806635e-10

Affine layer: backward

Now implement the affine_backward function and test your implementation using numeric gradient checking.

In [4]:

```
# Test the affine backward function
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(10, 2, 3)
w = np.random.randn(6, 5)
b = np.random.randn(5)
dout = np.random.randn(10, 5)
dx num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda x: affine forward(x, w, b)[0], x, dou
dw num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda w: affine forward(x, w, b)[0], w, dou
db num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda b: affine forward(x, w, b)[0], b, dou
_, cache = affine_forward(x, w, b)
dx, dw, db = affine backward(dout, cache)
# The error should be around e-10 or less
print('Testing affine backward function:')
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
print('dw error: ', rel_error(dw_num, dw))
print('db error: ', rel_error(db_num, db))
```

Testing affine_backward function: dx error: 5.399100368651805e-11 dw error: 9.904211865398145e-11 db error: 2.4122867568119087e-11

ReLU activation: forward

Implement the forward pass for the ReLU activation function in the relu_forward function and test your implementation using the following:

In [5]:

```
# Test the relu forward function
x = np.linspace(-0.5, 0.5, num=12).reshape(3, 4)
out, _ = relu_forward(x)
correct_out = np.array([[ 0.,
                                       0.,
                                                                  0.,
                                       0.,
                        [ 0.,
                                                     0.04545455,
                                                                0.13636364,],
                        [ 0.22727273, 0.31818182, 0.40909091,
                                                                  0.5,
                                                                             11)
# Compare your output with ours. The error should be on the order of e-8
print('Testing relu_forward function:')
print('difference: ', rel_error(out, correct_out))
```

Testing relu_forward function: difference: 4.999999798022158e-08

ReLU activation: backward

Now implement the backward pass for the ReLU activation function in the relu_backward function and test your implementation using numeric gradient checking:

In [6]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(10, 10)
dout = np.random.randn(*x.shape)

dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda x: relu_forward(x)[0], x, dout)

_, cache = relu_forward(x)
dx = relu_backward(dout, cache)

# The error should be on the order of e-12
print('Testing relu_backward function:')
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
```

Testing relu_backward function: dx error: 3.2756349136310288e-12

Inline Question 1:

We've only asked you to implement ReLU, but there are a number of different activation functions that one could use in neural networks, each with its pros and cons. In particular, an issue commonly seen with activation functions is getting zero (or close to zero) gradient flow during backpropagation. Which of the following activation functions have this problem? If you consider these functions in the one dimensional case, what types of input would lead to this behaviour?

- 1. Sigmoid
- 2. ReLU
- 3. Leaky ReLU

Answer:

Sigmoid has the issue of getting almost zero gradient in regions when the neuron saturates at the tail of either 0 or 1. ReLu can also get close to zero gradients or die due to high learning rates.

"Sandwich" layers

There are some common patterns of layers that are frequently used in neural nets. For example, affine layers are frequently followed by a ReLU nonlinearity. To make these common patterns easy, we define several convenience layers in the file cs682/layer utils.py.

For now take a look at the affine_relu_forward and affine_relu_backward functions, and run the following to numerically gradient check the backward pass:

In [7]:

```
from cs682.layer_utils import affine_relu_forward, affine_relu_backward
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(2, 3, 4)
w = np.random.randn(12, 10)
b = np.random.randn(10)
dout = np.random.randn(2, 10)

out, cache = affine_relu_forward(x, w, b)
dx, dw, db = affine_relu_backward(dout, cache)

dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda x: affine_relu_forward(x, w, b)[0], x
dw_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda w: affine_relu_forward(x, w, b)[0], w
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: affine_relu_forward(x, w, b)[0], b

# Relative error should be around e-10 or less
print('Testing affine_relu_forward and affine_relu_backward:')
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
print('dw error: ', rel_error(dw_num, dw))
print('db error: ', rel_error(db_num, db))
```

Testing affine relu forward and affine relu backward:

dx error: 6.750562121603446e-11 dw error: 8.162015570444288e-11 db error: 7.826724021458994e-12

Loss layers: Softmax and SVM

You implemented these loss functions in the last assignment, so we'll give them to you for free here. You should still make sure you understand how they work by looking at the implementations in cs682/layers.py.

You can make sure that the implementations are correct by running the following:

In [8]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
num classes, num inputs = 10, 50
x = 0.001 * np.random.randn(num inputs, num classes)
y = np.random.randint(num classes, size=num inputs)
dx num = eval numerical gradient(lambda x: svm loss(x, y)[0], x, verbose=False)
loss, dx = svm loss(x, y)
# Test svm loss function. Loss should be around 9 and dx error should be around the
print('Testing svm loss:')
print('loss: ', loss)
print('dx error: ', rel error(dx num, dx))
dx num = eval numerical gradient(lambda x: softmax loss(x, y)[0], x, verbose=False)
loss, dx = softmax loss(x, y)
# Test softmax loss function. Loss should be close to 2.3 and dx error should be ar
print('\nTesting softmax loss:')
print('loss: ', loss)
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
```

Testing svm_loss:

loss: 8.999602749096233

dx error: 1.4021566006651672e-09

Testing softmax_loss: loss: 2.302545844500738

dx error: 9.384673161989355e-09

Two-layer network

In the previous assignment you implemented a two-layer neural network in a single monolithic class. Now that you have implemented modular versions of the necessary layers, you will reimplement the two layer network using these modular implementations.

Open the file cs682/classifiers/fc_net.py and complete the implementation of the TwoLayerNet class. This class will serve as a model for the other networks you will implement in this assignment, so read through it to make sure you understand the API. You can run the cell below to test your implementation.

In [9]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
N, D, H, C = 3, 5, 50, 7
X = np.random.randn(N, D)
y = np.random.randint(C, size=N)
std = 1e-3
model = TwoLayerNet(input dim=D, hidden dim=H, num classes=C, weight scale=std)
print('Testing initialization ... ')
W1 std = abs(model.params['W1'].std() - std)
b1 = model.params['b1']
W2 std = abs(model.params['W2'].std() - std)
b2 = model.params['b2']
assert W1 std < std / 10, 'First layer weights do not seem right'</pre>
assert np.all(b1 == 0), 'First layer biases do not seem right'
assert W2_std < std / 10, 'Second layer weights do not seem right'</pre>
assert np.all(b2 == 0), 'Second layer biases do not seem right'
print('Testing test-time forward pass ... ')
model.params['W1'] = np.linspace(-0.7, 0.3, num=D*H).reshape(D, H)
model.params['b1'] = np.linspace(-0.1, 0.9, num=H)
model.params['W2'] = np.linspace(-0.3, 0.4, num=H*C).reshape(H, C)
model.params['b2'] = np.linspace(-0.9, 0.1, num=C)
X = np.linspace(-5.5, 4.5, num=N*D).reshape(D, N).T
scores = model.loss(X)
correct scores = np.asarray(
                                                13.81190102, 14.57198434, 15.3320676
  [[11.53165108,
                  12.2917344,
                                 13.05181771,
   [12.05769098, 12.74614105, 13.43459113, 14.1230412,
                                                               14.81149128, 15.4999413
   [12.58373087, 13.20054771, 13.81736455, 14.43418138, 15.05099822, 15.6678150
scores diff = np.abs(scores - correct scores).sum()
assert scores_diff < 1e-6, 'Problem with test-time forward pass'</pre>
print('Testing training loss (no regularization)')
y = np.asarray([0, 5, 1])
loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
correct loss = 3.4702243556
assert abs(loss - correct_loss) < 1e-10, 'Problem with training-time loss'</pre>
model.reg = 1.0
loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
correct loss = 26.5948426952
assert abs(loss - correct_loss) < 1e-10, 'Problem with regularization loss'</pre>
# Errors should be around e-7 or less
for reg in [0.0, 0.7]:
  print('Running numeric gradient check with reg = ', reg)
  model.reg = reg
  loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
  for name in sorted(grads):
    f = lambda _: model.loss(X, y)[0]
    grad_num = eval_numerical_gradient(f, model.params[name], verbose=False)
    print('%s relative error: %.2e' % (name, rel_error(grad_num, grads[name])))
```

```
Testing initialization ...
Testing test-time forward pass ...
```

```
Testing training loss (no regularization)
Running numeric gradient check with reg = 0.0
W1 relative error: 1.22e-08
W2 relative error: 3.48e-10
b1 relative error: 6.55e-09
b2 relative error: 4.33e-10
Running numeric gradient check with reg = 0.7
W1 relative error: 3.12e-07
W2 relative error: 7.98e-08
b1 relative error: 1.56e-08
b2 relative error: 7.76e-10
```

Solver

In the previous assignment, the logic for training models was coupled to the models themselves. Following a more modular design, for this assignment we have split the logic for training models into a separate class.

Open the file cs682/solver.py and read through it to familiarize yourself with the API. After doing so, use a Solver instance to train a TwoLayerNet that achieves at least 50% accuracy on the validation set.

In [10]:

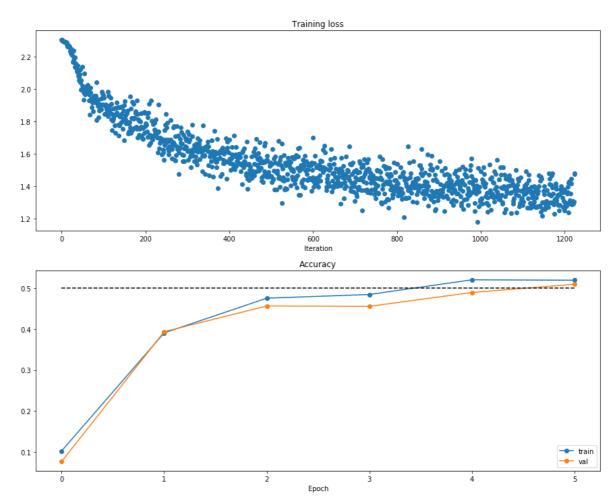
```
(Iteration 1 / 1225) loss: 2.305442
(Epoch 0 / 5) train acc: 0.102000; val_acc: 0.076000
(Iteration 101 / 1225) loss: 1.961714
(Iteration 201 / 1225) loss: 1.783431
(Epoch 1 / 5) train acc: 0.391000; val_acc: 0.394000
(Iteration 301 / 1225) loss: 1.614863
(Iteration 401 / 1225) loss: 1.686719
(Epoch 2 / 5) train acc: 0.476000; val acc: 0.457000
(Iteration 501 / 1225) loss: 1.461074
(Iteration 601 / 1225) loss: 1.699325
(Iteration 701 / 1225) loss: 1.307533
(Epoch 3 / 5) train acc: 0.485000; val acc: 0.456000
(Iteration 801 / 1225) loss: 1.419614
(Iteration 901 / 1225) loss: 1.370936
(Epoch 4 / 5) train acc: 0.521000; val_acc: 0.490000
(Iteration 1001 / 1225) loss: 1.493287
(Iteration 1101 / 1225) loss: 1.281808
(Iteration 1201 / 1225) loss: 1.247330
(Epoch 5 / 5) train acc: 0.520000; val acc: 0.510000
```

In [11]:

```
# Run this cell to visualize training loss and train / val accuracy

plt.subplot(2, 1, 1)
plt.title('Training loss')
plt.plot(solver.loss_history, 'o')
plt.xlabel('Iteration')

plt.subplot(2, 1, 2)
plt.title('Accuracy')
plt.plot(solver.train_acc_history, '-o', label='train')
plt.plot(solver.val_acc_history, '-o', label='val')
plt.plot([0.5] * len(solver.val_acc_history), 'k--')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.legend(loc='lower right')
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(15, 12)
plt.show()
```



Multilayer network

Next you will implement a fully-connected network with an arbitrary number of hidden layers.

Read through the FullyConnectedNet class in the file cs682/classifiers/fc net.py.

Implement the initialization, the forward pass, and the backward pass. For the moment don't worry about implementing dropout or batch/layer normalization; we will add those features soon.

Initial loss and gradient check

As a sanity check, run the following to check the initial loss and to gradient check the network both with and without regularization. Do the initial losses seem reasonable?

For gradient checking, you should expect to see errors around 1e-7 or less.

In [12]:

```
np.random.seed(231)
N, D, H1, H2, C = 2, 15, 20, 30, 10
X = np.random.randn(N, D)
y = np.random.randint(C, size=(N,))
for reg in [0, 3.14]:
  print('Running check with reg = ', reg)
  model = FullyConnectedNet([H1, H2], input_dim=D, num_classes=C,
                            reg=reg, weight scale=5e-2, dtype=np.float64)
  loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
  print('Initial loss: ', loss)
  # Most of the errors should be on the order of e-7 or smaller.
  # NOTE: It is fine however to see an error for W2 on the order of e-5
  # for the check when reg = 0.0
  for name in sorted(grads):
    f = lambda : model.loss(X, y)[0]
    grad num = eval numerical gradient(f, model.params[name], verbose=False, h=1e-5
    print('%s relative error: %.2e' % (name, rel error(grad num, grads[name])))
```

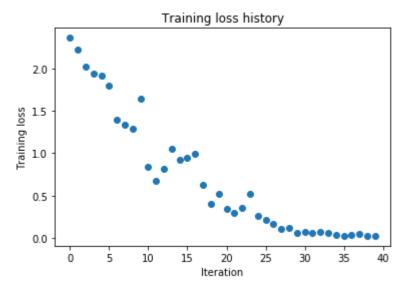
```
Running check with reg = 0
Initial loss: 2.3004790897684924
W1 relative error: 1.48e-07
W2 relative error: 2.21e-05
W3 relative error: 3.53e-07
b1 relative error: 5.38e-09
b2 relative error: 2.09e-09
b3 relative error: 5.80e-11
Running check with reg = 3.14
Initial loss: 7.052114776533016
W1 relative error: 1.14e-08
W2 relative error: 6.87e-08
W3 relative error: 3.48e-08
b1 relative error: 1.48e-08
b2 relative error: 1.72e-09
b3 relative error: 1.80e-10
```

As another sanity check, make sure you can overfit a small dataset of 50 images. First we will try a three-layer network with 100 units in each hidden layer. In the following cell, tweak the learning rate and initialization scale to overfit and achieve 100% training accuracy within 20 epochs.

In [13]:

```
# TODO: Use a three-layer Net to overfit 50 training examples by
# tweaking just the learning rate and initialization scale.
num train = 50
small data = {
  'X train': data['X train'][:num train],
  'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
  'X val': data['X val'],
  'y val': data['y val'],
weight scale = 1e-2
learning rate = 1e-2
model = FullyConnectedNet([100, 100],
              weight scale=weight scale, dtype=np.float64)
solver = Solver(model, small data,
                print every=10, num epochs=20, batch size=25,
                update rule='sqd',
                optim config={
                  'learning_rate': learning_rate,
solver.train()
plt.plot(solver.loss history, 'o')
plt.title('Training loss history')
plt.xlabel('Iteration')
plt.ylabel('Training loss')
plt.show()
```

```
(Iteration 1 / 40) loss: 2.363364
(Epoch 0 / 20) train acc: 0.180000; val acc: 0.108000
(Epoch 1 / 20) train acc: 0.320000; val acc: 0.127000
(Epoch 2 / 20) train acc: 0.440000; val acc: 0.172000
(Epoch 3 / 20) train acc: 0.500000; val_acc: 0.184000
(Epoch 4 / 20) train acc: 0.540000; val_acc: 0.181000
(Epoch 5 / 20) train acc: 0.740000; val acc: 0.190000
(Iteration 11 / 40) loss: 0.839976
(Epoch 6 / 20) train acc: 0.740000; val_acc: 0.187000
(Epoch 7 / 20) train acc: 0.740000; val acc: 0.183000
(Epoch 8 / 20) train acc: 0.820000; val_acc: 0.177000
(Epoch 9 / 20) train acc: 0.860000; val_acc: 0.200000
(Epoch 10 / 20) train acc: 0.920000; val acc: 0.191000
(Iteration 21 / 40) loss: 0.337174
(Epoch 11 / 20) train acc: 0.960000; val acc: 0.189000
(Epoch 12 / 20) train acc: 0.940000; val_acc: 0.180000
(Epoch 13 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val_acc: 0.199000
(Epoch 14 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val_acc: 0.199000
(Epoch 15 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val acc: 0.195000
(Iteration 31 / 40) loss: 0.075911
(Epoch 16 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val acc: 0.182000
(Epoch 17 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val_acc: 0.201000
(Epoch 18 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val acc: 0.207000
(Epoch 19 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val_acc: 0.185000
(Epoch 20 / 20) train acc: 1.000000; val acc: 0.192000
```



Now try to use a five-layer network with 100 units on each layer to overfit 50 training examples. Again you will have to adjust the learning rate and weight initialization, but you should be able to achieve 100% training accuracy within 20 epochs.

In [14]:

```
# TODO: Use a five-layer Net to overfit 50 training examples by
# tweaking just the learning rate and initialization scale.
num train = 50
small data = {
  'X train': data['X train'][:num train],
  'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
  'X val': data['X val'],
  'y val': data['y val'],
learning rate = 2e-3
weight scale = 5e-2
model = FullyConnectedNet([100, 100, 100, 100],
                weight scale=weight scale, dtype=np.float64)
solver = Solver(model, small data,
                print every=10, num epochs=20, batch size=25,
                update rule='sqd',
                optim config={
                  'learning_rate': learning_rate,
solver.train()
plt.plot(solver.loss history, 'o')
plt.title('Training loss history')
plt.xlabel('Iteration')
plt.ylabel('Training loss')
plt.show()
```

```
(Iteration 1 / 40) loss: 5.557032
(Epoch 0 / 20) train acc: 0.160000; val acc: 0.122000
(Epoch 1 / 20) train acc: 0.240000; val acc: 0.106000
(Epoch 2 / 20) train acc: 0.380000; val acc: 0.110000
(Epoch 3 / 20) train acc: 0.500000; val_acc: 0.129000
(Epoch 4 / 20) train acc: 0.640000; val_acc: 0.129000
(Epoch 5 / 20) train acc: 0.660000; val acc: 0.119000
(Iteration 11 / 40) loss: 1.300758
(Epoch 6 / 20) train acc: 0.760000; val_acc: 0.136000
(Epoch 7 / 20) train acc: 0.820000; val acc: 0.134000
(Epoch 8 / 20) train acc: 0.820000; val_acc: 0.132000
(Epoch 9 / 20) train acc: 0.840000; val_acc: 0.133000
(Epoch 10 / 20) train acc: 0.900000; val acc: 0.136000
(Iteration 21 / 40) loss: 0.653934
(Epoch 11 / 20) train acc: 0.940000; val acc: 0.143000
(Epoch 12 / 20) train acc: 0.940000; val_acc: 0.151000
(Epoch 13 / 20) train acc: 0.920000; val_acc: 0.150000
(Epoch 14 / 20) train acc: 0.920000; val_acc: 0.131000
(Epoch 15 / 20) train acc: 0.940000; val acc: 0.148000
(Iteration 31 / 40) loss: 0.533752
(Epoch 16 / 20) train acc: 0.960000; val acc: 0.147000
(Epoch 17 / 20) train acc: 0.980000; val_acc: 0.148000
(Epoch 18 / 20) train acc: 0.980000; val acc: 0.158000
(Epoch 19 / 20) train acc: 0.980000; val_acc: 0.144000
(Epoch 20 / 20) train acc: 0.960000; val acc: 0.136000
```



Inline Question 2:

Did you notice anything about the comparative difficulty of training the three-layer net vs training the five layer net? In particular, based on your experience, which network seemed more sensitive to the initialization scale? Why do you think that is the case?

Answer:

The five layer network seemed more difficult to train than the three layer net. The 5 layer network seemed more sensitive to the initialization scale. Small changes in the weight scale causes different results. This is probably because of the depth of the network and little data being used to train.

Update rules

So far we have used vanilla stochastic gradient descent (SGD) as our update rule. More sophisticated update rules can make it easier to train deep networks. We will implement a few of the most commonly used update rules and compare them to vanilla SGD.

SGD+Momentum

Stochastic gradient descent with momentum is a widely used update rule that tends to make deep networks converge faster than vanilla stochastic gradient descent. See the Momentum Update section at https://compsci682-fa18.github.io/notes/neural-networks-3/#sgd (https://compsci682-fa18.github.io/notes/neural-networks-3/#sgd) for more information.

Open the file cs682/optim.py and read the documentation at the top of the file to make sure you understand the API. Implement the SGD+momentum update rule in the function sgd_momentum and run the following to check your implementation. You should see errors less than e-8.

In [15]:

```
from cs682.optim import sgd momentum
N, D = 4, 5
w = np.linspace(-0.4, 0.6, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
dw = np.linspace(-0.6, 0.4, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
v = np.linspace(0.6, 0.9, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
config = {'learning rate': 1e-3, 'velocity': v}
next_w, _ = sgd_momentum(w, dw, config=config)
expected next_w = np.asarray([
                             0.27417895,
                                          0.34096842,
  [0.1406,
                0.20738947,
                                                       0.40775789],
  [ 0.47454737,
               0.54133684,
                             0.60812632, 0.67491579,
                                                       0.74170526],
  [ 0.80849474, 0.87528421,
                             0.94207368, 1.00886316,
                                                       1.07565263],
  [ 1.14244211, 1.20923158,
                             1.27602105, 1.34281053, 1.4096
                                                                 ]])
expected velocity = np.asarray([
             0.55475789, 0.56891579, 0.58307368, 0.59723158],
  [0.5406,
  [ 0.61138947,
                0.62554737, 0.63970526, 0.65386316, 0.66802105],
  [ 0.68217895, 0.69633684, 0.71049474, 0.72465263,
                                                       0.73881053],
  [ 0.75296842, 0.76712632, 0.78128421, 0.79544211,
                                                       0.8096
                                                                 ]])
# Should see relative errors around e-8 or less
print('next w error: ', rel error(next w, expected next w))
print('velocity error: ', rel_error(expected_velocity, config['velocity']))
```

next_w error: 8.882347033505819e-09 velocity error: 4.269287743278663e-09

Once you have done so, run the following to train a six-layer network with both SGD and SGD+momentum. You should see the SGD+momentum update rule converge faster.

In [16]:

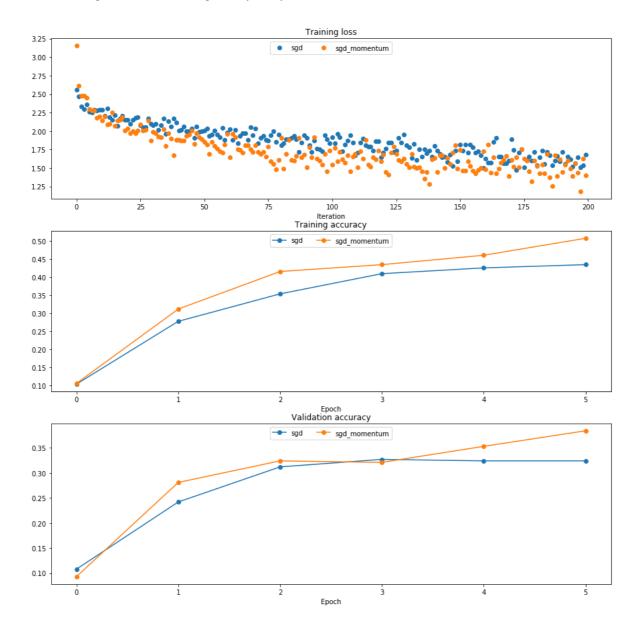
```
num train = 4000
small data = {
  'X train': data['X train'][:num train],
  'y train': data['y train'][:num train],
  'X_val': data['X_val'],
  'y_val': data['y_val'],
solvers = {}
for update rule in ['sgd', 'sgd momentum']:
  print('running with ', update rule)
  model = FullyConnectedNet([100, 100, 100, 100, 100], weight scale=5e-2)
  solver = Solver(model, small data,
                  num epochs=5, batch size=100,
                  update rule=update rule,
                  optim config={
                     'learning rate': le-2,
                  },
                  verbose=True)
  solvers[update rule] = solver
  solver.train()
  print()
plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
plt.title('Training loss')
plt.xlabel('Iteration')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
plt.title('Training accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
plt.title('Validation accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
for update_rule, solver in list(solvers.items()):
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
  plt.plot(solver.loss_history, 'o', label=update_rule)
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
  plt.plot(solver.train_acc_history, '-o', label=update_rule)
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
  plt.plot(solver.val_acc_history, '-o', label=update_rule)
for i in [1, 2, 3]:
  plt.subplot(3, 1, i)
  plt.legend(loc='upper center', ncol=4)
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(15, 15)
plt.show()
```

```
running with sgd (Iteration 1 / 200) loss: 2.559978 (Epoch 0 / 5) train acc: 0.103000; val acc: 0.108000
```

```
(Iteration 11 / 200) loss: 2.291086
(Iteration 21 / 200) loss: 2.153591
(Iteration 31 / 200) loss: 2.082693
(Epoch 1 / 5) train acc: 0.277000; val_acc: 0.242000
(Iteration 41 / 200) loss: 2.004171
(Iteration 51 / 200) loss: 2.010409
(Iteration 61 / 200) loss: 2.022463
(Iteration 71 / 200) loss: 2.029975
(Epoch 2 / 5) train acc: 0.353000; val acc: 0.312000
(Iteration 81 / 200) loss: 1.805454
(Iteration 91 / 200) loss: 1.911051
(Iteration 101 / 200) loss: 1.914574
(Iteration 111 / 200) loss: 1.706396
(Epoch 3 / 5) train acc: 0.409000; val acc: 0.327000
(Iteration 121 / 200) loss: 1.706038
(Iteration 131 / 200) loss: 1.779879
(Iteration 141 / 200) loss: 1.798783
(Iteration 151 / 200) loss: 1.819628
(Epoch 4 / 5) train acc: 0.425000; val acc: 0.324000
(Iteration 161 / 200) loss: 1.624850
(Iteration 171 / 200) loss: 1.888062
(Iteration 181 / 200) loss: 1.540264
(Iteration 191 / 200) loss: 1.713388
(Epoch 5 / 5) train acc: 0.434000; val acc: 0.324000
running with sgd momentum
(Iteration 1 / 200) loss: 3.153778
(Epoch 0 / 5) train acc: 0.105000; val acc: 0.093000
(Iteration 11 / 200) loss: 2.145874
(Iteration 21 / 200) loss: 2.032563
(Iteration 31 / 200) loss: 1.985848
(Epoch 1 / 5) train acc: 0.311000; val acc: 0.281000
(Iteration 41 / 200) loss: 1.882354
(Iteration 51 / 200) loss: 1.855372
(Iteration 61 / 200) loss: 1.649133
(Iteration 71 / 200) loss: 1.806432
(Epoch 2 / 5) train acc: 0.415000; val_acc: 0.324000
(Iteration 81 / 200) loss: 1.907840
(Iteration 91 / 200) loss: 1.510681
(Iteration 101 / 200) loss: 1.546872
(Iteration 111 / 200) loss: 1.512047
(Epoch 3 / 5) train acc: 0.434000; val acc: 0.321000
(Iteration 121 / 200) loss: 1.677301
(Iteration 131 / 200) loss: 1.504686
(Iteration 141 / 200) loss: 1.633253
(Iteration 151 / 200) loss: 1.745081
(Epoch 4 / 5) train acc: 0.460000; val_acc: 0.353000
(Iteration 161 / 200) loss: 1.485411
(Iteration 171 / 200) loss: 1.610417
(Iteration 181 / 200) loss: 1.528331
(Iteration 191 / 200) loss: 1.449158
(Epoch 5 / 5) train acc: 0.507000; val acc: 0.384000
```

/home/akhila/anaconda3/envs/cs682/lib/python3.6/site-packages/matplotlib/cbook/deprecation.py:107: MatplotlibDeprecationWarning: Adding an a xes using the same arguments as a previous axes currently reuses the e arlier instance. In a future version, a new instance will always be c reated and returned. Meanwhile, this warning can be suppressed, and t he future behavior ensured, by passing a unique label to each axes ins

tance.
warnings.warn(message, mplDeprecation, stacklevel=1)



RMSProp and Adam

RMSProp [1] and Adam [2] are update rules that set per-parameter learning rates by using a running average of the second moments of gradients.

In the file cs682/optim.py, implement the RMSProp update rule in the rmsprop function and implement the Adam update rule in the adam function, and check your implementations using the tests below.

NOTE: Please implement the *complete* Adam update rule (with the bias correction mechanism), not the first simplified version mentioned in the course notes.

- [1] Tijmen Tieleman and Geoffrey Hinton. "Lecture 6.5-rmsprop: Divide the gradient by a running average of its recent magnitude." COURSERA: Neural Networks for Machine Learning 4 (2012).
- [2] Diederik Kingma and Jimmy Ba, "Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization", ICLR 2015.

In [17]:

```
# Test RMSProp implementation
from cs682.optim import rmsprop
N. D = 4.5
w = np.linspace(-0.4, 0.6, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
dw = np.linspace(-0.6, 0.4, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
cache = np.linspace(0.6, 0.9, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
config = {'learning rate': 1e-2, 'cache': cache}
next w, = rmsprop(w, dw, config=config)
expected next w = np.asarray([
  [-0.39223849, -0.34037513, -0.28849239, -0.23659121, -0.18467247],
  [-0.132737,
             -0.08078555, -0.02881884, 0.02316247, 0.07515774],
  [0.12716641, 0.17918792, 0.23122175, 0.28326742, 0.33532447],
  [ 0.38739248, 0.43947102,
                             0.49155973, 0.54365823, 0.59576619])
expected cache = np.asarray([
  [0.5976,
                0.6126277,
                             0.6277108.
                                          0.64284931, 0.65804321],
  [ 0.67329252, 0.68859723, 0.70395734, 0.71937285,
                                                       0.73484377],
  [ 0.75037008, 0.7659518,
                             0.78158892, 0.79728144,
                                                       0.81302936],
  [ 0.82883269, 0.84469141, 0.86060554, 0.87657507, 0.8926
                                                                 ]])
# You should see relative errors around e-7 or less
print('next w error: ', rel error(expected next w, next w))
print('cache error: ', rel_error(expected_cache, config['cache']))
```

next_w error: 9.524687511038133e-08 cache error: 2.6477955807156126e-09

In [18]:

```
# Test Adam implementation
from cs682.optim import adam
N. D = 4.5
w = np.linspace(-0.4, 0.6, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
dw = np.linspace(-0.6, 0.4, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
m = np.linspace(0.6, 0.9, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
v = np.linspace(0.7, 0.5, num=N*D).reshape(N, D)
config = {'learning rate': 1e-2, 'm': m, 'v': v, 't': 5}
next w, = adam(w, dw, config=config)
expected next w = np.asarray([
  [-0.40094747, -0.34836187, -0.29577703, -0.24319299, -0.19060977],
  [-0.1380274, -0.08544591, -0.03286534, 0.01971428,
                                                        0.0722929],
  [ 0.1248705.
                0.17744702.
                             0.23002243. 0.28259667.
                                                        0.335169691
  [ 0.38774145,
                0.44031188.
                             0.49288093, 0.54544852,
                                                        0.59801459]])
expected v = np.asarray([
                                           0.66794809,
  [0.69966,
                0.68908382,
                              0.67851319,
                                                        0.65738853,],
  [ 0.64683452,
                0.63628604,
                              0.6257431,
                                           0.61520571,
                                                        0.60467385,],
  [ 0.59414753, 0.58362676,
                              0.57311152,
                                           0.56260183,
                                                        0.55209767,],
  [ 0.54159906,
                0.53110598.
                              0.52061845,
                                          0.51013645,
                                                        0.49966,
                                                                   11)
expected m = np.asarray([
  [0.48,
                0.49947368,
                             0.51894737,
                                          0.53842105,
                                                        0.55789474],
  [ 0.57736842,
                0.59684211,
                              0.61631579,
                                           0.63578947,
                                                        0.65526316],
  [ 0.67473684, 0.69421053,
                              0.71368421,
                                           0.73315789,
                                                        0.75263158],
  [ 0.77210526, 0.79157895, 0.81105263,
                                           0.83052632,
                                                        0.85
                                                                  ]])
# You should see relative errors around e-7 or less
print('next w error: ', rel error(expected next w, next w))
print('v error: ', rel_error(expected_v, config['v']))
print('m error: ', rel error(expected m, config['m']))
```

next_w error: 0.20720703668629928 v error: 4.208314038113071e-09 m error: 4.214963193114416e-09

Once you have debugged your RMSProp and Adam implementations, run the following to train a pair of deep networks using these new update rules:

In [19]:

```
learning_rates = {'rmsprop': 1e-4, 'adam': 1e-3}
for update rule in ['adam', 'rmsprop']:
  print('running with ', update rule)
  model = FullyConnectedNet([100, 100, 100, 100, 100], weight scale=5e-2)
  solver = Solver(model, small data,
                  num epochs=5, batch size=100,
                  update rule=update rule,
                  optim config={
                    'learning rate': learning rates[update rule]
                  },
                  verbose=True)
  solvers[update rule] = solver
  solver.train()
  print()
plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
plt.title('Training loss')
plt.xlabel('Iteration')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
plt.title('Training accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
plt.title('Validation accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
for update rule, solver in list(solvers.items()):
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 1)
  plt.plot(solver.loss history, 'o', label=update rule)
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 2)
  plt.plot(solver.train acc history, '-o', label=update rule)
  plt.subplot(3, 1, 3)
  plt.plot(solver.val_acc_history, '-o', label=update_rule)
for i in [1, 2, 3]:
  plt.subplot(3, 1, i)
  plt.legend(loc='upper center', ncol=4)
plt.gcf().set_size_inches(15, 15)
plt.show()
```

```
running with adam
```

```
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs68
2/optim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sqrt
 w += - config['learning rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config
['v']) + config['epsilon'])
```

```
(Iteration 1 / 200) loss: 3.476928
(Epoch 0 / 5) train acc: 0.105000; val_acc: 0.100000
(Iteration 11 / 200) loss: 2.036672
(Iteration 21 / 200) loss: 2.231720
(Iteration 31 / 200) loss: 1.986361
```

Inline Question 3:

AdaGrad, like Adam, is a per-parameter optimization method that uses the following update rule:

```
cache += dw**2
w += - learning rate * dw / (np.sqrt(cache) + eps)
```

John notices that when he was training a network with AdaGrad that the updates became very small, and that his network was learning slowly. Using your knowledge of the AdaGrad update rule, why do you think the updates would become very small? Would Adam have the same issue?

Answer:

AdaGrad update is monotonically increasing. This can pose problems because the learning rate can steadily decrease to the point where it fully stops the learning. Adam does not have that issue as smoothens the update rule and prevents it from monotonic changes to the learning rate. Adam also adds a bias term for the initialization of the vectors.

Train a good model!

Train the best fully-connected model that you can on CIFAR-10, storing your best model in the best_model variable. We require you to get at least 50% accuracy on the validation set using a fully-connected net.

If you are careful it should be possible to get accuracies above 55%, but we don't require it for this part and won't assign extra credit for doing so. Later in the assignment we will ask you to train the best convolutional network that you can on CIFAR-10, and we would prefer that you spend your effort working on convolutional nets rather than fully-connected nets.

You might find it useful to complete the BatchNormalization.ipynb and Dropout.ipynb notebooks before completing this part, since those techniques can help you train powerful models.

In [24]:

```
best model = None
best val = -1
best weight = 0
best lr = 0
for i in [1e-2, 2e-2, 3e-2, 2.5e-2]:
   for j in [4e-4, 5e-4, 6e-4, 5.5e-2]:
     model = FullyConnectedNet([100, 100, 100, 100], weight scale=i)
     solver = Solver(model, data,
             num epochs=5, batch size=250,
             update rule='adam',
             optim config={'learning rate': j},
             verbose=False)
     solver.train()
     print("weight scale:", i,", learning rate:", j, ", validation acc:", solver
     if solver.best val acc > best val:
        best val = solver.best val acc
        best weight = i
        best lr = j
        best model = model
print("best weight scale:",best weight,", best learning rate:",best lr, ",best vali
# TODO: Train the best FullyConnectedNet that you can on CIFAR-10. You might
# find batch/layer normalization and dropout useful. Store your best model in
                                                         #
# the best model variable.
END OF YOUR CODE
```

```
/home/akhila/Desktop/COLLEGE STUFF/Neural networks/assignment2/cs682/o
ptim.py:142: RuntimeWarning: invalid value encountered in sgrt
 w += - config['learning rate'] * config['m'] / (np.sqrt(config['v'])
+ config['epsilon'])
weight scale: 0.01 , learning rate: 0.0004 , validation acc: 0.504
weight scale: 0.01 , learning rate: 0.0005 , validation acc: 0.508
weight scale: 0.01 , learning rate: 0.0006 , validation acc: 0.508
weight scale: 0.01 , learning rate: 0.055 , validation acc: 0.112
weight scale: 0.02 , learning rate: 0.0004 , validation acc: 0.5
weight scale: 0.02 , learning rate: 0.0005 , validation acc: 0.511
weight scale: 0.02 , learning rate: 0.0006 , validation acc: 0.51
weight scale: 0.02 , learning rate: 0.055 , validation acc: 0.113
weight scale: 0.03 , learning rate: 0.0004 , validation acc: 0.503
weight scale: 0.03 , learning rate: 0.0005 , validation acc: 0.514
weight scale: 0.03 , learning rate: 0.0006 , validation acc: 0.503
weight scale: 0.03 , learning rate: 0.055 , validation acc: 0.119
weight scale: 0.025 , learning rate: 0.0004 , validation acc: 0.518
weight scale: 0.025 , learning rate: 0.0005 , validation acc: 0.513
weight scale: 0.025 , learning rate: 0.0006 , validation acc: 0.512
weight scale: 0.025 , learning rate: 0.055 , validation acc: 0.107
best weight scale: 0.025 , best learning rate: 0.0004 ,best validation
acc: 0.518
```

Test your model!

Run your best model on the validation and test sets. You should achieve above 50% accuracy on the validation set.

In [25]:

```
y_test_pred = np.argmax(best_model.loss(data['X_test']), axis=1)
y_val_pred = np.argmax(best_model.loss(data['X_val']), axis=1)
print('Validation set accuracy: ', (y_val_pred == data['y_val']).mean())
print('Test set accuracy: ', (y_test_pred == data['y_test']).mean())
```

Validation set accuracy: 0.518 Test set accuracy: 0.511

In []:

What's this PyTorch business?

You've written a lot of code in this assignment to provide a whole host of neural network functionality. Dropout, Batch Norm, and 2D convolutions are some of the workhorses of deep learning in computer vision. You've also worked hard to make your code efficient and vectorized.

For the last part of this assignment, though, we're going to leave behind your beautiful codebase and instead migrate to one of two popular deep learning frameworks: in this instance, PyTorch (or TensorFlow, if you switch over to that notebook).

What is PyTorch?

PyTorch is a system for executing dynamic computational graphs over Tensor objects that behave similarly as numpy ndarray. It comes with a powerful automatic differentiation engine that removes the need for manual back-propagation.

Why?

- Our code will now run on GPUs! Much faster training. When using a framework like PyTorch or TensorFlow
 you can harness the power of the GPU for your own custom neural network architectures without having to
 write CUDA code directly (which is beyond the scope of this class).
- We want you to be ready to use one of these frameworks for your project so you can experiment more efficiently than if you were writing every feature you want to use by hand.
- We want you to stand on the shoulders of giants! TensorFlow and PyTorch are both excellent frameworks that will make your lives a lot easier, and now that you understand their guts, you are free to use them:)
- We want you to be exposed to the sort of deep learning code you might run into in academia or industry.

PyTorch versions

This notebook assumes that you are using **PyTorch version 0.4**. Prior to this version, Tensors had to be wrapped in Variable objects to be used in autograd; however Variables have now been deprecated. In addition 0.4 also separates a Tensor's datatype from its device, and uses numpy-style factories for constructing Tensors rather than directly invoking Tensor constructors.

How will I learn PyTorch?

Justin Johnson has made an excellent tutorial (https://github.com/jcjohnson/pytorch-examples) for PyTorch.

You can also find the detailed <u>API doc (http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/index.html)</u> here. If you have other questions that are not addressed by the API docs, the <u>PyTorch forum (https://discuss.pytorch.org/)</u> is a much better place to ask than StackOverflow.

Table of Contents

This assignment has 5 parts. You will learn PyTorch on different levels of abstractions, which will help you understand it better and prepare you for the final project.

- 1. Preparation: we will use CIFAR-10 dataset.
- 2. Barebones PyTorch: we will work directly with the lowest-level PyTorch Tensors.

3. PyTorch Module API: we will use nn.Module to define arbitrary neural network architecture.

- 4. PyTorch Sequential API: we will use nn.Sequential to define a linear feed-forward network very conveniently.
- 5. CIFAR-10 open-ended challenge: please implement your own network to get as high accuracy as possible on CIFAR-10. You can experiment with any layer, optimizer, hyperparameters or other advanced features.

Here is a table of comparison:

API	Flexibility	Convenience
Barebone	High	Low
nn.Module	High	Medium
nn.Sequential	Low	High

Part I. Preparation

First, we load the CIFAR-10 dataset. This might take a couple minutes the first time you do it, but the files should stay cached after that.

In previous parts of the assignment we had to write our own code to download the CIFAR-10 dataset, preprocess it, and iterate through it in minibatches; PyTorch provides convenient tools to automate this process for us.

In [1]:

```
import torch
import torch.nn as nn
import torch.optim as optim
from torch.utils.data import DataLoader
from torch.utils.data import sampler

import torchvision.datasets as dset
import torchvision.transforms as T

import numpy as np
```

In [2]:

```
NUM TRAIN = 49000
# The torchvision.transforms package provides tools for preprocessing data
# and for performing data augmentation; here we set up a transform to
# preprocess the data by subtracting the mean RGB value and dividing by the
# standard deviation of each RGB value; we've hardcoded the mean and std.
transform = T.Compose([
                T.ToTensor(),
                T.Normalize((0.4914, 0.4822, 0.4465), (0.2023, 0.1994, 0.2010))
            ])
# We set up a Dataset object for each split (train / val / test); Datasets load
# training examples one at a time, so we wrap each Dataset in a DataLoader which
# iterates through the Dataset and forms minibatches. We divide the CIFAR-10
# training set into train and val sets by passing a Sampler object to the
# DataLoader telling how it should sample from the underlying Dataset.
cifar10 train = dset.CIFAR10('./cs682/datasets', train=True, download=True,
                             transform=transform)
loader train = DataLoader(cifar10 train, batch size=64,
                          sampler=sampler.SubsetRandomSampler(range(NUM TRAIN)))
cifar10 val = dset.CIFAR10('./cs682/datasets', train=True, download=True,
                           transform=transform)
loader val = DataLoader(cifar10 val, batch size=64,
                        sampler=sampler.SubsetRandomSampler(range(NUM TRAIN, 50000))
cifar10 test = dset.CIFAR10('./cs682/datasets', train=False, download=True,
                            transform=transform)
loader test = DataLoader(cifar10 test, batch size=64)
```

```
Files already downloaded and verified
Files already downloaded and verified
Files already downloaded and verified
```

You have an option to **use GPU by setting the flag to True below**. It is not necessary to use GPU for this assignment. Note that if your computer does not have CUDA enabled, torch.cuda.is_available() will return False and this notebook will fallback to CPU mode.

The global variables dtype and device will control the data types throughout this assignment.

In [3]:

```
USE_GPU = True

dtype = torch.float32 # we will be using float throughout this tutorial

if USE_GPU and torch.cuda.is_available():
    device = torch.device('cuda')

else:
    device = torch.device('cpu')

# Constant to control how frequently we print train loss
print_every = 100

print('using device:', device)
```

using device: cuda

Part II. Barebones PyTorch

PyTorch ships with high-level APIs to help us define model architectures conveniently, which we will cover in Part II of this tutorial. In this section, we will start with the barebone PyTorch elements to understand the autograd engine better. After this exercise, you will come to appreciate the high-level model API more.

We will start with a simple fully-connected ReLU network with two hidden layers and no biases for CIFAR classification. This implementation computes the forward pass using operations on PyTorch Tensors, and uses PyTorch autograd to compute gradients. It is important that you understand every line, because you will write a harder version after the example.

When we create a PyTorch Tensor with $requires_grad=True$, then operations involving that Tensor will not just compute values; they will also build up a computational graph in the background, allowing us to easily backpropagate through the graph to compute gradients of some Tensors with respect to a downstream loss. Concretely if x is a Tensor with $x.requires_grad == True$ then after backpropagation x.grad will be another Tensor holding the gradient of x with respect to the scalar loss at the end.

PyTorch Tensors: Flatten Function

A PyTorch Tensor is conceptionally similar to a numpy array: it is an n-dimensional grid of numbers, and like numpy PyTorch provides many functions to efficiently operate on Tensors. As a simple example, we provide a flatten function below which reshapes image data for use in a fully-connected neural network.

Recall that image data is typically stored in a Tensor of shape N x C x H x W, where:

- N is the number of datapoints
- · C is the number of channels
- H is the height of the intermediate feature map in pixels
- W is the height of the intermediate feature map in pixels

This is the right way to represent the data when we are doing something like a 2D convolution, that needs spatial understanding of where the intermediate features are relative to each other. When we use fully connected affine layers to process the image, however, we want each datapoint to be represented by a single vector -- it's no longer useful to segregate the different channels, rows, and columns of the data. So, we use a

"flatten" operation to collapse the $C \times H \times W$ values per representation into a single long vector. The flatten function below first reads in the N, C, H, and W values from a given batch of data, and then returns a "view" of that data. "View" is analogous to numpy's "reshape" method: it reshapes x's dimensions to be N x ??, where ?? is allowed to be anything (in this case, it will be $C \times H \times W$, but we don't need to specify that explicitly).

In [4]:

```
def flatten(x):
    N = x.shape[0] # read in N, C, H, W
    return x.view(N, -1) # "flatten" the C * H * W values into a single vector per

def test_flatten():
    x = torch.arange(12).view(2, 1, 3, 2)
    print('Before flattening: ', x)
    print('After flattening: ', flatten(x))

test_flatten()
```

Barebones PyTorch: Two-Layer Network

Here we define a function two_layer_fc which performs the forward pass of a two-layer fully-connected ReLU network on a batch of image data. After defining the forward pass we check that it doesn't crash and that it produces outputs of the right shape by running zeros through the network.

You don't have to write any code here, but it's important that you read and understand the implementation.

In [5]:

```
import torch.nn.functional as F # useful stateless functions
def two layer fc(x, params):
    0.00
    A fully-connected neural networks; the architecture is:
    NN is fully connected -> ReLU -> fully connected layer.
    Note that this function only defines the forward pass;
    PyTorch will take care of the backward pass for us.
    The input to the network will be a minibatch of data, of shape
    (N, d1, \ldots, dM) where d1 * \ldots * dM = D. The hidden layer will have H units,
    and the output layer will produce scores for C classes.
    Inputs:
    - x: A PyTorch Tensor of shape (N, d1, ..., dM) giving a minibatch of
      input data.
    - params: A list [w1, w2] of PyTorch Tensors giving weights for the network;
      w1 has shape (D, H) and w2 has shape (H, C).
    Returns:
    - scores: A PyTorch Tensor of shape (N, C) giving classification scores for
      the input data x.
    # first we flatten the image
    x = flatten(x) + shape: [batch size, C x H x W]
   w1, w2 = params
    # Forward pass: compute predicted y using operations on Tensors. Since w1 and
    # w2 have requires grad=True, operations involving these Tensors will cause
    # PyTorch to build a computational graph, allowing automatic computation of
    # gradients. Since we are no longer implementing the backward pass by hand we
    # don't need to keep references to intermediate values.
   # you can also use `.clamp(min=0)`, equivalent to F.relu()
    x = F.relu(x.mm(w1))
    x = x.mm(w2)
    return x
def two layer fc test():
    hidden layer size = 42
    x = torch.zeros((64, 50), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, feature dimension
    w1 = torch.zeros((50, hidden layer size), dtype=dtype)
   w2 = torch.zeros((hidden_layer_size, 10), dtype=dtype)
    scores = two_layer_fc(x, [w1, w2])
    print(scores.size()) # you should see [64, 10]
two_layer_fc_test()
```

torch.Size([64, 10])

Barebones PyTorch: Three-Layer ConvNet

Here you will complete the implementation of the function <code>three_layer_convnet</code>, which will perform the forward pass of a three-layer convolutional network. Like above, we can immediately test our implementation by passing zeros through the network. The network should have the following architecture:

- 1. A convolutional layer (with bias) with channel_1 filters, each with shape KW1 x KH1, and zero-padding of two
- 2. ReLU nonlinearity
- 3. A convolutional layer (with bias) with channel_2 filters, each with shape KW2 x KH2, and zero-padding of one
- 4. ReLU nonlinearity
- 5. Fully-connected layer with bias, producing scores for C classes.

HINT: For convolutions: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#torch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#torch.nn.functional.conv2d); pay attention to the shapes of convolutional filters!

In [6]:

```
def three layer convnet(x, params):
   Performs the forward pass of a three-layer convolutional network with the
   architecture defined above.
   Inputs:
   - x: A PyTorch Tensor of shape (N, 3, H, W) giving a minibatch of images
   - params: A list of PyTorch Tensors giving the weights and biases for the
     network; should contain the following:
     - conv w1: PyTorch Tensor of shape (channel 1, 3, KH1, KW1) giving weights
      for the first convolutional layer
     - conv bl: PyTorch Tensor of shape (channel 1,) giving biases for the first
      convolutional layer
     - conv w2: PyTorch Tensor of shape (channel 2, channel 1, KH2, KW2) giving
      weights for the second convolutional layer
     - conv b2: PyTorch Tensor of shape (channel 2,) giving biases for the second
      convolutional layer
     - fc w: PyTorch Tensor giving weights for the fully-connected layer. Can you
      figure out what the shape should be?
     - fc b: PyTorch Tensor giving biases for the fully-connected layer. Can you
      figure out what the shape should be?
   Returns:
   - scores: PyTorch Tensor of shape (N, C) giving classification scores for x
   conv w1, conv b1, conv w2, conv b2, fc w, fc b = params
   scores = None
   #print("ghv")
   conv1 = torch.nn.functional.conv2d(x,conv w1, bias = conv b1, padding=2)
   #print(conv1.size())
   relu1 = torch.nn.functional.relu(conv1)
   conv2 = torch.nn.functional.conv2d(relu1,conv w2, bias = conv b2, padding=1)
   #print(conv2.size())
   relu2 = torch.nn.functional.relu(conv2)
   #print(relu2.size())
   relu2 = relu2.view(relu2.shape[0],-1)
   #print(fc_w.size(), fc_b.size())
   #print(relu2.size())
   scores = relu2.mm(fc w) + fc b
   #print(scores.size())
   # TODO: Implement the forward pass for the three-layer ConvNet.
   #pass
   END OF YOUR CODE
   return scores
```

After defining the forward pass of the ConvNet above, run the following cell to test your implementation.

When you run this function, scores should have shape (64, 10).

In [7]:

```
def three_layer_convnet_test():
    x = torch.zeros((64, 3, 32, 32), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, image size

    conv_w1 = torch.zeros((6, 3, 5, 5), dtype=dtype) # [out_channel, in_channel, k
    conv_b1 = torch.zeros((6,)) # out_channel
    conv_w2 = torch.zeros((9, 6, 3, 3), dtype=dtype) # [out_channel, in_channel, k
    conv_b2 = torch.zeros((9,)) # out_channel

# you must calculate the shape of the tensor after two conv layers, before the
    fc_w = torch.zeros((9 * 32 * 32, 10))
    fc_b = torch.zeros(10)

scores = three_layer_convnet(x, [conv_w1, conv_b1, conv_w2, conv_b2, fc_w, fc_b
    print(scores.size()) # you should see [64, 10]

three_layer_convnet_test()
```

torch.Size([64, 10])

Barebones PyTorch: Initialization

Let's write a couple utility methods to initialize the weight matrices for our models.

- random weight (shape) initializes a weight tensor with the Kaiming normalization method.
- zero weight(shape) initializes a weight tensor with all zeros. Useful for instantiating bias parameters.

The random weight function uses the Kaiming normal initialization method, described in:

He et al, *Delving Deep into Rectifiers: Surpassing Human-Level Performance on ImageNet Classification*, ICCV 2015, https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.01852 (https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.01852)

In [8]:

```
def random weight(shape):
    Create random Tensors for weights; setting requires grad=True means that we
    want to compute gradients for these Tensors during the backward pass.
    We use Kaiming normalization: sqrt(2 / fan in)
    if len(shape) == 2: # FC weight
        fan in = shape[0]
    else:
        fan in = np.prod(shape[1:]) # conv weight [out channel, in channel, kH, kW]
    # randn is standard normal distribution generator.
    w = torch.randn(shape, device=device, dtype=dtype) * np.sqrt(2. / fan in)
    w.requires grad = True
    return w
def zero weight(shape):
    return torch.zeros(shape, device=device, dtype=dtype, requires grad=True)
# create a weight of shape [3 \times 5]
# you should see the type `torch.cuda.FloatTensor` if you use GPU.
# Otherwise it should be `torch.FloatTensor`
random weight((3, 5))
Out[8]:
```

Barebones PyTorch: Check Accuracy

When training the model we will use the following function to check the accuracy of our model on the training or validation sets.

When checking accuracy we don't need to compute any gradients; as a result we don't need PyTorch to build a computational graph for us when we compute scores. To prevent a graph from being built we scope our computation under a torch.no grad() context manager.

In [9]:

```
def check accuracy part2(loader, model fn, params):
    Check the accuracy of a classification model.
    Inputs:
    - loader: A DataLoader for the data split we want to check
    - model fn: A function that performs the forward pass of the model,
     with the signature scores = model fn(x, params)
    - params: List of PyTorch Tensors giving parameters of the model
    Returns: Nothing, but prints the accuracy of the model
    split = 'val' if loader.dataset.train else 'test'
    print('Checking accuracy on the %s set' % split)
    num correct, num samples = 0, 0
    with torch.no grad():
        for x, y in loader:
            x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype) # move to device, e.g. GPU
            y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.int64)
            scores = model_fn(x, params)
            _{\text{,}} preds = scores.max(1)
            num correct += (preds == y).sum()
            num samples += preds.size(0)
        acc = float(num correct) / num samples
        print('Got %d / %d correct (%.2f%%)' % (num correct, num samples, 100 * acd
```

BareBones PyTorch: Training Loop

We can now set up a basic training loop to train our network. We will train the model using stochastic gradient descent without momentum. We will use torch.functional.cross_entropy to compute the loss; you can read about it here (http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#cross-entropy).

The training loop takes as input the neural network function, a list of initialized parameters ([w1, w2] in our example), and learning rate.

In [10]:

```
def train part2(model fn, params, learning rate):
   Train a model on CIFAR-10.
    Inputs:
    - model fn: A Python function that performs the forward pass of the model.
      It should have the signature scores = model fn(x, params) where x is a
      PyTorch Tensor of image data, params is a list of PyTorch Tensors giving
     model weights, and scores is a PyTorch Tensor of shape (N, C) giving
     scores for the elements in x.
    - params: List of PyTorch Tensors giving weights for the model
    - learning rate: Python scalar giving the learning rate to use for SGD
    Returns: Nothing
    for t, (x, y) in enumerate(loader train):
        # Move the data to the proper device (GPU or CPU)
        x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype)
        y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.long)
        # Forward pass: compute scores and loss
        scores = model fn(x, params)
        loss = F.cross entropy(scores, y)
        # Backward pass: PyTorch figures out which Tensors in the computational
        # graph has requires grad=True and uses backpropagation to compute the
        # gradient of the loss with respect to these Tensors, and stores the
        # gradients in the .grad attribute of each Tensor.
        loss.backward()
        # Update parameters. We don't want to backpropagate through the
        # parameter updates, so we scope the updates under a torch.no grad()
        # context manager to prevent a computational graph from being built.
       with torch.no grad():
            for w in params:
                w -= learning rate * w.grad
                # Manually zero the gradients after running the backward pass
                w.grad.zero ()
        if t % print every == 0:
            print('Iteration %d, loss = %.4f' % (t, loss.item()))
            check_accuracy_part2(loader_val, model_fn, params)
            print()
```

BareBones PyTorch: Train a Two-Layer Network

Now we are ready to run the training loop. We need to explicitly allocate tensors for the fully connected weights, w1 and w2.

Each minibatch of CIFAR has 64 examples, so the tensor shape is [64, 3, 32, 32].

After flattening, x shape should be [64, 3 * 32 * 32]. This will be the size of the first dimension of w1. The second dimension of w1 is the hidden layer size, which will also be the first dimension of w2.

Finally, the output of the network is a 10-dimensional vector that represents the probability distribution over 10 classes.

You don't need to tune any hyperparameters but you should see accuracies above 40% after training for one epoch.

In [11]:

```
hidden_layer_size = 4000
learning_rate = 1e-2
w1 = random_weight((3 * 32 * 32, hidden_layer_size))
w2 = random_weight((hidden_layer_size, 10))
train_part2(two_layer_fc, [w1, w2], learning_rate)
```

```
Iteration 0, loss = 3.4243
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 120 / 1000 correct (12.00%)
Iteration 100, loss = 2.4931
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 352 / 1000 correct (35.20%)
Iteration 200, loss = 2.1775
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 377 / 1000 correct (37.70%)
Iteration 300, loss = 1.9797
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 391 / 1000 correct (39.10%)
Iteration 400, loss = 1.8160
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 437 / 1000 correct (43.70%)
Iteration 500, loss = 1.8289
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 427 / 1000 correct (42.70%)
Iteration 600, loss = 1.4695
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 417 / 1000 correct (41.70%)
Iteration 700, loss = 1.7576
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 444 / 1000 correct (44.40%)
```

BareBones PyTorch: Training a ConvNet

In the below you should use the functions defined above to train a three-layer convolutional network on CIFAR. The network should have the following architecture:

- 1. Convolutional layer (with bias) with 32 5x5 filters, with zero-padding of 2
- 2. ReLU

3. Convolutional layer (with bias) with 16 3x3 filters, with zero-padding of 1

- 4. ReLU
- 5. Fully-connected layer (with bias) to compute scores for 10 classes

You should initialize your weight matrices using the random_weight function defined above, and you should initialize your bias vectors using the zero_weight function above.

You don't need to tune any hyperparameters, but if everything works correctly you should achieve an accuracy above 42% after one epoch.

In [12]:

```
learning rate = 3e-3
channel 1 = 32
channel 2 = 16
conv w1 = random weight((32,3,5,5))
conv b1 = zero weight((32))
conv w2 = random weight((16,32,3,3))
conv b2 = zero weight((16))
fc w = random weight((16384,10))
fc b = zero weight((10))
# TODO: Initialize the parameters of a three-layer ConvNet.
#pass
END OF YOUR CODE
params = [conv w1, conv b1, conv w2, conv b2, fc w, fc b]
train part2(three layer convnet, params, learning rate)
```

Iteration 0, loss = 3.2205
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 116 / 1000 correct (11.60%)

Iteration 100, loss = 1.7007
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 352 / 1000 correct (35.20%)

Iteration 200, loss = 1.8396
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 361 / 1000 correct (36.10%)

Iteration 300, loss = 1.6029
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 389 / 1000 correct (38.90%)

Iteration 400, loss = 1.6660
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 413 / 1000 correct (41.30%)

Iteration 500, loss = 1.5129
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 435 / 1000 correct (43.50%)

Iteration 600, loss = 1.5908
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 472 / 1000 correct (47.20%)

Iteration 700, loss = 1.4748
Checking accuracy on the val set
Got 461 / 1000 correct (46.10%)

Part III. PyTorch Module API

Barebone PyTorch requires that we track all the parameter tensors by hand. This is fine for small networks with a few tensors, but it would be extremely inconvenient and error-prone to track tens or hundreds of tensors in larger networks.

PyTorch provides the nn.Module API for you to define arbitrary network architectures, while tracking every learnable parameters for you. In Part II, we implemented SGD ourselves. PyTorch also provides the torch.optim package that implements all the common optimizers, such as RMSProp, Adagrad, and Adam. It even supports approximate second-order methods like L-BFGS! You can refer to the doc (http://pytorch.org/docs/master/optim.html) for the exact specifications of each optimizer.

To use the Module API, follow the steps below:

- 1. Subclass nn.Module. Give your network class an intuitive name like TwoLayerFC.
- 2. In the constructor __init__(), define all the layers you need as class attributes. Layer objects like nn.Linear and nn.Conv2d are themselves nn.Module subclasses and contain learnable parameters, so that you don't have to instantiate the raw tensors yourself. nn.Module will track these internal parameters for you. Refer to the doc (http://pytorch.org/docs/master/nn.html) to learn more about the dozens of builtin layers. Warning: don't forget to call the super().__init__() first!
- 3. In the <code>forward()</code> method, define the *connectivity* of your network. You should use the attributes defined in <code>__init__</code> as function calls that take tensor as input and output the "transformed" tensor. Do *not* create any new layers with learnable parameters in <code>forward()</code>! All of them must be declared upfront in <code>__init__</code>.

After you define your Module subclass, you can instantiate it as an object and call it just like the NN forward function in part II.

Module API: Two-Layer Network

Here is a concrete example of a 2-layer fully connected network:

In [13]:

```
class TwoLayerFC(nn.Module):
    def init (self, input size, hidden size, num classes):
        super(). init ()
        # assign layer objects to class attributes
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(input size, hidden size)
        # nn.init package contains convenient initialization methods
        # http://pytorch.org/docs/master/nn.html#torch-nn-init
        nn.init.kaiming normal (self.fc1.weight)
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(hidden size, num classes)
        nn.init.kaiming normal (self.fc2.weight)
    def forward(self, x):
        # forward always defines connectivity
        x = flatten(x)
        scores = self.fc2(F.relu(self.fc1(x)))
        return scores
def test TwoLayerFC():
    input size = 50
    x = torch.zeros((64, input_size), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, feature di
    model = TwoLayerFC(input size, 42, 10)
    scores = model(x)
    print(scores.size()) # you should see [64, 10]
test TwoLayerFC()
```

torch.Size([64, 10])

Module API: Three-Layer ConvNet

It's your turn to implement a 3-layer ConvNet followed by a fully connected layer. The network architecture should be the same as in Part II:

- 1. Convolutional layer with channel_1 5x5 filters with zero-padding of 2
- 2. ReLU
- 3. Convolutional layer with channel 2 3x3 filters with zero-padding of 1
- 4. ReLU
- Fully-connected layer to num_classes classes

You should initialize the weight matrices of the model using the Kaiming normal initialization method.

HINT: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#conv2d (http://pytorch.org/nn.html#conv2d (http://pytorch.org/nn.html#conv2d (http://pytorch.org/nn.html#conv2d (http://pytorch.org/nn.html (<a href="http://pytorch.org/nn.

After you implement the three-layer ConvNet, the test_ThreeLayerConvNet function will run your implementation; it should print (64, 10) for the shape of the output scores.

In [14]:

```
class ThreeLayerConvNet(nn.Module):
   def __init__(self, in_channel, channel_1, channel 2, num classes):
     super(). init ()
     self.conv1 = nn.Conv2d(in channel,channel 1,kernel size=5,padding=2, bias =
     nn.init.kaiming normal (self.conv1.weight)
     #print(self.conv1.weight.size())
     nn.init.constant (self.conv1.bias, 0)
     self.conv2 = nn.Conv2d(channel 1,channel 2,kernel size=3,padding=1, bias =
     nn.init.kaiming normal (self.conv2.weight)
     #print(self.conv2.weight.size())
     nn.init.constant (self.conv2.bias, 0)
     self.fc1 = nn.Linear(8192, num classes)
     nn.init.kaiming normal (self.fc1.weight)
     nn.init.constant (self.fc1.bias, 0)
     # TODO: Set up the layers you need for a three-layer ConvNet with the
     # architecture defined above.
     #pass
     END OF YOUR CODE
     def forward(self, x):
     scores = None
     \#x = flatten(x)
     scores = self.fc1(flatten(F.relu(self.conv2(F.relu(self.conv1(x))))))
     \#temp1 = self.conv1(x)
     \#temp2 = F.relu(temp1)
     \#temp3 = self.conv2(temp2)
     \#temp4 = F.relu(temp3)
     \#temp5 = flatten(temp4)
     #scores = self.fc1(temp5)
     # TODO: Implement the forward function for a 3-layer ConvNet. you
                                                         #
     # should use the layers you defined in init and specify the
                                                         #
     # connectivity of those layers in forward()
                                                          #
     #pass
     END OF YOUR CODE
     return scores
def test ThreeLayerConvNet():
   x = torch.zeros((64, 3, 32, 32), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, image size
   model = ThreeLayerConvNet(in channel=3, channel 1=12, channel 2=8, num classes=
   scores = model(x)
   print(scores.size()) # you should see [64, 10]
test ThreeLayerConvNet()
```

torch.Size([64, 10])

Module API: Check Accuracy

Given the validation or test set, we can check the classification accuracy of a neural network.

This version is slightly different from the one in part II. You don't manually pass in the parameters anymore.

In [15]:

```
def check accuracy part34(loader, model):
    if loader.dataset.train:
        print('Checking accuracy on validation set')
    else:
        print('Checking accuracy on test set')
    num correct = 0
    num samples = 0
    model.eval() # set model to evaluation mode
    with torch.no grad():
        for x, y in loader:
            x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype) # move to device, e.g. GPU
            y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.long)
            scores = model(x)
            _, preds = scores.max(1)
            num correct += (preds == y).sum()
            num samples += preds.size(0)
        acc = float(num correct) / num samples
        print('Got %d / %d correct (%.2f)' % (num correct, num samples, 100 * acc))
```

Module API: Training Loop

We also use a slightly different training loop. Rather than updating the values of the weights ourselves, we use an Optimizer object from the torch.optim package, which abstract the notion of an optimization algorithm and provides implementations of most of the algorithms commonly used to optimize neural networks.

In [16]:

```
def train part34(model, optimizer, epochs=1):
   Train a model on CIFAR-10 using the PyTorch Module API.
   Inputs:
    - model: A PyTorch Module giving the model to train.
    - optimizer: An Optimizer object we will use to train the model
    - epochs: (Optional) A Python integer giving the number of epochs to train for
    Returns: Nothing, but prints model accuracies during training.
    model = model.to(device=device) # move the model parameters to CPU/GPU
    for e in range(epochs):
        for t, (x, y) in enumerate(loader train):
            model.train() # put model to training mode
            x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype) # move to device, e.g. GPU
            y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.long)
            scores = model(x)
            loss = F.cross entropy(scores, y)
            # Zero out all of the gradients for the variables which the optimizer
            # will update.
            optimizer.zero grad()
            # This is the backwards pass: compute the gradient of the loss with
            # respect to each parameter of the model.
            loss.backward()
            # Actually update the parameters of the model using the gradients
            # computed by the backwards pass.
            optimizer.step()
            if t % print every == 0:
                print('Iteration %d, loss = %.4f' % (t, loss.item()))
                check accuracy part34(loader val, model)
                print()
```

Module API: Train a Two-Layer Network

Now we are ready to run the training loop. In contrast to part II, we don't explicitly allocate parameter tensors anymore.

Simply pass the input size, hidden layer size, and number of classes (i.e. output size) to the constructor of TwoLayerFC.

You also need to define an optimizer that tracks all the learnable parameters inside TwoLayerFC.

You don't need to tune any hyperparameters, but you should see model accuracies above 40% after training for one epoch.

In [17]:

```
hidden_layer_size = 4000
learning_rate = 1e-2
model = TwoLayerFC(3 * 32 * 32, hidden_layer_size, 10)
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning_rate)
train_part34(model, optimizer)
```

```
Iteration 0, loss = 4.0080
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 145 / 1000 correct (14.50)
Iteration 100, loss = 2.3776
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 323 / 1000 correct (32.30)
Iteration 200, loss = 2.0749
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 324 / 1000 correct (32.40)
Iteration 300, loss = 1.9609
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 387 / 1000 correct (38.70)
Iteration 400, loss = 1.7903
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 406 / 1000 correct (40.60)
Iteration 500, loss = 1.8708
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 381 / 1000 correct (38.10)
Iteration 600, loss = 2.1863
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 412 / 1000 correct (41.20)
Iteration 700, loss = 1.7718
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 421 / 1000 correct (42.10)
```

Module API: Train a Three-Layer ConvNet

You should now use the Module API to train a three-layer ConvNet on CIFAR. This should look very similar to training the two-layer network! You don't need to tune any hyperparameters, but you should achieve above above 45% after training for one epoch.

You should train the model using stochastic gradient descent without momentum.

In [27]:

Iteration 0, loss = 2.8344
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 137 / 1000 correct (13.70)

Iteration 100, loss = 2.0502
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 336 / 1000 correct (33.60)

Iteration 200, loss = 1.8566
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 382 / 1000 correct (38.20)

Iteration 300, loss = 1.9358
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 423 / 1000 correct (42.30)

Iteration 400, loss = 1.6845
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 430 / 1000 correct (43.00)

Iteration 500, loss = 1.6297
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 448 / 1000 correct (44.80)

Iteration 600, loss = 1.7455 Checking accuracy on validation set Got 456 / 1000 correct (45.60)

Iteration 700, loss = 1.7646
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 473 / 1000 correct (47.30)

Part IV. PyTorch Sequential API

Part III introduced the PyTorch Module API, which allows you to define arbitrary learnable layers and their connectivity.

For simple models like a stack of feed forward layers, you still need to go through 3 steps: subclass nn.Module, assign layers to class attributes in __init__, and call each layer one by one in forward(). Is there a more convenient way?

Fortunately, PyTorch provides a container Module called nn.Sequential, which merges the above steps into one. It is not as flexible as nn.Module, because you cannot specify more complex topology than a feed-forward stack, but it's good enough for many use cases.

Sequential API: Two-Layer Network

Let's see how to rewrite our two-layer fully connected network example with nn.Sequential, and train it using the training loop defined above.

Again, you don't need to tune any hyperparameters here, but you should achieve above 40% accuracy after one epoch of training.

In [19]:

```
# We need to wrap `flatten` function in a module in order to stack it
# in nn.Sequential
class Flatten(nn.Module):
    def forward(self, x):
        return flatten(x)
hidden layer size = 4000
learning rate = 1e-2
model = nn.Sequential(
    Flatten(),
    nn.Linear(3 * 32 * 32, hidden layer size),
    nn.ReLU(),
    nn.Linear(hidden layer size, 10),
)
# you can use Nesterov momentum in optim.SGD
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning rate,
                     momentum=0.9, nesterov=True)
train part34(model, optimizer)
```

```
Iteration 0, loss = 2.3009
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 160 / 1000 correct (16.00)
Iteration 100, loss = 2.2429
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 389 / 1000 correct (38.90)
Iteration 200, loss = 1.7965
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 408 / 1000 correct (40.80)
Iteration 300, loss = 2.0386
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 409 / 1000 correct (40.90)
Iteration 400, loss = 1.8699
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 427 / 1000 correct (42.70)
Iteration 500, loss = 1.9580
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 417 / 1000 correct (41.70)
Iteration 600, loss = 1.9104
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 413 / 1000 correct (41.30)
Iteration 700, loss = 1.4889
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 424 / 1000 correct (42.40)
```

Sequential API: Three-Layer ConvNet

Here you should use nn.Sequential to define and train a three-layer ConvNet with the same architecture we used in Part III:

- 1. Convolutional layer (with bias) with 32 5x5 filters, with zero-padding of 2
- 2. ReLU
- 3. Convolutional layer (with bias) with 16 3x3 filters, with zero-padding of 1
- 4. ReLU
- 5. Fully-connected layer (with bias) to compute scores for 10 classes

You should initialize your weight matrices using the random_weight function defined above, and you should initialize your bias vectors using the zero weight function above.

You should optimize your model using stochastic gradient descent with Nesterov momentum 0.9.

Again, you don't need to tune any hyperparameters but you should see accuracy above 55% after one epoch of training.

In [20]:

```
class Flatten(nn.Module):
  def forward(self, x):
     return flatten(x)
channel 1 = 32
channel 2 = 16
learning rate = 1e-2
conv w1 = random weight((32,3,5,5))
conv b1 = zero weight((32))
conv w2 = random weight((16,32,3,3))
conv b2 = zero weight((16))
fc w = random weight((16384,10))
fc b = zero weight((10))
#model = None
#optimizer = None
model = nn.Sequential(
   nn.Conv2d(3,channel 1,kernel size=5,padding=2, bias = True),
   nn.ReLU(),
   nn.Conv2d(channel 1,channel 2,kernel size=3,padding=1, bias = True),
   nn.ReLU(),
   Flatten().
   nn.Linear(16*32*32, 10)
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning rate,
               momentum=0.9, nesterov=True)
# TODO: Rewrite the 2-layer ConvNet with bias from Part III with the
# Sequential API.
#pass
END OF YOUR CODE
train part34(model, optimizer)
Iteration 0, loss = 2.3107
```

```
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 114 / 1000 correct (11.40)

Iteration 100, loss = 1.6379
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 447 / 1000 correct (44.70)

Iteration 200, loss = 1.5094
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 452 / 1000 correct (45.20)

Iteration 300, loss = 1.3648
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 507 / 1000 correct (50.70)

Iteration 400, loss = 1.3141
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 542 / 1000 correct (54.20)
```

Iteration 500, loss = 1.2315
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 537 / 1000 correct (53.70)

Iteration 600, loss = 1.5270
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 585 / 1000 correct (58.50)

Iteration 700, loss = 1.4487
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 595 / 1000 correct (59.50)

Part V. CIFAR-10 open-ended challenge

In this section, you can experiment with whatever ConvNet architecture you'd like on CIFAR-10.

Now it's your job to experiment with architectures, hyperparameters, loss functions, and optimizers to train a model that achieves at least 70% accuracy on the CIFAR-10 validation set within 10 epochs. You can use the check_accuracy and train functions from above. You can use either nn.Module or nn.Sequential API.

Describe what you did at the end of this notebook.

Here are the official API documentation for each component. One note: what we call in the class "spatial batch norm" is called "BatchNorm2D" in PyTorch.

- Layers in torch.nn package: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html (http://pytorch.org/nn.html (
- Activations: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#non-linear-activations)
 (http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#non-linear-activations)
- Loss functions: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#loss-functions
 (http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#loss-functions)
- Optimizers: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/optim.html)
 Optimizers: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/optim.html)

Things you might try:

- Filter size: Above we used 5x5; would smaller filters be more efficient?
- Number of filters: Above we used 32 filters. Do more or fewer do better?
- Pooling vs Strided Convolution: Do you use max pooling or just stride convolutions?
- **Batch normalization**: Try adding spatial batch normalization after convolution layers and vanilla batch normalization after affine layers. Do your networks train faster?
- **Network architecture**: The network above has two layers of trainable parameters. Can you do better with a deep network? Good architectures to try include:
 - [conv-relu-pool]xN -> [affine]xM -> [softmax or SVM]
 - [conv-relu-conv-relu-pool]xN -> [affine]xM -> [softmax or SVM]
 - [batchnorm-relu-conv]xN -> [affine]xM -> [softmax or SVM]
- Global Average Pooling: Instead of flattening and then having multiple affine layers, perform convolutions until your image gets small (7x7 or so) and then perform an average pooling operation to get to a 1x1 image picture (1, 1, Filter#), which is then reshaped into a (Filter#) vector. This is used in Google's Inception Network (https://arxiv.org/abs/1512.00567) (See Table 1 for their architecture).
- Regularization: Add I2 weight regularization, or perhaps use Dropout.

Tips for training

For each network architecture that you try, you should tune the learning rate and other hyperparameters. When doing this there are a couple important things to keep in mind:

- If the parameters are working well, you should see improvement within a few hundred iterations
- Remember the coarse-to-fine approach for hyperparameter tuning: start by testing a large range of hyperparameters for just a few training iterations to find the combinations of parameters that are working at all.
- Once you have found some sets of parameters that seem to work, search more finely around these parameters. You may need to train for more epochs.
- You should use the validation set for hyperparameter search, and save your test set for evaluating your
 architecture on the best parameters as selected by the validation set.

Going above and beyond

If you are feeling adventurous there are many other features you can implement to try and improve your performance. You are **not required** to implement any of these, but don't miss the fun if you have time!

- Alternative optimizers: you can try Adam, Adagrad, RMSprop, etc.
- Alternative activation functions such as leaky ReLU, parametric ReLU, ELU, or MaxOut.
- Model ensembles
- Data augmentation
- · New Architectures
 - ResNets (https://arxiv.org/abs/1512.03385) where the input from the previous layer is added to the output.
 - <u>DenseNets (https://arxiv.org/abs/1608.06993)</u> where inputs into previous layers are concatenated together.
 - <u>This blog has an in-depth overview (https://chatbotslife.com/resnets-highwaynets-and-densenets-ohmy-9bb15918ee32)</u>

Have fun and happy training!

In [25]:

```
# TODO:
# Experiment with any architectures, optimizers, and hyperparameters.
                                                                   #
# Achieve AT LEAST 70% accuracy on the *validation set* within 10 epochs.
                                                                   #
#
                                                                   #
                                                                   #
# Note that you can use the check accuracy function to evaluate on either
# the test set or the validation set, by passing either loader test or
                                                                   #
# loader val as the second argument to check accuracy. You should not touch
                                                                   #
# the test set until you have finished your architecture and hyperparameter
                                                                   #
# tuning, and only run the test set once at the end to report a final value.
class Flatten(nn.Module):
   def forward(self, x):
       return flatten(x)
channel 1 = 32
channel 2 = 16
learning rate = 1e-2
model = None
optimizer = None
model = nn.Sequential(
   nn.Conv2d(3,channel_1,kernel_size=5,padding=2, bias = True),
   nn.BatchNorm2d(channel 1),
   nn.ReLU(),
   nn.MaxPool2d(kernel size=2, stride=2),
   nn.Conv2d(channel 1, channel 2, kernel size=3, padding=1, bias = True),
   nn.BatchNorm2d(channel 2),
   nn.ReLU(),
   nn.MaxPool2d(kernel size=2, stride=2),
   Flatten(),
   nn.Linear(1024, 10)
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning rate,
                 momentum=0.9, nesterov=True)
END OF YOUR CODE
# You should get at least 70% accuracy
train part34(model, optimizer, epochs=10)
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 702 / 1000 correct (70.20)
Iteration 300, loss = 0.6245
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 700 / 1000 correct (70.00)
Iteration 400, loss = 0.7733
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 693 / 1000 correct (69.30)
Iteration 500, loss = 0.7698
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 696 / 1000 correct (69.60)
```

Iteration 600, loss = 0.6030
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 695 / 1000 correct (69.50)

Iteration 700. loss = 0.7099

Describe what you did

In the cell below you should write an explanation of what you did, any additional features that you implemented, and/or any graphs that you made in the process of training and evaluating your network.

The initial network was 3 layer conv net with relu activation and sgd optimization. To this network, I also added Maxpooling with a kernel size 2 and batch normalization

Test set -- run this only once

Now that we've gotten a result we're happy with, we test our final model on the test set (which you should store in best model). Think about how this compares to your validation set accuracy.

In [26]:

```
best_model = model
check_accuracy_part34(loader_test, best_model)
```

Checking accuracy on test set Got 7006 / 10000 correct (70.06)

In []: