Q.1) The autoencoder network architecture is built by the following equations

X: Input matrix of flattened images - shape = (10240, 256)

W1: Hidden layer weights - shape = (256,M) (M is number of neurons in hidden layer)

B1: Bias of hidden layer - shape = (1,M)

W2: Output layer weights - shape = (M, 256)

B2: Bias of output layer - shape = (1, 256)

$$Z = XW1 + B1$$

$$H = f(Z)$$

$$V = W2H + B2$$

$$O = f(V)$$

Cost function is given in the assignment as;

$$J = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||d(m) - o(m)||^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \left(\sum_{b=1}^{Lhid} \sum_{a=1}^{Lin} W^{(1)}_{a,b}^2 + \sum_{b=1}^{Lhid} \sum_{c=1}^{Lout} W^{(1)}_{c,b}^2 \right) + \beta \sum_{b=1}^{Lhid} KL(\rho|\rho_b)$$

And

$$E = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} ||d(m) - o(m)||^{2}$$

When updating the weights, since there is a KL term in the cost function, it is tricky to find the update rule. Other than KL term the normal regularized network update is calculated as with chain rule;

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial W} + \lambda W$$

Which E is the MSE without the KL term and regularization term, so we will continue with regular MSE then sum the gradient with regularization terms gradient. Here the tricky part is to update the KL divergence term in the loss function we will add something to the activation derivative below;

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial O} = -\frac{(y - O)}{length(O)}$$

$$\frac{\partial O}{\partial V} = f'(Z) = f(Z)(1 - f(Z))$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial W2} = H$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial H} = W2$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial B2} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial Z} = f'(Z) = f(Z)(1 - f(Z)) + \beta \left(-\frac{\rho}{\rho_b} + \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \rho_b} \right) (THIS\ IS\ THE\ TERM)[1]$$

$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial W1} = X$$

$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial B1} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W2} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial O} \frac{\partial O}{\partial Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial W2}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W1} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial O} \frac{\partial O}{\partial Z} \frac{\partial H}{\partial W} \frac{\partial V}{\partial Wh}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial B2} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial O} \frac{\partial O}{\partial Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial B2}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial B1} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial O} \frac{\partial O}{\partial Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial H} \frac{\partial V}{\partial V} \frac{\partial V}{\partial B1}$$

The term calculated above is given by the reference [1] from Stanford university as if we update the weights according to this rule it will be a correct update. And the update rule with the regularization will be;

$$W_{old} \to W_{old} - lr * (\frac{\partial J}{\partial W})$$

A) Images preprocessed as the assignment wants. RGB converted to grayscale with given equation and mean is centralized, then the min max values are set to -3std and +3std. After that it mapped into [0.1 0.9] interval.

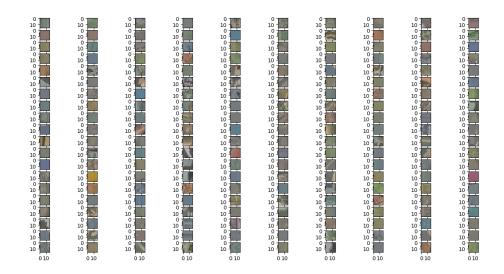


Fig 1. inputs RGB colored.

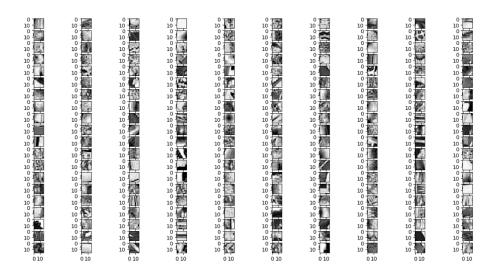


Fig 2. Normalized images of inputs

As we can see figure 1 and 2, normalized images are representing the input images quite well.

B) The network is initialized with given parameters. As above the calculated network is built. As the parameters beta = 0.9, rho = 0.05 and lambda = 0.0005 with 64 hidden layer neurons the loss function is given in fig 3.

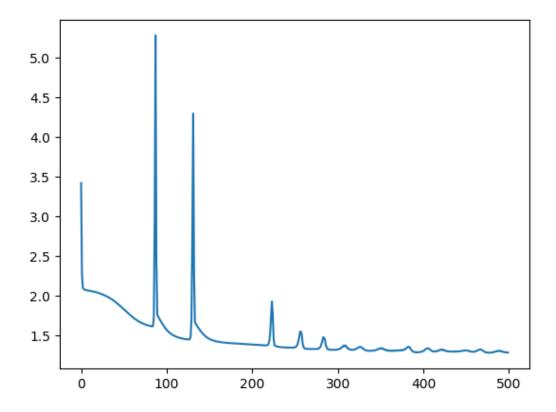


Fig 3. Loss graph of the network with 64 neurons

Loss function has a spike when it moves the activation mean around. Which makes sense to me since the update term includes a KL divergence update term. Other than the decreasing loss, weights make sense perfectly as it is similar to the Andrew NG's Stanford paper. [1]

C)

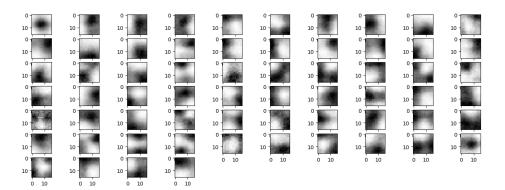


Fig 4. Weights of the given parameters and 64 neuron hidden layer network

The weights as images is giving the information of edges learned in different locations [1]. We can't directly say that they are really representative of the images since they show the edges learned. This is the result after 500 epochs trained.

D)

Different number of neurons in hidden layer is tried with first 15 neurons and then 100 neurons. The results are given in the following images.

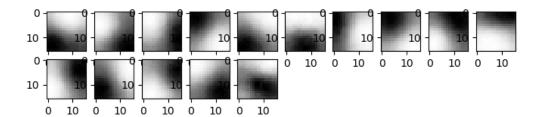


Fig 5. The weights of 15 neuron hidden layer

After that the network is trained with 100 neurons and the outputs are as follows;

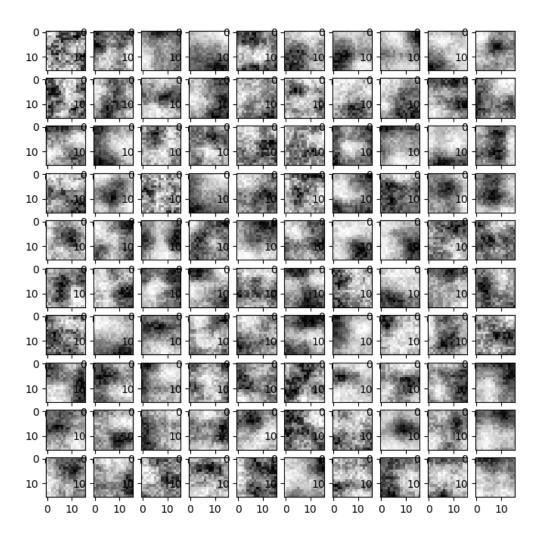


Fig 6. The weights as images of 100 hidden layer neurons.

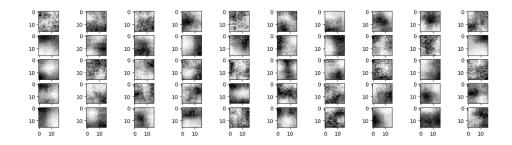


Fig 7. Weights of the 50 neuron network with same parameters.

2)

For the question 2 I printed the notebooks as PDF's and drop my comments on PDF's under COMMENT: sections.

Appendix:

```
import h5py
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import sys
import cv2 as cv
import math
def TahirAhmet_Golge_21501627_hw2(question):
    if question == '1':
        return None
    elif question == '2':
       question2()
    elif question == '3':
       print(question)
def question2():
    data = h5py.File('assign3_data1.h5', 'r')
    print(data.keys())
    images = np.array(data['data'])
    print(images.shape , ' \n', images[1][1].min(), images.max(), images.mean())
    scaled = preprocess(images)
    images = (images - images.min()) / (images.max() - images.min())
    print('scaled' , scaled.shape)
    encoder = autoencoder(scaled, 0.5, 0.0005, 0.9, 0.05)
    #encoder.train(500,0)
    displayweights()
def preprocess(data):
    data processed = []
    for i in range(len(data)):
       img = data[i]
       R = img[0,:,:]
       B = img[1,:,:]
       G = img[2,:,:]
       Y = 0.2126*R + 0.7152*G + 0.0722*B
        data processed.append(Y)
    data_processed = np.array(data_processed)
    centered = []
    for i in range(len(data_processed)):
        img = data_processed[i]
        mean = img.mean()
        img = img - mean
        centered.append(img)
```

```
centered = np.array(centered)
    std = centered.std()
    print('std', std)
    centered[centered > 3*std] = 3*std
    centered[centered < -3*std] = -3*std</pre>
    print('min,max,mean,std', centered.min(), centered.max(), centered.mean(),
centered.std())
    scaled = []
    min = centered.min()
    max = centered.max()
    for i in range(len(centered)):
        img = centered[i]
        img = ((((img - min) / (max - min))) * 0.8) + 0.1
        scaled.append(img)
    scaled = np.array(scaled)
    print('min,max,mean,std', scaled.min(), scaled.max(),scaled.mean(),
scaled.std())
    print(scaled.shape)
    return scaled
def display(scaled, data):
    x = []
    fig = plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8))
    for i in range(200):
       img = data[i]
       x = np.transpose(img, (1, 2, 0))
        plt.subplot(20, 10, i+1)
        plt.imshow(x, cmap='Greys_r')
    plt.show()
    fig = plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8))
    for i in range(200):
        img = scaled[i]
        plt.subplot(20, 10, i + 1)
        plt.imshow(img, cmap='Greys_r')
    plt.show()
def displayweights():
    weights = np.load('weights_for_1_epoch500neur50.npy')
    print(weights.shape)
    weights = weights.reshape(16,16, weights.shape[1])
    print(weights.shape)
    fig = plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8))
    for i in range(weights.shape[2]):
        img = weights.T
        im = img[i]
        fig.add_subplot(10, 10, i+1)
        plt.imshow(im, cmap='Greys r')
    plt.show()
```

```
class autoencoder:
    def __init__(self,data,lr, lam, beta, p, momentum = None):
         self.X = data
         self.X = self.X.reshape(self.X.shape[0] ,self.X.shape[1] *
self.X.shape[1])
         ##DIMENSIONS IS THE NEURON NUMBERS
         ##CAN CHANGE HIDDEN LAYER NEURON NUMBER WITH CHANGING DIMS[1]
         self.params = {}
         self.lam = lam
         self.beta = beta
         self.dims = [self.X.shape[1], 50, self.X.shape[1]]
         self.gradients = {}
         self.loss = []
         self.holder = {}
         self.lr = lr
         self.momentum = momentum
    def displayoutputforward(self):
         self.params['W1'] = np.load('weights_for_1_epoch500neur64.npy')
self.params['W2'] = np.load('weights_for_2_epoch500neur64.npy')
self.params['B1'] = np.load('bias_for_1_epoch500neur64.npy')
self.params['B2'] = np.load('bias_for_2_epoch500neur64.npy')
         self.holder['X'] = self.X
         Z = self.X.dot(self.params['W1']) + self.params['B1']
         H = self.sigmoid(Z)
         self.holder['Z'], self.holder['act'] = Z, H
         print('B2', self.params['B2'].shape)
         V = H.dot(self.params['W2']) + self.params['B2']
         0 = self.sigmoid(V)
         self.holder['V'], self.holder['0'] = V, 0
fig = plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8))
         for i in range(100):
              img = O[i]
              img = img.reshape(16,16)
              fig.add_subplot(20, 5, i + 1)
              plt.imshow(img, cmap='Greys r')
         plt.show()
    def train(self, epoch, batch_size):
         self.params['B1'] = np.random.uniform(low=-np.sqrt(6 / (256 +
self.dims[1])),
                                           high=np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])),
size=(1,self.dims[1]))
         self.params['B2'] = np.random.uniform(-np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])),
                                           np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])), size=(1,
256))
         self.params['W1'] = np.random.uniform(low=-np.sqrt(6 / (256 +
self.dims[1])).
```

```
high=np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])),
size=(256, self.dims[1]))
        bias_1 = np.zeros((self.dims[1], 1))
        self.params['W2'] = np.random.uniform(-np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])),
                                    np.sqrt(6 / (256 + self.dims[1])), size=(
self.dims[1],256))
       bias_2 = np.zeros((256, 1))
       for i in range(epoch):
           0, loss = self.forward(self.X)
           self.update(0, self.X, self.lam , self.beta , self.p)
           self.loss.append(loss)
           print('Epoch = ' , i)
           print('MSE = ', self.loss[i])
           print('-----
       np.save('weights_for_2_epoch' + str(epoch) + 'neur' + str(self.dims[1]),
self.params['W2'])
       np.save('bias_for_2_epoch' + str(epoch)+ 'neur' + str(self.dims[1]),
self.params['B2'])
       np.save('weights_for_1_epoch' + str(epoch)+ 'neur' + str(self.dims[1]),
self.params['W1'])
       np.save('bias_for_1_epoch' + str(epoch)+ 'neur' + str(self.dims[1]),
self.params['B1'])
      self.graphmse()
   def graphmse(self):
       plt.plot(self.loss, label='trainmse')
       plt.savefig('graph-low-neuron')
       plt.show()
   def forward(self,X):
       self.holder['X'] = X
       Z = X.dot(self.params['W1']) + self.params['B1']
       H = self.sigmoid(Z)
       self.holder['Z'], self.holder['act'] = Z, H
       print('B2', self.params['B2'].shape)
       V = H.dot(self.params['W2']) + self.params['B2']
       0 = self.sigmoid(V)
       self.holder['V'], self.holder['0'] = V, 0
       self.Yh = 0
       loss = self.mse(0, X)
       return 0, loss
   def sigmoid(self,V):
       return 1 / (1 + np.exp(-V))
   def dSigmoid(self,Z):
       s = 1 / (1 + np.exp(-Z))
       dZ = s * (1 - s)
```

```
return dZ
   def update(self, 0, Y , lam, beta, p, momentum = None):
       activations = self.holder['act']
       actmean = activations.mean()
       dEdO = (1/len(Y)) * (0 - self.X)
       dOdV = self.dSigmoid(self.holder['V'])
       dVdW2 = self.holder['act']
       dVdH = self.params['W2']
       dHdZ = self.dSigmoid(self.holder['Z']) + (beta * ((-p/actmean) + ((1-p) /
(1 - actmean))))
       dZdW1 = self.holder['X']
       dError = dEdO * dOdV
       dEdW2 = dError.T.dot(dVdW2)
       \#dEdW1 = dEdO * (dOdV)
       dEdW1 = dError.dot(dVdH.T)
       dEdW1 = dEdW1 * (dHdZ)
       dEdW1 = dEdW1.T.dot(dZdW1)
       dEdB2 = dEdO * dOdV
        dEdB2 = np.sum(dEdB2, axis= 0, keepdims=True)
       dEdB1 = dEdO * (dOdV)
       dEdB1 = dEdB1.dot(dVdH.T)
       dEdB1 = dEdB1 * (dHdZ)
        dEdB1 = np.sum(dEdB1, axis= 0, keepdims=True)
        #print('dedB1 shape = ', dEdB1.shape)
       print('actmean' , actmean)
       self.params['W2'] = self.params['W2'] - (self.lr * (dEdW2.T + lam *
self.params['W2']))
        self.params['W1'] = self.params['W1'] - (self.lr * (dEdW1.T + lam *
self.params['W1']))
        print('deDb2' , dEdB2.shape)
       bt = (self.lr * (dEdB2))
       print('bt ' , bt.shape)
        self.params['B2'] = self.params['B2'] - bt
        self.params['B1'] = self.params['B1'] - (self.lr * (dEdB1))
       return self.params
   def mse(self, 0, Y):
       a = np.square(0-Y)
        return (a.sum() / (2*len(0))) + ((self.lam/2) *
(np.sum(np.square(self.params['W1'])) + np.sum(np.square(self.params['W2'])))) +
(self.beta * ((self.p* math.log(self.p / self.holder['act'].mean()))+((1-
self.p)*(math.log((1-self.p)/(1-self.holder['act'].mean())))))
```

question = '2'
TahirAhmet_Golge_21501627_hw2(question)

Convolutional Networks

So far we have worked with deep fully-connected networks, using them to explore different optimization strategies and network architectures. Fully-connected networks are a good testbed for experimentation because they are very computationally efficient, but in practice all state-of-the-art results use convolutional networks instead.

First you will implement several layer types that are used in convolutional networks. You will then use these layers to train a convolutional network on the CIFAR-10 dataset.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from cs231n.classifiers.cnn import *
from cs231n.data_utils import get_CIFAR10_data
from cs231n.gradient_check import eval_numerical_gradient_array, eval_numerical_gradient
from cs231n.layers import *
from cs231n.fast_layers import *
from cs231n.solver import Solver
plt.rcParams['figure.figsize'] = (10.0, 8.0) # set default size of plots
plt.rcParams['image.interpolation'] = 'nearest'
     print('%s: ' % k, v.shape)
```

Convolution: Naive forward pass

The core of a convolutional network is the convolution operation. In the file cs231n/layers.py, implement the forward pass for the convolution layer in the function conv forward naive.

You don't have to worry too much about efficiency at this point; just write the code in whatever way you find most clear.

You can test your implementation by running the following:

```
In [3]: |
x_shape = (2, 3, 4, 4)
w_shape = (3, 3, 4, 4)
x = np.linspace(-0.1, 0.5, num=np.prod(x_shape)).reshape(x_shape)
w = np.linspace(-0.2, 0.3, num=np.prod(w_shape)).reshape(w_shape)
b = np.linspace(-0.1, 0.2, num=3)

conv_param = {'stride': 2, 'pad': 1}
out, _ = conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)
correct_out = np_array([[[[-0.08759809. -0.10987781].
```

Aside: Image processing via convolutions

As fun way to both check your implementation and gain a better understanding of the type of operation that convolutional layers can perform, we will set up an input containing two images and manually set up filters that perform common image processing operations (grayscale conversion and edge detection). The convolution forward pass will apply these operations to each of the input images. We can then visualize the results as a sanity check.

COMMENT: As we understand from the results the convolutional networks in forward pass just convolves a kernel with the images matrixwise. The kernel in this part is edge detection filter for example. To detect the shapes and objects the network learns what the kernel should be with training

```
kitten, puppy = imread('kitten.jpg'), imread('puppy.jpg')
d = kitten shape[1] - kitten shape[0]
kitten_cropped = kitten[:, d//2:-d//2, :]
img size = 200  # Make this smaller if it runs too slow
x = np.zeros((2, 3, img size, img size))
x[0, :, :, :] = imresize(puppy, (img size, img size)).transpose((2, 0, 1))
x[1, :, :, :] = imresize(kitten cropped, (img size, img size)).transpose((2, 0, 1))
b = np.array([0, 128])
               (img, normalize=True):
```

```
img_max, img_min = np max(img), np min(img)
        img = 255.0 * (img - img_min) / (img_max - img_min)
    plt.gca().axis('off')
plt.subplot(2, 3, 1)
imshow_noax(puppy, normalize=False)
plt.subplot(2, 3, 2)
plt title('Grayscale'
plt subplot(2, 3, 3)
plt.title('
plt.subplot(2, 3, 4)
imshow noax(kitten cropped, normalize=False)
imshow_noax(out[1, 0])
plt.subplot(2, 3, 6)
plt.show()
```

Convolution: Naive backward pass

Implement the backward pass for the convolution operation in the function <code>conv_backward_naive</code> in the file <code>cs231n/layers.py</code> . Again, you don't need to worry too much about computational efficiency.

When you are done, run the following to check your backward pass with a numeric gradient check.

COMMENT: This part is the backpropagation of the network for updating the kernel and learning what type of a filter we need for making the given job possible.

```
In [5]:

np.random.seed(231)

x = np.random.randn(4, 3, 5, 5)

w = np.random.randn(2, 3, 3, 3)

b = np.random.randn(2,)

dout = np.random.randn(4, 2, 5, 5)

conv_param = {'stride': 1, 'pad': 1}
```

```
dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda x: conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)[0], x,
dout)
dw_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda w: conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)[0], w,
dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)[0], b,
dout)

out, cache = conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)
dx, dw, db = conv_backward_naive(dout, cache)

# Your errors should be around e-8 or less.
print('Testing conv_backward_naive function')
print('dx error: , rel_error(dx, dx_num))
print('dw error: ', rel_error(dw, dw_num))
print('db error: ', rel_error(db, db_num))

Testing conv_backward_naive function
dx error: 1.159803161159293e-08
dw error: 2.247126478452487e-10
db error: 3.37264006649648e-11
```

Max-Pooling: Naive forward

Implement the forward pass for the max-pooling operation in the function <code>max_pool_forward_naive</code> in the file <code>cs231n/layers.py</code> . Again, don't worry too much about computational efficiency.

Check your implementation by running the following:

COMMENT: Pooling is an operation to handle the size differences in the data. Max pooling for example, according to the pool size it goes through the image matrix 1 by 1 and lets say in 2x2 pool size the network selects the maximum value with going towards the input matrix 2x2 areas.

Max-Pooling: Naive backward

Implement the backward pass for the max-pooling operation in the function <code>max_pool_backward_naive</code> in the file <code>cs231n/layers.py</code> . You don't need to worry about computational efficiency.

Check your implementation with numeric gradient checking by running the following:

```
In [7]: np.random.seed(231)
```

```
x = np.random.randn(3, 2, 8, 8)
dout = np.random.randn(3, 2, 4, 4)
pool_param = {'pool_height': 2, 'pool_width': 2, 'stride': 2}

dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda x: max_pool_forward_naive(x, pool_param)[0], x, do
ut)

out, cache = max_pool_forward_naive(x, pool_param)
dx = max_pool_backward_naive(dout, cache)

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

Testing max_pool_backward_naive function:
dx error: 3.27562514223145e-12
```

Fast layers

Making convolution and pooling layers fast can be challenging. To spare you the pain, we've provided fast implementations of the forward and backward passes for convolution and pooling layers in the file cs231n/fast_layers.py.

The fast convolution implementation depends on a Cython extension; to compile it you need to run the following from the cs231n directory:

```
python setup.py build_ext --inplace
```

The API for the fast versions of the convolution and pooling layers is exactly the same as the naive versions that you implemented above: the forward pass receives data, weights, and parameters and produces outputs and a cache object; the backward pass receives upstream derivatives and the cache object and produces gradients with respect to the data and weights.

NOTE: The fast implementation for pooling will only perform optimally if the pooling regions are non-overlapping and tile the input. If these conditions are not met then the fast pooling implementation will not be much faster than the naive implementation.

You can compare the performance of the naive and fast versions of these layers by running the following:

COMMENT: We see that it is computationally expensive to implement pooling and convolution. However with different approaches to algorithms every algorithm can go more efficiently unless it is linear in time.

```
In (8):

# Rel errors should be around e-9 or less
from cs23in.fast_layers import conv_forward_fast, conv_backward_fast
from time import time
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(100, 3, 31, 31)
w = np.random.randn(25, 3, 3, 3)
b = np.random.randn(25,)
dout = np.random.randn(100, 25, 16, 16)
conv_param = {'stride': 2, 'pad': 1}

t0 = time()
out_naive, cache_naive = conv_forward_naive(x, w, b, conv_param)
t1 = time()
out_fast, cache_fast = conv_forward_fast(x, w, b, conv_param)
t2 = time()

print('Testing conv_forward_fast:')
print('Testing conv_forward_fast:')
print('Naive: %fs' % (t1 - t0))
print('Speedup: %fr' % (t1 - t0) / (t2 - t1)))
print('Speedup: %fr' % (t1 - t0) / (t2 - t1)))
print('Difference: ', rel_error(out_naive, out_fast))

t0 = time()
dx_naive, dw_naive, db_naive = conv_backward_naive(dout, cache_naive)
t1 = time()
dx_fast, dw_fast, db_fast = conv_backward_fast(dout, cache_fast)
t2 = time()
```

```
nt('Naive: %fs' % (t1 - t0))
   nt('dw difference: ', rel_error(dw_naive, dw_fast))
                   ayers import max_pool_forward_fast, max_pool_backward_fast
pool_param = {'pool_height': 2, 'pool_width': 2, 'stride': 2}
out_naive, cache_naive = max_pool_forward_naive(x, pool_param)
out fast, cache fast = max pool forward fast(x, pool param)
t2 = time()
t0 = time()
dx naive = max pool backward naive(dout, cache naive)
dx fast = max pool backward fast(dout, cache fast)
t2 = time()
orint('Naive: %fs' % (t1 - t0))
 Testing pool forward fast:
```

Convolutional "sandwich" layers

Previously we introduced the concept of "sandwich" layers that combine multiple operations into commonly used patterns. In the file cs231n/layer_utils.py you will find sandwich layers that implement a few commonly used patterns for convolutional networks.

```
utils import conv relu pool forward, conv relu pool backward
b = np.random.randn(3,)
conv_param = {'stride': 1, 'pad': 1}
pool_param = {'pool_height': 2, 'pool_height': 2, 'pool_heig
out, cache = conv_relu_pool_forward(x, w, b, conv_param, pool_param)
dx, dw, db = conv relu pool backward(dout, cache)
dx num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda x: conv relu pool forward(x, w, b, conv param, poo
1 param)[0], x, dout)
dw num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda w: conv relu pool forward(x, w, b, conv param, poo
1_param) [0], w, dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: conv_relu_pool_forward(x, w, b, conv_param, poo
1_param) [0], b, dout)
                    dw error: ', rel_error(dw_num, dw))
np.random.seed(231)
x = np.random.randn(2, 3, 8, 8)
conv param = {'stride': 1, 'pa
out, cache = conv_relu_forward(x, w, b, conv_param)
dx num = eval numerical gradient array(lambda x: conv relu forward(x, w, b, conv param)[0], x, d
dw_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda w: conv_relu_forward(x, w, b, conv_param)[0], w, d
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: conv_relu_forward(x, w, b, conv_param)[0], b, d
                    dw error: ', rel_error(dw_num, dw))
db error: ', rel_error(db_num, db))
```

Three-layer ConvNet

Now that you have implemented all the necessary layers, we can put them together into a simple convolutional network.

Open the file cs231n/classifiers/cnn.py and complete the implementation of the ThreeLayerConvNet class. Remember you can use the fast/sandwich layers (already imported for you) in your implementation. Run the following cells to help you debug:

Sanity check loss

After you build a new network, one of the first things you should do is sanity check the loss. When we use the softmax loss, we expect the loss for random weights (and no regularization) to be about log(C) for C classes. When we add regularization this should go up.

COMMENT: We check the initialization loss for the sake of understanding whether our network is fine

```
In [12]: |
model = ThreeLayerConvNet()

N = 50

X = np.random.randn(N, 3, 32, 32)
y = np.random.randint(10, size=N)

loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
print('Initial loss (no regularization): ', loss)

model.reg = 0.5
loss, grads = model.loss(X, y)
print('Initial loss (with regularization): ', loss)

Initial loss (no regularization): 2.302586071243987
Initial loss (with regularization): 2.508255638232932
```

Gradient check

After the loss looks reasonable, use numeric gradient checking to make sure that your backward pass is correct. When you use numeric gradient checking you should use a small amount of artifical data and a small number of neurons at each layer. Note: correct implementations may still have relative errors up to the order of e-2.

Overfit small data

A nice trick is to train your model with just a few training samples. You should be able to overfit small datasets, which will result in very high training accuracy and comparatively low validation accuracy.

COMMENT: Overfitting occurs when the network learns the training set perfectly but cant generalize on the other data. Regularization is done to prevent overfitting to the data generally.

```
In [14]: |
np.random.seed(231)

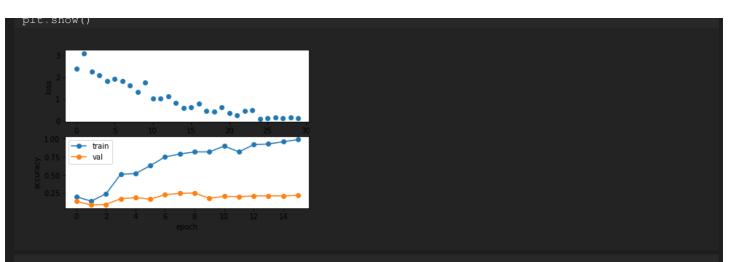
num_train = 100
small data = {
```

```
'y_train': data['y_train'][:num_train],
'X_val': data['X_val'],
'y_val': data['y_val'],
model = ThreeLayerConvNet(weight scale=1e-2)
                    num_epochs=15, batch_size=50,
                    update_rule=
                    optim_config={
                     verbose=True, print_every=1)
```

Plotting the loss, training accuracy, and validation accuracy should show clear overfitting:

```
plt.subplot(2, 1, 1)
plt.plot(solver.loss_history, 'o')
plt.xlabel('iteration')
plt.ylabel('loss')

plt.subplot(2, 1, 2)
plt.plot(solver.train_acc_history, '-o')
plt.plot(solver.val_acc_history, '-o')
plt.legend(['train', 'val'], loc='upper left')
plt.xlabel('epoch')
plt.ylabel('accuracy')
```



Train the net

By training the three-layer convolutional network for one epoch, you should achieve greater than 40% accuracy on the training set:

```
set:
        ThreeLayerConvNet(weight scale=0.001, hidden dim=500, reg=0.001)
solver = Solver(model, data,
                 num_epochs=1, batch_size=50,
                 update_rule='
                 optim config={
```

```
(Iteration 921 / 980) loss: 1.674166
(Iteration 941 / 980) loss: 1.714316
(Iteration 961 / 980) loss: 1.534668
(Epoch 1 / 1) train acc: 0.504000; val_acc: 0.499000
```

Visualize Filters

You can visualize the first-layer convolutional filters from the trained network by running the following:

COMMENT: Here the filters represents the edges learned from the dataset. It gives insight to how the network is running which is very important

```
In [17]:
    from cs231n.vis_utils import visualize_grid

grid = visualize_grid(model.params['Wl'].transpose(0, 2, 3, 1))
    plt.imshow(grid.astype('uint8'))
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.gcf().set_size_inches(5, 5)
    plt.show()
```

Spatial Batch Normalization

We already saw that batch normalization is a very useful technique for training deep fully-connected networks. As proposed in the original paper [3], batch normalization can also be used for convolutional networks, but we need to tweak it a bit; the modification will be called "spatial batch normalization."

Normally batch-normalization accepts inputs of shape (N, D) and produces outputs of shape (N, D), where we normalize across the minibatch dimension N. For data coming from convolutional layers, batch normalization needs to accept inputs of shape (N, C, H, W) and produce outputs of shape (N, C, H, W) where the N dimension gives the minibatch size and the (H, W) dimensions give the spatial size of the feature map.

If the feature map was produced using convolutions, then we expect the statistics of each feature channel to be relatively consistent both between different images and different locations within the same image. Therefore spatial batch normalization computes a mean and variance for each of the $\,^{\circ}$ feature channels by computing statistics over both the minibatch dimension $\,^{\circ}$ and the spatial dimensions $\,^{\circ}$ and $\,^{\circ}$ $\,^{\circ}$.

[3] Sergey Ioffe and Christian Szegedy, "Batch Normalization: Accelerating Deep Network Training by Reducing Internal Covariate Shift", ICML 2015.

Spatial batch normalization: forward

In the file cs231n/layers.py , implement the forward pass for spatial batch normalization in the function spatial_batchnorm_forward . Check your implementation by running the following:

COMMENT: Decreasing the spatial sizes of data gives computational efficiency. There is less dimensions to calculate which means it will be faster and smoother.

```
np.random.seed(231)

# Check the training-time forward pass by checking means and variances

# of features both before and after spatial batch permalization
```

```
print(' Shape: ', x.shape)
 print(' Means: ', x.mean(axis=(0, 2, 3)))
print(' Stds: ', x.std(axis=(0, 2, 3)))
gamma, beta = np.ones(C), np.zeros(C)
bn_param = {'mode': 'train'}
out, _ = spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
        Shape: ', out.shape)
print(' Means: ', out.mean(axis=(0, 2, 3)))
           tds: ', out.std(axis=(0, 2, 3)))
gamma, beta = np.asarray([3, 4, 5]), np.asarray([6, 7, 8])
out, _ = spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
         Means: ', out.mean(axis=(0, 2, 3)))
bn_param = { 'mode': 'train'}
 spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
bn param['mode']
a_norm, _ = spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
```

Spatial batch normalization: backward

spatial batchnorm backward. Run the following to check your implementation using a numeric gradient check:

```
in [20]:
np.random.seed(231)
N, C, H, W = 2, 3, 4, 5
x = 5 * np.random.randn(N, C, H, W) + 12
gamma = np.random.randn(C)
beta = np.random.randn(N, C, H, W)

bn_param = {'mode': 'train'}
fx = lambds x: spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)[0]
fg = lambds a: spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)[0]
fb = lambds b: spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)[0]

dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fx, x, dout)
da_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fd, gamma, dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fd, beta, dout)

#You should expect errors of magnitudes between le-12-le-06
_, cache = spatial_batchnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, bn_param)
dx, dgamma, dbeta = spatial_batchnorm_backward(dout, cache)
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
print('dx error: ', rel_error(da_num, dgamma))
print('dbeta error: ', rel_error(db_num, dbeta))

dx error: 3.08348639673629072e-07
dyamma error: 7.09738439671469e-12
dbeta error: 3.275608725278405e-12
```

Group Normalization

In the previous notebook, we mentioned that Layer Normalization is an alternative normalization technique that mitigates the batch size limitations of Batch Normalization. However, as the authors of [4] observed, Layer Normalization does not perform as well as Batch Normalization when used with Convolutional Layers:

With fully connected layers, all the hidden units in a layer tend to make similar contributions to the final prediction, and re-centering and rescaling the summed inputs to a layer works well. However, the assumption of similar contributions is no longer true for convolutional neural networks. The large number of the hidden units whose receptive fields lie near the boundary of the image are rarely turned on and thus have very different statistics from the rest of the hidden units within the same layer.

The authors of [5] propose an intermediary technique. In contrast to Layer Normalization, where you normalize over the entire feature per-datapoint, they suggest a consistent splitting of each per-datapoint feature into G groups, and a per-group per-datapoint normalization instead.

Visual comparison of the normalization techniques discussed so far (image edited from [5])

Even though an assumption of equal contribution is still being made within each group, the authors hypothesize that this is not as problematic, as innate grouping arises within features for visual recognition. One example they use to illustrate this is that many high-performance handcrafted features in traditional Computer Vision have terms that are explicitly grouped together. Take for example Histogram of Oriented Gradients [6]-- after computing histograms per spatially local block, each per-block histogram is normalized before being concatenated together to form the final feature vector.

You will now implement Group Normalization. Note that this normalization technique that you are to implement in the following cells was introduced and published to arXiv *less than a month ago* -- this truly is still an ongoing and excitingly active field of research!

- [4] Ba, Jimmy Lei, Jamie Ryan Kiros, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. "Layer Normalization." stat 1050 (2016): 21.
- [5] Wu, Yuxin, and Kaiming He. "Group Normalization." arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.08494 (2018).
- [6] N. Dalal and B. Triggs. Histograms of oriented gradients for human detection. In Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2005.

Group normalization: forward

In the file cs231n/layers.py , implement the forward pass for group normalization in the function

spatial groupnorm forward. Check your implementation by running the following:

Spatial group normalization: backward

In the file cs231n/layers.py, implement the backward pass for spatial batch normalization in the function spatial groupnorm backward. Run the following to check your implementation using a numeric gradient check:

```
In [22]:
    np.random.seed(231)
N, C, H, W = 2, 6, 4, 5
G = 2
x = 5 * np.random.randn(N, C, H, W) + 12
gamma = np.random.randn(1,C,1,1)
beta = np.random.randn(1,C,1,1)
dout = np.random.randn(N, C, H, W)

gn_param = {}
fx = lambda x: spatial_groupnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, G, gn_param)[0]
fg = lambda a: spatial_groupnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, G, gn_param)[0]
fb = lambda b: spatial_groupnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, G, gn_param)[0]

dx_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fx, x, dout)
da_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fg, gamma, dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(fb, beta, dout)

_, cache = spatial_groupnorm_forward(x, gamma, beta, G, gn_param)
dx, dgamma, dbeta = spatial_groupnorm_backward(dout, cache)

#You should expect errors of magnitudes between 1e-12-1e-07
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
print('dgamma srror: ', rel_error(da_num, dgamma))
print('dbeta error: ', rel_error(db_num, dbeta))

dx error: 6.34590431845254e-08
dgamma error: 1.0546047434202244e-11
```

dbeta error: 3.810857316122484e-12

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 for PyTorch.

You can also find the detailed API doc here. If you have other questions that are not addressed by the API docs, the PyTorch forum 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.

```
import torch.optim as optim
from torch.utils.data import DataLoader
from torch.utils.data import sampler
transform = T.Compose([
                    T. ToTensor(),
loader train = DataLoader(cifar10 train, batch size=64,
                                 sampler=sampler.SubsetRandomSampler(range(NUM_TRAIN)))
                              sampler=sampler.SubsetRandomSampler(range(NUM TRAIN, 50000)))
 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 <code>dtype</code> and <code>device</code> 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')

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

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

print('using device:', device)

using device: cpu
```

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 x H x 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 image

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

test_flatten()

Before flattening: tensor([[[[ 0, 1], [2, 3], [4, 5]]], [4, 5]]],
        [[[ 6, 7], [8, 9], [10, 11]]]])

After flattening: tensor([[ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11]])
```

Barebones PyTorch: Two-Layer Network

Here we define a function <code>two_layer_fc</code> 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
```

```
x = F.relu(x.mm(w1))
                    ():
   hidden_layer_size = 42
   x = torch.zeros((64, 50), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, feature dimension 50
   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()
```

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.nn.functional.conv2d; pay attention to the shapes of convolutional filters!

```
In [6]:

def three_layer_convnet(x, params):
    """
```

```
conv_w1, conv_b1, conv_w2, conv_b2, fc_w, fc_b = params
conv1 = F.conv2d(x, weight=conv w1, bias=conv b1, padding=2)
conv2 = F.conv2d(relu1, weight=conv_w2, bias=conv_b2, padding=1)
```

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).

```
def three_layer_convnet_test():
    x = torch.zeros((64, 3, 32, 32), dtype=dtype) # minibatch size 64, image size [3, 32, 32]
    conv_w1 = torch.zeros((6, 3, 5, 5), dtype=dtype) # [out_channel, in_channel, kernel_H, kern
el_W]
    conv_b1 = torch.zeros((6,)) # out_channel
    conv_w2 = torch.zeros((9, 6, 3, 3), dtype=dtype) # [out_channel, in_channel, kernel_H, kern
el_W]
    conv_b2 = torch.zeros((9,)) # out_channel

# you must calculate the shape of the tensor after two conv layers, before the fully-connected layer
    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

```
def random_weight(shape):
    num
    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: sgrt(2 / fan_in)
    unn
    if le (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 x 5]
# you should see the type `torch.cuda.FloatTensor` if you use GPU.
# Otherwise it should be `torch.FloatTensor`
random_weight((3, 5))

tensor([[-0.0183, -0.0282, 0.5041, -0.6743, 0.1662],
        [-0.3404, 0.4510, 0.3055, -0.3067, -0.4398],
        [-0.5023, -0.4530, -0.2384, 2.3406, 1.0483]], device='cuda:0')
```

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)
_, 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))
```

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.

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

```
x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype)
y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.long)
scores = model fn(x, params)
loss = F.cross entropy(scores, y)
loss.backward()
    for w in params:
    check accuracy part2(loader val, model fn, params)
```

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 = le-2

Wl = 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 - 3.3849

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 101 / 1000 correct (61.015)

Iteration 100, loss - 2.1713

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 315 / 1000 correct (31.05)

Iteration 200, loss - 2.1726

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 301 / 1000 correct (31.05)

Iteration 300, loss - 2.3629

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 319 / 1000 correct (31.05)

Iteration 400, loss - 1.6239

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 419 / 1000 correct (41.094)

Iteration 500, loss = 1.7335

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 440 / 1000 correct (44.004)

Iteration 600, loss - 1.7878

Checking accuracy on the val set

Cot 445 / 1000 correct (44.801)
```

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.

```
learning_rate = 3e-3

channel_1 = 32
    channel_2 = 16

conv_w1 = None
    conv_b1 = None
    conv_b2 = None
    conv_b2 = None
    fc_w = None
    fc_b = None
```

```
conv_b1 = zero_weight((channel_1,))
conv_w2 = random_weight((channel_2, 32, 3, 3))
fc_b = zero_weight((10,))
train part2(three layer convnet, params, learning rate)
 Checking accuracy on the val set
 Checking accuracy on the val set
```

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 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 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:

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
- 5. 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

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.

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 = lost(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):
```

```
model = model.to(device=device) # move the model parameters to CPU/GPU
for e in range(epochs):
       x = x.to(device=device, dtype=dtype) # move to device, e.g. GPU
       y = y.to(device=device, dtype=torch.long)
       scores = model(x)
       optimizer zero_grad()
       optimizer step()
            check_accuracy_part34(loader_val, model)
```

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 = 3.4818
Checking accuracy on validation set  
Got 121 / 1000 correct (12.10)

Iteration 100, loss = 1.8961
Checking accuracy on validation set  
Got 352 / 1000 correct (35.20)

Iteration 200, loss = 2.0630
Checking accuracy on validation set  
Got 400 / 1000 correct (40.00)

Iteration 300, loss = 1.9615
Checking accuracy on validation set  
Got 421 / 1000 correct (42.10)

Iteration 400, loss = 1.8572
Checking accuracy on validation set
```

```
Got 415 / 1000 correct (41.50)

Iteration 500, loss = 2.1470
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 429 / 1000 correct (42.90)

Iteration 600, loss = 1.7190
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 423 / 1000 correct (42.30)

Iteration 700, loss = 1.6291
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 451 / 1000 correct (45.10)
```

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 45% after training for one epoch.

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

```
optimizer =
model = ThreeLayerConvNet(3, channel 1, channel 2, 10)
optimizer = optim SGD(model parameters(), lr=learning_rate)
train part34 (model, optimizer)
 Checking accuracy on validation set
 Checking accuracy on validation set
```

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 <code>nn.Module</code>, assign layers to class attributes in <code>init</code>, and call each layer one by one in <code>forward()</code>. 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.

```
hidden_layer_size = 4000
learning rate = 1e-2
model = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Linear(3 * 32 * 32, hidden layer size),
    nn ReLU(),
    nn.Linear(hidden layer size, 10),
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning rate,
train part34 (model, optimizer)
 Checking accuracy on validation set
```

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 Rel U
- 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.

```
learning rate = 1e-2
optimizer = None
model = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Conv2d(channel_1, channel_2, kernel_size=3, padding=1),
    nn ReLU(),
optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=learning rate,
                (m):
        random_weight(m weight size())
model apply(init weights)
train_part34(model, optimizer)
```

Tteration 500, loss = 1.2486
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 542 / 1000 correct (54.20)

Iteration 600, loss = 1.1722
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 566 / 1000 correct (56.60)

Iteration 700, loss = 1.3335
Checking accuracy on validation set
Got 591 / 1000 correct (59.10)

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
- Activations: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#non-linear-activations
- Loss functions: http://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#loss-functions
- 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 (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 where the input from the previous layer is added to the output.
 - <u>DenseNets</u> where inputs into previous layers are concatenated together.
 - This blog has an in-depth overview

Have fun and hanny training!

navo iun ana nappy training:

```
optimizer = None
layer1 = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Conv2d(3, 16, kernel_size=5, padding=2),
    nn ReLU(),
    nn.MaxPool2d(2)
layer2 = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Conv2d(16, 32, kernel_size=3, padding=1),
    nn ReLU(),
    nn.MaxPool2d(2)
layer3 = nn.Sequential(
    nn.Conv2d(32, 64, kernel_size=3, padding=1),
    nn ReLU(),
    nn MaxPool2d(2)
model = nn.Sequential(
    layer1,
    layer2,
    layer3,
    Flatten(),
optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=learning_rate)
print every = 10000
train part34(model, optimizer, epochs=10)
```

```
Iteration 0, loss = 0.7987
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 639 / 1000 correct (63.90)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.7713
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 677 / 1000 correct (67.70)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.7390
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 726 / 1000 correct (72.60)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.8759
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 719 / 1000 correct (71.90)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.8025
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 750 / 1000 correct (75.00)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.3281
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 737 / 1000 correct (73.70)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.4678
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 737 / 1000 correct (73.70)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.4678
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 737 / 1000 correct (73.70)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.7667
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 742 / 1000 correct (74.20)

Iteration 0, loss = 0.5843
Checking accuracy on validation set Got 739 / 1000 correct (73.90)
```

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.

I STUDIED THE CODE AND EXPERIMENTED WITH TODO PARTS

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 [22]:
best_model = model
check_accuracy_part34(loader_test, best_model)

Checking accuracy on test set
Got 7379 / 10000 correct (73.79)

In [ ]:
```