

knn

October 7, 2022

```
[ ]: # This mounts your Google Drive to the Colab VM.
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive', force_remount=True)

# Enter the foldername in your Drive where you have saved the unzipped
# assignment folder, e.g. 'cs231n/assignments/assignment1/'
FOLDERNAME = '/ENPM809K/assignment1'
assert FOLDERNAME is not None, "[!] Enter the foldername."

# Now that we've mounted your Drive, this ensures that
# the Python interpreter of the Colab VM can load
# python files from within it.
import sys
sys.path.append('/content/drive/My Drive/{}'.format(FOLDERNAME))

# This downloads the CIFAR-10 dataset to your Drive
# if it doesn't already exist.
%cd drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME/cs231n/datasets/
!bash get_datasets.sh
%cd /content/drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME
```

```
Mounted at /content/drive
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1/cs231n/datasets
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1
```

1 k-Nearest Neighbor (kNN) exercise

Complete and hand in this completed worksheet (including its outputs and any supporting code outside of the worksheet) with your assignment submission. For more details see the [assignments page](#) on the course website.

The kNN classifier consists of two stages:

- During training, the classifier takes the training data and simply remembers it
- During testing, kNN classifies every test image by comparing to all training images and transferring the labels of the k most similar training examples
- The value of k is cross-validated

In this exercise you will implement these steps and understand the basic Image Classification pipeline, cross-validation, and gain proficiency in writing efficient, vectorized code.

```
[ ]: # Run some setup code for this notebook.

import random
import numpy as np
from cs231n.data_utils import load_CIFAR10
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# This is a bit of magic to make matplotlib figures appear inline in the
↳notebook
# rather than in a new window.
%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'

# Some more magic so that the notebook will reload external python modules;
# see http://stackoverflow.com/questions/1907993/
↳autoreload-of-modules-in-ipython
%load_ext autoreload
%autoreload 2

[ ]: # Load the raw CIFAR-10 data.
cifar10_dir = 'cs231n/datasets/cifar-10-batches-py'

# Cleaning up variables to prevent loading data multiple times (which may cause
↳memory issue)
try:
    del X_train, y_train
    del X_test, y_test
    print('Clear previously loaded data.')
except:
    pass

X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test = load_CIFAR10(cifar10_dir)

# As a sanity check, we print out the size of the training and test data.
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
print('Training data shape: ', X_train.shape)
print('Training labels shape: ', y_train.shape)
print('Test data shape: ', X_test.shape)
print('Test labels shape: ', y_test.shape)
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('~~~~~')
```

```

|||||
Training data shape: (50000, 32, 32, 3)
Training labels shape: (50000,)
Test data shape: (10000, 32, 32, 3)
Test labels shape: (10000,)
.....

```

```

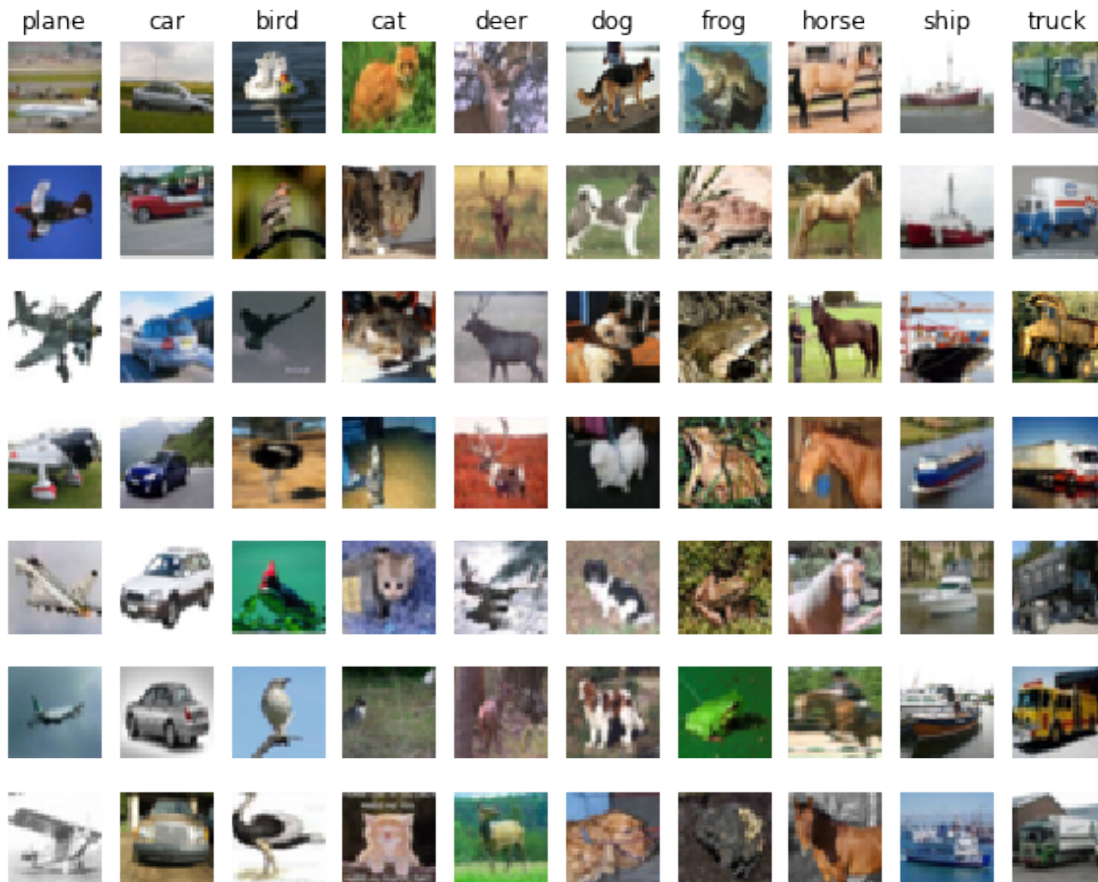
[ ]: # Visualize some examples from the dataset.
# We show a few examples of training images from each class.
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
classes = ['plane', 'car', 'bird', 'cat', 'deer', 'dog', 'frog', 'horse', '
↪'ship', 'truck']
num_classes = len(classes)
samples_per_class = 7
for y, cls in enumerate(classes):
    idxs = np.flatnonzero(y_train == y)
    idxs = np.random.choice(idxs, samples_per_class, replace=False)
    for i, idx in enumerate(idxs):
        plt_idx = i * num_classes + y + 1
        plt.subplot(samples_per_class, num_classes, plt_idx)
        plt.imshow(X_train[idx].astype('uint8'))
        plt.axis('off')
        if i == 0:
            plt.title(cls)
plt.show()
print('.....')

```

```

|||||

```



.....

```
[ ]: # Subsample the data for more efficient code execution in this exercise
num_training = 5000
mask = list(range(num_training))
X_train = X_train[mask]
y_train = y_train[mask]

num_test = 500
mask = list(range(num_test))
X_test = X_test[mask]
y_test = y_test[mask]

# Reshape the image data into rows
X_train = np.reshape(X_train, (X_train.shape[0], -1))
X_test = np.reshape(X_test, (X_test.shape[0], -1))
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
print(X_train.shape, X_test.shape)
```

```
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
(5000, 3072) (500, 3072)
.....
```

```
[ ]: from cs231n.classifiers import KNearestNeighbor
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# Create a kNN classifier instance.
# Remember that training a kNN classifier is a noop:
# the Classifier simply remembers the data and does no further processing
classifier = KNearestNeighbor()
classifier.train(X_train, y_train)
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
.....
```

We would now like to classify the test data with the kNN classifier. Recall that we can break down this process into two steps:

1. First we must compute the distances between all test examples and all train examples.
2. Given these distances, for each test example we find the k nearest examples and have them vote for the label

Lets begin with computing the distance matrix between all training and test examples. For example, if there are **N_{tr}** training examples and **N_{te}** test examples, this stage should result in a **N_{te} x N_{tr}** matrix where each element (i,j) is the distance between the i-th test and j-th train example.

Note: For the three distance computations that we require you to implement in this notebook, you may not use the `np.linalg.norm()` function that numpy provides.

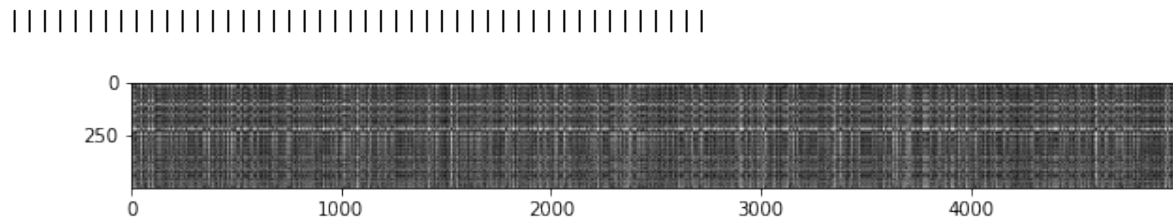
First, open `cs231n/classifiers/k_nearest_neighbor.py` and implement the function `compute_distances_two_loops` that uses a (very inefficient) double loop over all pairs of (test, train) examples and computes the distance matrix one element at a time.

```
[ ]: # Open cs231n/classifiers/k_nearest_neighbor.py and implement
# compute_distances_two_loops.
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')

# Test your implementation:
# dists = classifier.compute_distances_two_loops(X_test)
# dists = classifier.compute_distances_one_loop(X_test)
dists = classifier.compute_distances_no_loops(X_test)
print(dists.shape)
# print("Final Dist --> ", dists)
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
(500, 5000)
.....
```

```
[ ]: # We can visualize the distance matrix: each row is a single test example and
# its distances to training examples
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
plt.imshow(dists, interpolation='none')
plt.show()
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')
```



```
.....
```

Inline Question 1

Notice the structured patterns in the distance matrix, where some rows or columns are visible brighter. (Note that with the default color scheme black indicates low distances while white indicates high distances.)

- What in the data is the cause behind the distinctly bright rows?
- What causes the columns?

Your Answer : * We have the training examples (5000), on the X-Axis and the test examples (500) on the Y-Axis. And as we know darker pixels mean the test and train examples are more similar. So, the distinctly bright rows (like just above 250, near 125 or near 375), represent the fact that those test examples have large distances between themselves and the training images which means they are most probably not of the same class. * The train to test set ratio for us is quite low. And that is the main reason we see many columns in the distance matrix. The columns indicate that the training images have very large distances between them and the test examples. Brighter and continuous columns mean higher magnitude distances and more out of place training image (its class does not match with most of the test examples). In contrast to this, the darker columns signify that the L2 distances are less and there are significant matching features between the training example and the test examples.

```
[ ]: # Now implement the function predict_labels and run the code below:
# We use k = 1 (which is Nearest Neighbor).
y_test_pred = classifier.predict_labels(dists, k=1)
```

```
# Compute and print the fraction of correctly predicted examples
num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
Got 137 / 500 correct => accuracy: 0.274000
.....
```

You should expect to see approximately 27% accuracy. Now lets try out a larger k, say k = 5:

```
[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
y_test_pred = classifier.predict_labels(dists, k=5)
num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
Got 139 / 500 correct => accuracy: 0.278000
.....
```

You should expect to see a slightly better performance than with k = 1.

Inline Question 2

We can also use other distance metrics such as L1 distance. For pixel values $p_{ij}^{(k)}$ at location (i, j) of some image I_k ,

the mean μ across all pixels over all images is

$$\mu = \frac{1}{nhw} \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^h \sum_{j=1}^w p_{ij}^{(k)}$$

And the pixel-wise mean μ_{ij} across all images is

$$\mu_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n p_{ij}^{(k)}.$$

The general standard deviation σ and pixel-wise standard deviation σ_{ij} is defined similarly.

Which of the following preprocessing steps will not change the performance of a Nearest Neighbor classifier that uses L1 distance? Select all that apply. 1. Subtracting the mean μ ($\tilde{p}_{ij}^{(k)} = p_{ij}^{(k)} - \mu$.) 2. Subtracting the per pixel mean μ_{ij} ($\tilde{p}_{ij}^{(k)} = p_{ij}^{(k)} - \mu_{ij}$.) 3. Subtracting the mean μ and dividing

by the standard deviation σ . 4. Subtracting the pixel-wise mean μ_{ij} and dividing by the pixel-wise standard deviation σ_{ij} . 5. Rotating the coordinate axes of the data.

Your Answer : 1, 2, and 3.

Your Explanation :

1. By subtracting the mean from the data i.e. the image pixels $[0,255]$, there will only be a certain offset in the data which will cause a similar offset in the distances calculated thereafter. Mathematically,

$$L1_{dist} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \left\| (X - \mu) - (X_{\text{train}}^{(k)} - \mu) \right\| = \left\| X - X_{\text{train}}^{(k)} \right\|,$$

where we can see that the distances are unaffected. So the kNN performance will be unaffected as well.

2. Similar to the first case, by subtracting the per pixel mean from the data, only an offset would be present in the distances which would be unable to effect the overall performance. To sum up,

$$L1_{dist} = \frac{1}{nhw} \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^h \sum_{j=1}^w \left\| (X_{ij} - \mu_{ij}) - (X_{\text{train}_{ij}}^{(k)} - \mu_{ij}) \right\| = \left\| X_{ij} - X_{\text{train}_{ij}}^{(k)} \right\|,$$

which proves the overall metric is undisturbed and the performance as well.

3. Calculating standard deviation uniformly over the image pixel data would mean that the L1 distance is scaled by a factor which reduces the benefits of this normalization in our case. The distances scaled by a factor will not affect their order and hence the performance of the algorithm remains unaffected.
4. The (Pixel Value - Mean)/SD operation performs scaling to the L1 distances with different factors which could change the performance of the kNN classifier.
5. Since, the L1 (Manhattan) distance is not invariant to the rotation of axes, it would affect the performance of the kNN classifier.

```
[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# Now lets speed up distance matrix computation by using partial vectorization
# with one loop. Implement the function compute_distances_one_loop and run the
# code below:
dists_one = classifier.compute_distances_one_loop(X_test)

# To ensure that our vectorized implementation is correct, we make sure that it
# agrees with the naive implementation. There are many ways to decide whether
# two matrices are similar; one of the simplest is the Frobenius norm. In case
# you haven't seen it before, the Frobenius norm of two matrices is the square
# root of the squared sum of differences of all elements; in other words,
↳ reshape
# the matrices into vectors and compute the Euclidean distance between them.
difference = np.linalg.norm(dists - dists_one, ord='fro')
print('One loop difference was: %f' % (difference, ))
if difference < 0.001:
    print('Good! The distance matrices are the same')
else:
    print('Uh-oh! The distance matrices are different')
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
```



```
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
```

```
One loop difference was: 0.000000
```

```
Good! The distance matrices are the same
```

```
.....
```

```
[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# Now implement the fully vectorized version inside compute_distances_no_loops
# and run the code
dists_two = classifier.compute_distances_no_loops(X_test)

# check that the distance matrix agrees with the one we computed before:
difference = np.linalg.norm(dists - dists_two, ord='fro')
print('No loop difference was: %f' % (difference, ))
if difference < 0.001:
    print('Good! The distance matrices are the same')
else:
    print('Uh-oh! The distance matrices are different')
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
```

```
No loop difference was: 0.000000
```

```
Good! The distance matrices are the same
```

```
.....
```

```
[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# Let's compare how fast the implementations are
def time_function(f, *args):
    """
    Call a function f with args and return the time (in seconds) that it took
    to execute.
    """
    import time
    tic = time.time()
    f(*args)
    toc = time.time()
    return toc - tic

two_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_two_loops, X_test)
print('Two loop version took %f seconds' % two_loop_time)

one_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_one_loop, X_test)
print('One loop version took %f seconds' % one_loop_time)
```

```

no_loop_time = time_function(classifier.compute_distances_no_loops, X_test)
print('No loop version took %f seconds' % no_loop_time)

# You should see significantly faster performance with the fully vectorized
  ↳ implementation!

# NOTE: depending on what machine you're using,
# you might not see a speedup when you go from two loops to one loop,
# and might even see a slow-down.
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')

```

```

|||||
Two loop version took 41.101688 seconds
One loop version took 34.276058 seconds
No loop version took 0.595220 seconds
.....

```

1.0.1 Cross-validation

We have implemented the k-Nearest Neighbor classifier but we set the value $k = 5$ arbitrarily. We will now determine the best value of this hyperparameter with cross-validation.

```

[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
num_folds = 5
k_choices = [1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 20, 50, 100]

X_train_folds = []
y_train_folds = []
#####
# TODO:
# Split up the training data into folds. After splitting, X_train_folds and
# y_train_folds should each be lists of length num_folds, where
# y_train_folds[i] is the label vector for the points in X_train_folds[i].
# Hint: Look up the numpy array_split function.
#####
# *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

X_train_folds = np.array_split(X_train, num_folds)
# print(" Training Data Folds --> ", X_train_folds[0].shape)
# print(" Testing Data Folds --> ", y_train_folds)
y_train_folds = np.array_split(y_train, num_folds)

# *****END OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

```

```

# A dictionary holding the accuracies for different values of k that we find
# when running cross-validation. After running cross-validation,
# k_to_accuracies[k] should be a list of length num_folds giving the different
# accuracy values that we found when using that value of k.
k_to_accuracies = {}

#####
# TODO:
# Perform k-fold cross validation to find the best value of k. For each
# possible value of k, run the k-nearest-neighbor algorithm num_folds times,
# where in each case you use all but one of the folds as training data and the
# last fold as a validation set. Store the accuracies for all fold and all
# values of k in the k_to_accuracies dictionary.
#####
# *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

for k in k_choices:
    k_to_accuracies[k] = []
    # Iterating for the length of num_folds
    for i in range(num_folds):
        # Validation and Training folds respectively concatenated to form the train-
        # -ing fold
        X_training_fold = np.concatenate(X_train_folds[:i] + X_train_folds[i+1:])
        # Test fold only used for predictions (different for each iteration)
        X_crossval_test_fold = X_train_folds[i]

        y_training_fold = np.concatenate(y_train_folds[:i] + y_train_folds[i+1:])
        y_crossval_test_fold = y_train_folds[i]

        # Object of the kNN Classifier
        kNN_classifier = KNearestNeighbor()

        # Training the model with the newly formed test and train folds
        kNN_classifier.train(X_training_fold, y_training_fold)

        # Calculating distance matrix for the new test fold using our trained model
        dists_validation = kNN_classifier.
        compute_distances_no_loops(X_crossval_test_fold)
        y_crossval_test_pred = kNN_classifier.predict_labels(dists_validation, k=k)

        # Cross Validation accuracy using np.mean()
        total_accuracy = np.mean(y_crossval_test_pred == y_crossval_test_fold)

        # Storing the accuracies in the dictionary
        k_to_accuracies[k].append(total_accuracy)

```

```

# *****END OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

# Print out the computed accuracies
for k in sorted(k_to_accuracies):
    for accuracy in k_to_accuracies[k]:
        print('k = %d, accuracy = %f' % (k, accuracy))
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('-----')

```

```

|||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
k = 1, accuracy = 0.263000
k = 1, accuracy = 0.257000
k = 1, accuracy = 0.264000
k = 1, accuracy = 0.278000
k = 1, accuracy = 0.266000
k = 3, accuracy = 0.239000
k = 3, accuracy = 0.249000
k = 3, accuracy = 0.240000
k = 3, accuracy = 0.266000
k = 3, accuracy = 0.254000
k = 5, accuracy = 0.248000
k = 5, accuracy = 0.266000
k = 5, accuracy = 0.280000
k = 5, accuracy = 0.292000
k = 5, accuracy = 0.280000
k = 8, accuracy = 0.262000
k = 8, accuracy = 0.282000
k = 8, accuracy = 0.273000
k = 8, accuracy = 0.290000
k = 8, accuracy = 0.273000
k = 10, accuracy = 0.265000
k = 10, accuracy = 0.296000
k = 10, accuracy = 0.276000
k = 10, accuracy = 0.284000
k = 10, accuracy = 0.280000
k = 12, accuracy = 0.260000
k = 12, accuracy = 0.295000
k = 12, accuracy = 0.279000
k = 12, accuracy = 0.283000
k = 12, accuracy = 0.280000
k = 15, accuracy = 0.252000
k = 15, accuracy = 0.289000
k = 15, accuracy = 0.278000
k = 15, accuracy = 0.282000
k = 15, accuracy = 0.274000
k = 20, accuracy = 0.270000

```

```

k = 20, accuracy = 0.279000
k = 20, accuracy = 0.279000
k = 20, accuracy = 0.282000
k = 20, accuracy = 0.285000
k = 50, accuracy = 0.271000
k = 50, accuracy = 0.288000
k = 50, accuracy = 0.278000
k = 50, accuracy = 0.269000
k = 50, accuracy = 0.266000
k = 100, accuracy = 0.256000
k = 100, accuracy = 0.270000
k = 100, accuracy = 0.263000
k = 100, accuracy = 0.256000
k = 100, accuracy = 0.263000
.....

```

```

[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# plot the raw observations
for k in k_choices:
    accuracies = k_to_accuracies[k]
    plt.scatter([k] * len(accuracies), accuracies)

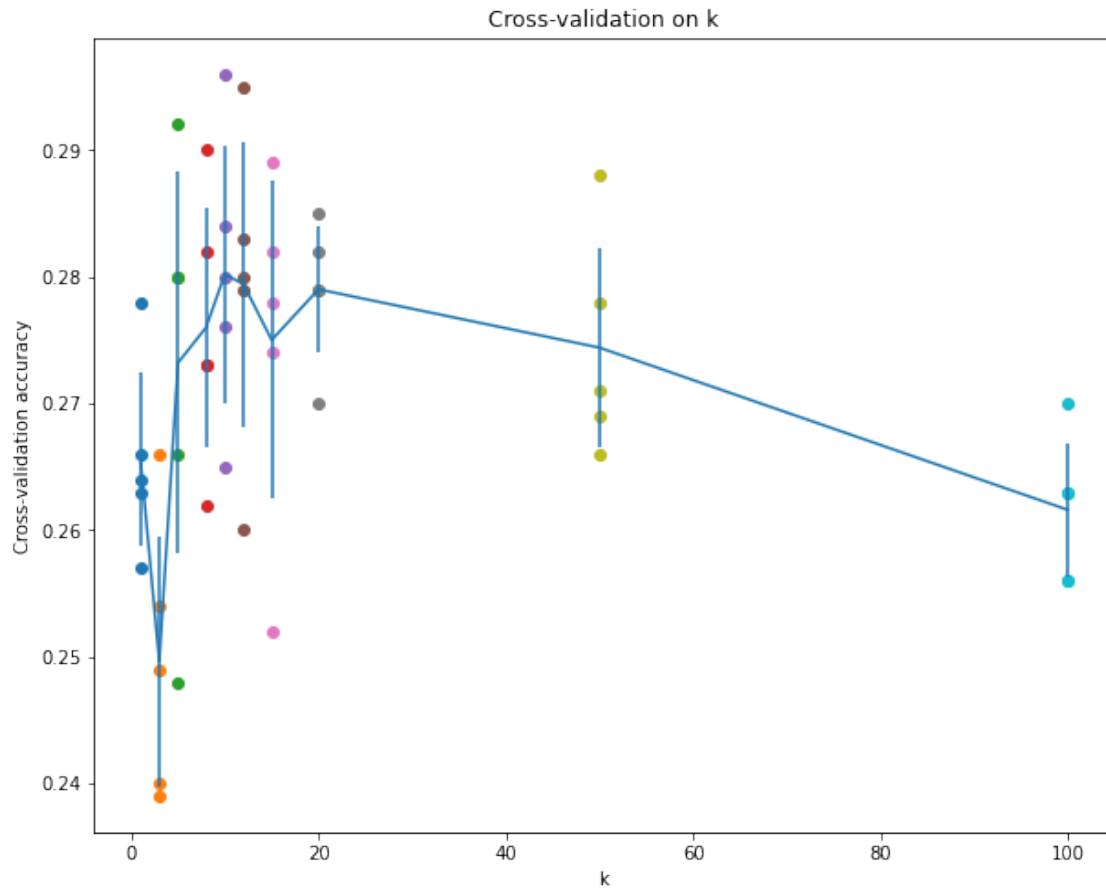
# plot the trend line with error bars that correspond to standard deviation
accuracies_mean = np.array([np.mean(v) for k,v in sorted(k_to_accuracies.
    ↳items())])
accuracies_std = np.array([np.std(v) for k,v in sorted(k_to_accuracies.
    ↳items())])
plt.errorbar(k_choices, accuracies_mean, yerr=accuracies_std)
plt.title('Cross-validation on k')
plt.xlabel('k')
plt.ylabel('Cross-validation accuracy')
plt.show()
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')

```

```

|||||

```



.....

```
[ ]: # PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('|||||')
# Based on the cross-validation results above, choose the best value for k,
# retrain the classifier using all the training data, and test it on the test
# data. You should be able to get above 28% accuracy on the test data.
best_k = 10

classifier = KNearestNeighbor()
classifier.train(X_train, y_train)
y_test_pred = classifier.predict(X_test, k=best_k)

# Compute and display the accuracy
num_correct = np.sum(y_test_pred == y_test)
accuracy = float(num_correct) / num_test
print('Got %d / %d correct => accuracy: %f' % (num_correct, num_test, accuracy))
# PLEASE DO NOT MODIFY THE MARKERS
print('.....')
```

```
|||||
Got 141 / 500 correct => accuracy: 0.282000
.....
```

Inline Question 3

Which of the following statements about k -Nearest Neighbor (k -NN) are true in a classification setting, and for all k ? Select all that apply. 1. The decision boundary of the k -NN classifier is linear. 2. The training error of a 1-NN will always be lower than or equal to that of 5-NN. 3. The test error of a 1-NN will always be lower than that of a 5-NN. 4. The time needed to classify a test example with the k -NN classifier grows with the size of the training set. 5. None of the above.

Your Answer : 2 and 4

Your Explanation :

1. False. kNN when used for classification of higher dimensional spaces/complex training points (e.g. multiple classes concentrated in odd regions of data) would produce a decision boundary of similar complexity which most likely will be non-linear.
2. True, the training examples used for testing and calculating the error of a 1-NN will always have the lowest distances (0) with themselves.
3. False. Let us assume, $X_{train} = (e,d,c,b,a,C)$ and $y_{train}=(0,0,0,0,0,1)$. A new data point with $x = B$ and $y = 0$ will have a test error of 100 for the 1-NN and 0 for the 5-NN.
4. The innate property of the kNN classifier to remember all the training data helps make this clearer. In our case (CIFAR-10 dataset) we had 50k training images to make predictions for the remaining 10k test examples while registering accuracy of 18% greater than the base accuracy. Bigger datasets having millions of training images will be extremely harder to remember in many ways which will in turn increase the classification time.

[]:

SVM

October 7, 2022

```
[ ]: # This mounts your Google Drive to the Colab VM.
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive', force_remount=True)

# Enter the foldername in your Drive where you have saved the unzipped
# assignment folder, e.g. 'cs231n/assignments/assignment1/'
FOLDERNAME = '/ENPM809K/assignment1'
assert FOLDERNAME is not None, "[!] Enter the foldername."

# Now that we've mounted your Drive, this ensures that
# the Python interpreter of the Colab VM can load
# python files from within it.
import sys
sys.path.append('/content/drive/My Drive/{}'.format(FOLDERNAME))

# This downloads the CIFAR-10 dataset to your Drive
# if it doesn't already exist.
%cd drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME/cs231n/datasets/
!bash get_datasets.sh
%cd /content/drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME
```

```
Mounted at /content/drive
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1/cs231n/datasets
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1
```

1 Multiclass Support Vector Machine exercise

Complete and hand in this completed worksheet (including its outputs and any supporting code outside of the worksheet) with your assignment submission. For more details see the [assignments page](#) on the course website.

In this exercise you will:

- implement a fully-vectorized **loss function** for the SVM
- implement the fully-vectorized expression for its **analytic gradient**
- **check your implementation** using numerical gradient
- use a validation set to **tune the learning rate and regularization strength**

- **optimize** the loss function with **SGD**
- **visualize** the final learned weights

```
[ ]: # Run some setup code for this notebook.
import random
import numpy as np
from cs231n.data_utils import load_CIFAR10
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# This is a bit of magic to make matplotlib figures appear inline in the
# notebook rather than in a new window.
%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'

# Some more magic so that the notebook will reload external python modules;
# see http://stackoverflow.com/questions/1907993/
↳ autoreload-of-modules-in-ipython
%load_ext autoreload
%autoreload 2
```

1.1 CIFAR-10 Data Loading and Preprocessing

```
[ ]: # Load the raw CIFAR-10 data.
cifar10_dir = 'cs231n/datasets/cifar-10-batches-py'

# Cleaning up variables to prevent loading data multiple times (which may cause
↳ memory issue)
try:
    del X_train, y_train
    del X_test, y_test
    print('Clear previously loaded data.')
except:
    pass

X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test = load_CIFAR10(cifar10_dir)

# As a sanity check, we print out the size of the training and test data.
print('Training data shape: ', X_train.shape)
print('Training labels shape: ', y_train.shape)
print('Test data shape: ', X_test.shape)
print('Test labels shape: ', y_test.shape)
```

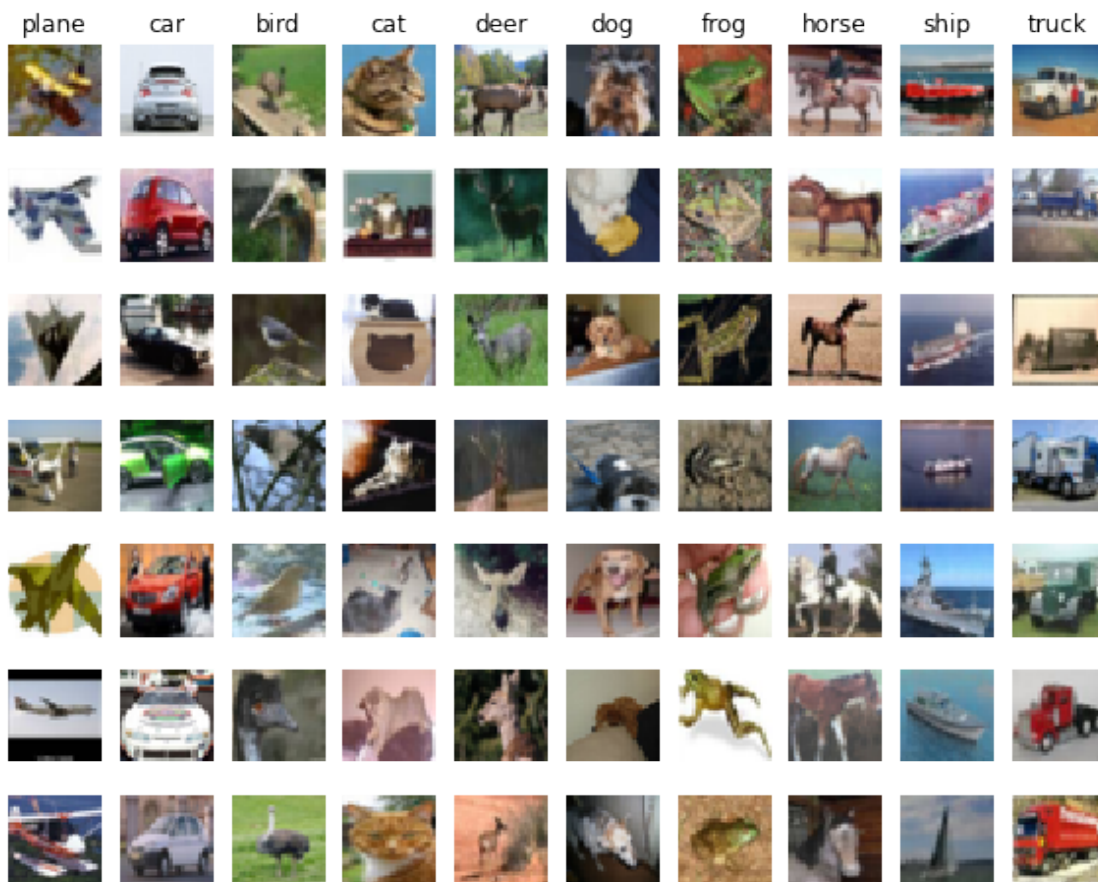
Training data shape: (50000, 32, 32, 3)

Training labels shape: (50000,)

Test data shape: (10000, 32, 32, 3)

Test labels shape: (10000,)

```
[ ]: # Visualize some examples from the dataset.
# We show a few examples of training images from each class.
classes = ['plane', 'car', 'bird', 'cat', 'deer', 'dog', 'frog', 'horse', 'ship', 'truck']
num_classes = len(classes)
samples_per_class = 7
for y, cls in enumerate(classes):
    idxs = np.flatnonzero(y_train == y)
    idxs = np.random.choice(idxs, samples_per_class, replace=False)
    for i, idx in enumerate(idxs):
        plt_idx = i * num_classes + y + 1
        plt.subplot(samples_per_class, num_classes, plt_idx)
        plt.imshow(X_train[idx].astype('uint8'))
        plt.axis('off')
        if i == 0:
            plt.title(cls)
plt.show()
```



```
[ ]: # Split the data into train, val, and test sets. In addition we will
# create a small development set as a subset of the training data;
# we can use this for development so our code runs faster.
num_training = 49000
num_validation = 1000
num_test = 1000
num_dev = 500

# Our validation set will be num_validation points from the original
# training set.
mask = range(num_training, num_training + num_validation)
X_val = X_train[mask]
y_val = y_train[mask]

# Our training set will be the first num_train points from the original
# training set.
mask = range(num_training)
X_train = X_train[mask]
y_train = y_train[mask]

# We will also make a development set, which is a small subset of
# the training set.
mask = np.random.choice(num_training, num_dev, replace=False)
X_dev = X_train[mask]
y_dev = y_train[mask]

# We use the first num_test points of the original test set as our
# test set.
mask = range(num_test)
X_test = X_test[mask]
y_test = y_test[mask]

print('Train data shape: ', X_train.shape)
print('Train labels shape: ', y_train.shape)
print('Validation data shape: ', X_val.shape)
print('Validation labels shape: ', y_val.shape)
print('Test data shape: ', X_test.shape)
print('Test labels shape: ', y_test.shape)
```

```
Train data shape: (49000, 32, 32, 3)
Train labels shape: (49000,)
Validation data shape: (1000, 32, 32, 3)
Validation labels shape: (1000,)
Test data shape: (1000, 32, 32, 3)
Test labels shape: (1000,)
```

```
[ ]: # Preprocessing: reshape the image data into rows
X_train = np.reshape(X_train, (X_train.shape[0], -1))
X_val = np.reshape(X_val, (X_val.shape[0], -1))
X_test = np.reshape(X_test, (X_test.shape[0], -1))
X_dev = np.reshape(X_dev, (X_dev.shape[0], -1))

# As a sanity check, print out the shapes of the data
print('Training data shape: ', X_train.shape)
print('Validation data shape: ', X_val.shape)
print('Test data shape: ', X_test.shape)
print('dev data shape: ', X_dev.shape)
```

```
Training data shape: (49000, 3072)
Validation data shape: (1000, 3072)
Test data shape: (1000, 3072)
dev data shape: (500, 3072)
```

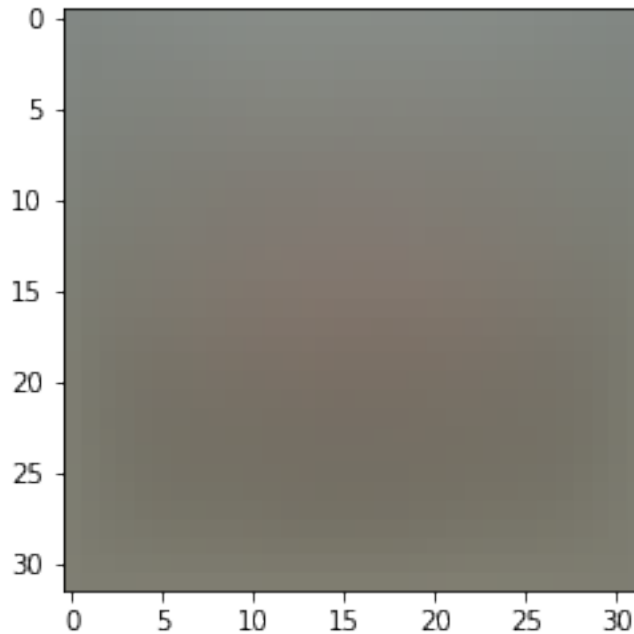
```
[ ]: # Preprocessing: subtract the mean image
# first: compute the image mean based on the training data
mean_image = np.mean(X_train, axis=0)
print(mean_image[:10]) # print a few of the elements
plt.figure(figsize=(4,4))
plt.imshow(mean_image.reshape((32,32,3)).astype('uint8')) # visualize the mean_
    ↳ image
plt.show()

# second: subtract the mean image from train and test data
X_train -= mean_image
X_val -= mean_image
X_test -= mean_image
X_dev -= mean_image

# third: append the bias dimension of ones (i.e. bias trick) so that our SVM
# only has to worry about optimizing a single weight matrix W.
X_train = np.hstack([X_train, np.ones((X_train.shape[0], 1))])
X_val = np.hstack([X_val, np.ones((X_val.shape[0], 1))])
X_test = np.hstack([X_test, np.ones((X_test.shape[0], 1))])
X_dev = np.hstack([X_dev, np.ones((X_dev.shape[0], 1))])

print(X_train.shape, X_val.shape, X_test.shape, X_dev.shape)
```

```
[130.64189796 135.98173469 132.47391837 130.05569388 135.34804082
131.75402041 130.96055102 136.14328571 132.47636735 131.48467347]
```



(49000, 3073) (1000, 3073) (1000, 3073) (500, 3073)

1.2 SVM Classifier

Your code for this section will all be written inside `cs231n/classifiers/linear_svm.py`.

As you can see, we have prefilled the function `svm_loss_naive` which uses for loops to evaluate the multiclass SVM loss function.

```
[ ]: # Evaluate the naive implementation of the loss we provided for you:
from cs231n.classifiers.linear_svm import svm_loss_naive, svm_loss_vectorized
import time

# generate a random SVM weight matrix of small numbers
W = np.random.randn(3073, 10) * 0.0001

loss, grad = svm_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
# loss, grad = svm_loss_vectorized(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
print('loss: %f' % (loss, ))
# print('grad: ', grad)
```

loss: 9.139498

The `grad` returned from the function above is right now all zero. Derive and implement the gradient for the SVM cost function and implement it inline inside the function `svm_loss_naive`. You will find it helpful to interleave your new code inside the existing function.

To check that you have correctly implemented the gradient correctly, you can numerically estimate the gradient of the loss function and compare the numeric estimate to the gradient that you computed. We have provided code that does this for you:

```
[ ]: # Once you've implemented the gradient, recompute it with the code below
# and gradient check it with the function we provided for you

# Compute the loss and its gradient at W.
loss, grad = svm_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)

# Numerically compute the gradient along several randomly chosen dimensions, and
# compare them with your analytically computed gradient. The numbers should
→match
# almost exactly along all dimensions.
from cs231n.gradient_check import grad_check_sparse
f = lambda w: svm_loss_naive(w, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)[0]
grad_numerical = grad_check_sparse(f, W, grad)

# do the gradient check once again with regularization turned on
# you didn't forget the regularization gradient did you?
loss, grad = svm_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 5e1)
f = lambda w: svm_loss_naive(w, X_dev, y_dev, 5e1)[0]
grad_numerical = grad_check_sparse(f, W, grad)
```

```
numerical: -12.263441 analytic: -12.263441, relative error: 1.207251e-12
numerical: 23.161366 analytic: 23.161366, relative error: 3.112276e-12
numerical: 29.603939 analytic: 29.603939, relative error: 9.869530e-12
numerical: -9.108375 analytic: -9.108375, relative error: 3.044763e-11
numerical: 23.290581 analytic: 23.290581, relative error: 4.155687e-12
numerical: 9.916417 analytic: 9.916417, relative error: 5.134666e-12
numerical: 6.794195 analytic: 6.794195, relative error: 4.569915e-11
numerical: -42.667816 analytic: -42.667816, relative error: 1.084620e-11
numerical: -9.093790 analytic: -9.093790, relative error: 3.396077e-11
numerical: 22.983450 analytic: 22.983450, relative error: 1.214921e-11
numerical: -10.884218 analytic: -10.892098, relative error: 3.618207e-04
numerical: -9.439605 analytic: -9.440582, relative error: 5.173191e-05
numerical: 24.568173 analytic: 24.568188, relative error: 3.121155e-07
numerical: -15.561642 analytic: -15.560466, relative error: 3.780420e-05
numerical: 6.702908 analytic: 6.705938, relative error: 2.259994e-04
numerical: -0.621759 analytic: -0.628126, relative error: 5.093826e-03
numerical: 19.773406 analytic: 19.774681, relative error: 3.224481e-05
numerical: -10.339537 analytic: -10.335309, relative error: 2.044938e-04
numerical: 16.999675 analytic: 16.997682, relative error: 5.862673e-05
numerical: 4.759867 analytic: 4.760939, relative error: 1.125828e-04
```

Inline Question 1

It is possible that once in a while a dimension in the gradcheck will not match exactly. What could such a discrepancy be caused by? Is it a reason for concern? What is a simple example in one

dimension where a gradient check could fail? How would change the margin affect of the frequency of this happening? *Hint: the SVM loss function is not strictly speaking differentiable*

Your Answer :

- The SVM loss function is to minimize the Hinge Loss and is represented by the $\max(0, X)$ function. It can be seen graphically that the hinge loss is non-differentiable at the joint which causes a problem for taking the gradient. In short, yes it is possible and at the joint of the hinge loss. But the case seems rare in practicality so it probably will not be of concern.
- A case where the gradcheck will fail can be at $\max(0, x)$ when $x = 0$ where the gradient is undefined. Another case can be when x is very small. And the margin affect in such cases can be changed by increasing the delta.

```
[ ]: # Next implement the function svm_loss_vectorized; for now only compute the
      ↪ loss;
      # we will implement the gradient in a moment.
      tic = time.time()
      loss_naive, grad_naive = svm_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
      toc = time.time()
      print('Naive loss: %e computed in %fs' % (loss_naive, toc - tic))

      from cs231n.classifiers.linear_svm import svm_loss_vectorized
      tic = time.time()
      loss_vectorized, _ = svm_loss_vectorized(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
      toc = time.time()
      print('Vectorized loss: %e computed in %fs' % (loss_vectorized, toc - tic))

      # The losses should match but your vectorized implementation should be much
      ↪ faster.
      print('difference: %f' % (loss_naive - loss_vectorized))
```

```
Naive loss: 9.139498e+00 computed in 0.176633s
Vectorized loss: 9.139498e+00 computed in 0.030839s
difference: 0.000000
```

```
[ ]: # Complete the implementation of svm_loss_vectorized, and compute the gradient
      # of the loss function in a vectorized way.

      # The naive implementation and the vectorized implementation should match, but
      # the vectorized version should still be much faster.
      tic = time.time()
      _, grad_naive = svm_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
      toc = time.time()
      print('Naive loss and gradient: computed in %fs' % (toc - tic))

      tic = time.time()
      _, grad_vectorized = svm_loss_vectorized(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
      toc = time.time()
```

```
print('Vectorized loss and gradient: computed in %fs' % (toc - tic))

# The loss is a single number, so it is easy to compare the values computed
# by the two implementations. The gradient on the other hand is a matrix, so
# we use the Frobenius norm to compare them.
difference = np.linalg.norm(grad_naive - grad_vectorized, ord='fro')
print('difference: %f' % difference)
```

```
Naive loss and gradient: computed in 0.276913s
Vectorized loss and gradient: computed in 0.020696s
difference: 0.000000
```

1.2.1 Stochastic Gradient Descent

We now have vectorized and efficient expressions for the loss, the gradient and our gradient matches the numerical gradient. We are therefore ready to do SGD to minimize the loss. Your code for this part will be written inside `cs231n/classifiers/linear_classifier.py`.

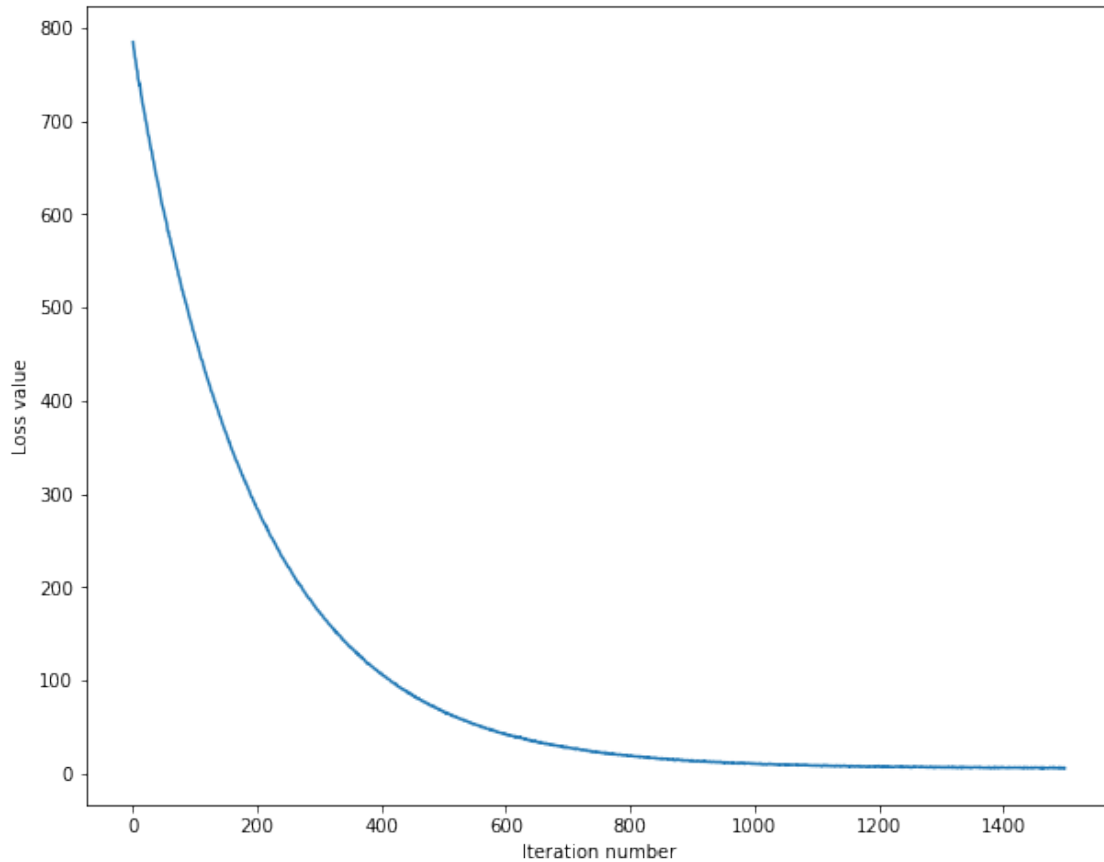
```
[ ]: # In the file linear_classifier.py, implement SGD in the function
# LinearClassifier.train() and then run it with the code below.
from cs231n.classifiers import LinearSVM
svm = LinearSVM()
tic = time.time()
loss_hist = svm.train(X_train, y_train, learning_rate=1e-7, reg=2.5e4,
                      num_iters=1500, verbose=True)
toc = time.time()
print('That took %fs' % (toc - tic))
```

```
iteration 0 / 1500: loss 784.861447
iteration 100 / 1500: loss 467.530898
iteration 200 / 1500: loss 283.683315
iteration 300 / 1500: loss 173.272237
iteration 400 / 1500: loss 107.163851
iteration 500 / 1500: loss 66.069400
iteration 600 / 1500: loss 41.899114
iteration 700 / 1500: loss 27.408922
iteration 800 / 1500: loss 19.281277
iteration 900 / 1500: loss 14.032233
iteration 1000 / 1500: loss 10.468300
iteration 1100 / 1500: loss 8.279786
iteration 1200 / 1500: loss 7.907719
iteration 1300 / 1500: loss 6.088028
iteration 1400 / 1500: loss 6.196974
That took 12.787556s
```

```
[ ]: # A useful debugging strategy is to plot the loss as a function of
# iteration number:
```



```
plt.plot(loss_hist)
plt.xlabel('Iteration number')
plt.ylabel('Loss value')
plt.show()
```



```
[ ]: # Write the LinearSVM.predict function and evaluate the performance on both the
# training and validation set
y_train_pred = svm.predict(X_train)
print('training accuracy: %f' % (np.mean(y_train == y_train_pred), ))
y_val_pred = svm.predict(X_val)
print('validation accuracy: %f' % (np.mean(y_val == y_val_pred), ))
```

```
training accuracy: 0.381184
validation accuracy: 0.377000
```

```
[ ]: # Use the validation set to tune hyperparameters (regularization strength and
# learning rate). You should experiment with different ranges for the learning
# rates and regularization strengths; if you are careful you should be able to
# get a classification accuracy of about 0.39 on the validation set.
```

[illegible]

```
# results is dictionary mapping tuples of the form
# (learning_rate, regularization_strength) to tuples of the form
# (training_accuracy, validation_accuracy). The accuracy is simply the fraction
# of data points that are correctly classified.
```

```
results = {}
best_val = -1    # The highest validation accuracy that we have seen so far.
best_svm = None # The LinearSVM object that achieved the highest validation
               ↪ rate.
```

```
#####  
# TODO:                                                                                                     #  
# Write code that chooses the best hyperparameters by tuning on the validation set. For each combination of hyperparameters, train a linear SVM on the training set, compute its accuracy on the training and validation sets, and store these numbers in the results dictionary. In addition, store the best validation accuracy in best_val and the LinearSVM object that achieves this accuracy in best_svm.  
#  
# Hint: You should use a small value for num_iters as you develop your validation code so that the SVMs don't take much time to train; once you are confident that your validation code works, you should rerun the validation code with a larger value for num_iters.  
#####
```

Provided as a reference. You may or may not want to change these
→ hyperparameters

```
learning_rates = [1e-7, 2e-7, 3.5e-7, 5e-5]
regularization_strengths = [1e4, 2e4, 2.5e4, 5e4]
```

```
# *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****
```

[illegible]


```

lr 1.000000e-07 reg 5.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.368612 val accuracy: 0.374000
lr 2.000000e-07 reg 1.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.389531 val accuracy: 0.386000
lr 2.000000e-07 reg 2.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.371224 val accuracy: 0.366000
lr 2.000000e-07 reg 2.500000e+04 train accuracy: 0.376265 val accuracy: 0.389000
lr 2.000000e-07 reg 5.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.366612 val accuracy: 0.386000
lr 3.500000e-07 reg 1.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.384122 val accuracy: 0.375000
lr 3.500000e-07 reg 2.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.373102 val accuracy: 0.367000
lr 3.500000e-07 reg 2.500000e+04 train accuracy: 0.352041 val accuracy: 0.376000
lr 3.500000e-07 reg 5.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.346694 val accuracy: 0.362000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 1.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.176306 val accuracy: 0.200000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 2.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.166184 val accuracy: 0.168000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 2.500000e+04 train accuracy: 0.123959 val accuracy: 0.112000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 5.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.052388 val accuracy: 0.062000

```

best validation accuracy achieved during cross-validation: 0.389000

```

[ ]: # Visualize the cross-validation results
import math
import pdb

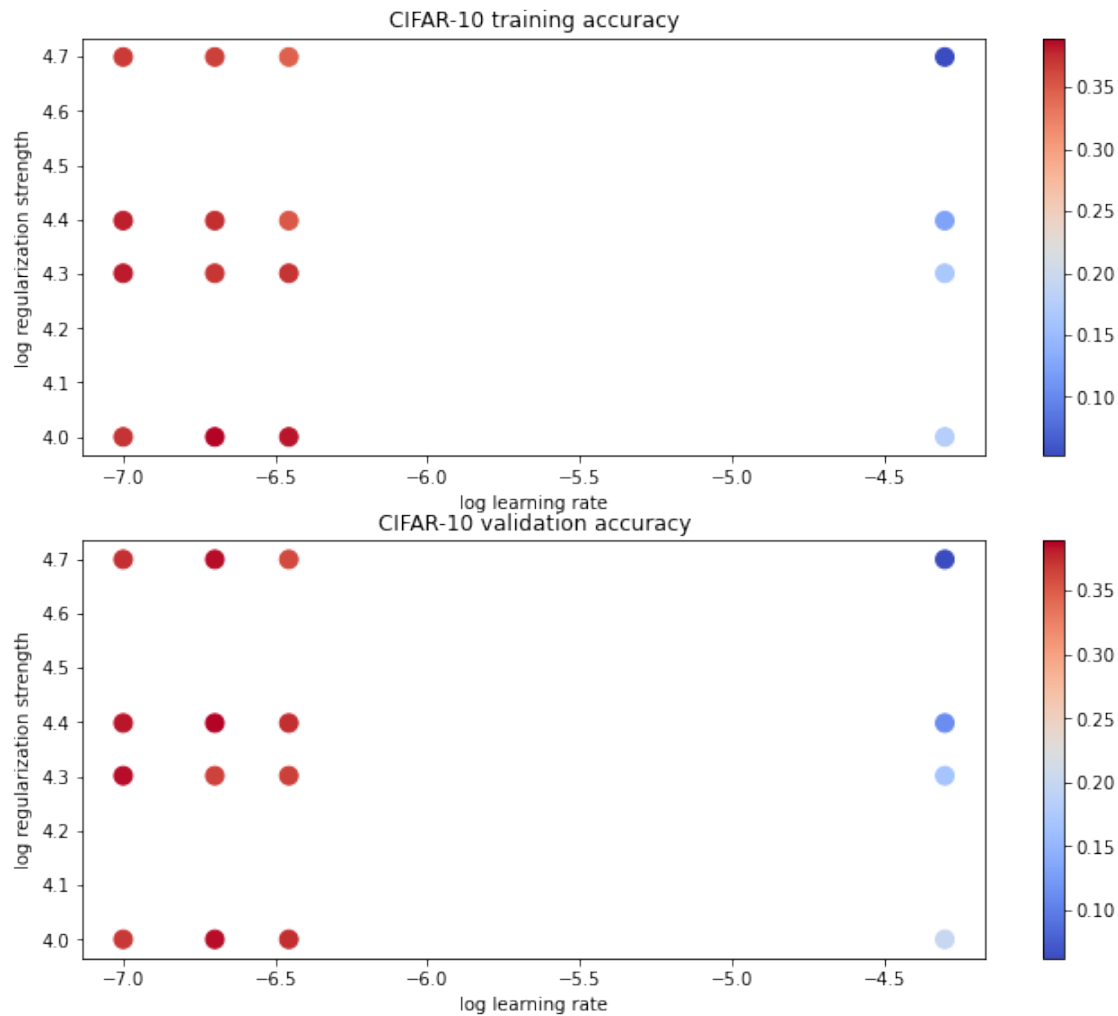
# pdb.set_trace()

x_scatter = [math.log10(x[0]) for x in results]
y_scatter = [math.log10(x[1]) for x in results]

# plot training accuracy
marker_size = 100
colors = [results[x][0] for x in results]
plt.subplot(2, 1, 1)
plt.tight_layout(pad=3)
plt.scatter(x_scatter, y_scatter, marker_size, c=colors, cmap=plt.cm.coolwarm)
plt.colorbar()
plt.xlabel('log learning rate')
plt.ylabel('log regularization strength')
plt.title('CIFAR-10 training accuracy')

# plot validation accuracy
colors = [results[x][1] for x in results] # default size of markers is 20
plt.subplot(2, 1, 2)
plt.scatter(x_scatter, y_scatter, marker_size, c=colors, cmap=plt.cm.coolwarm)
plt.colorbar()
plt.xlabel('log learning rate')
plt.ylabel('log regularization strength')
plt.title('CIFAR-10 validation accuracy')
plt.show()

```



```
[ ]: # Evaluate the best svm on test set
y_test_pred = best_svm.predict(X_test)
test_accuracy = np.mean(y_test == y_test_pred)
print('linear SVM on raw pixels final test set accuracy: %f' % test_accuracy)
```

linear SVM on raw pixels final test set accuracy: 0.375000

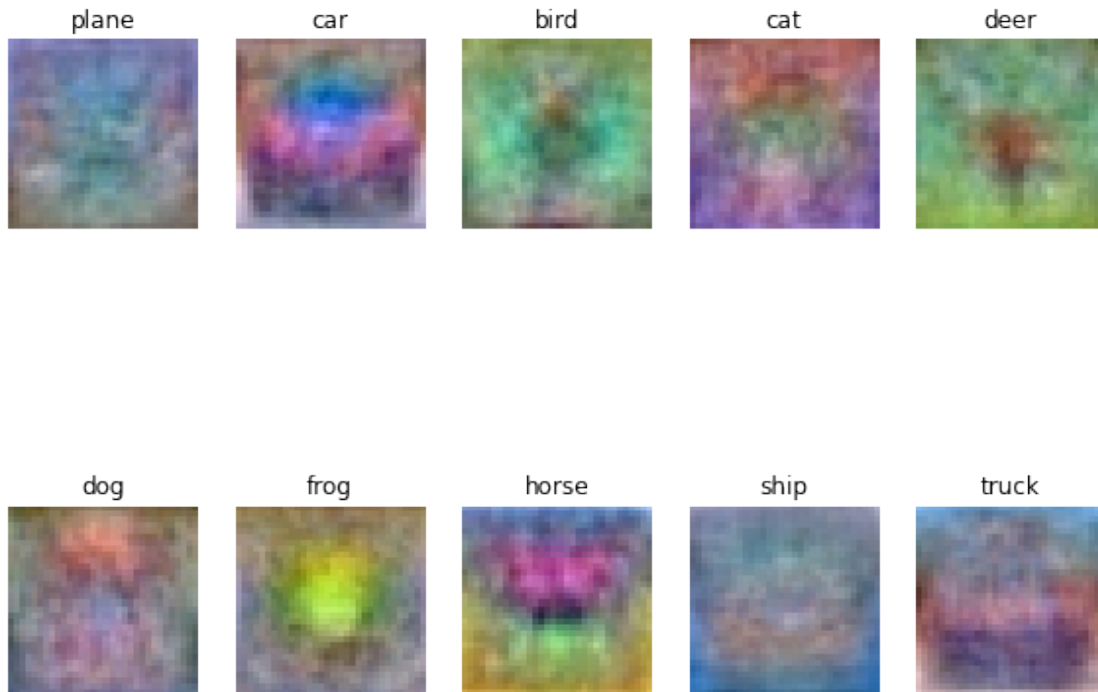
```
[ ]: # Visualize the learned weights for each class.
# Depending on your choice of learning rate and regularization strength, these
# or may not be nice to look at.
w = best_svm.W[:-1,:] # strip out the bias
w = w.reshape(32, 32, 3, 10)
w_min, w_max = np.min(w), np.max(w)
classes = ['plane', 'car', 'bird', 'cat', 'deer', 'dog', 'frog', 'horse',
           'ship', 'truck']
```

```

for i in range(10):
    plt.subplot(2, 5, i + 1)

    # Rescale the weights to be between 0 and 255
    wimg = 255.0 * (w[:, :, :, i].squeeze() - w_min) / (w_max - w_min)
    plt.imshow(wimg.astype('uint8'))
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.title(classes[i])

```



Inline question 2

Describe what your visualized SVM weights look like, and offer a brief explanation for why they look the way that they do.

Your Answer : The weights look like the basic representations of the classes. They are quite blurry but still retain the basic details of the respective classes. For example, the car shape is slightly discernable, the horse can be distinguished and the two-legged deer is the last detectable of the bunch. Although they do not represent the features perfectly the weights can act as the templates of the respective classes. The weights look as such and represent the class features in the way they do because majority of the training data have those features in similar regions.

softmax

October 7, 2022

```
[1]: # This mounts your Google Drive to the Colab VM.
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive', force_remount=True)

# Enter the foldername in your Drive where you have saved the unzipped
# assignment folder, e.g. 'cs231n/assignments/assignment1/'
FOLDERNAME = '/ENPM809K/assignment1'
assert FOLDERNAME is not None, "[!] Enter the foldername."

# Now that we've mounted your Drive, this ensures that
# the Python interpreter of the Colab VM can load
# python files from within it.
import sys
sys.path.append('/content/drive/My Drive/{}'.format(FOLDERNAME))

# This downloads the CIFAR-10 dataset to your Drive
# if it doesn't already exist.
%cd drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME/cs231n/datasets/
!bash get_datasets.sh
%cd /content/drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME
```

```
Mounted at /content/drive
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1/cs231n/datasets
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1
```

1 Softmax exercise

Complete and hand in this completed worksheet (including its outputs and any supporting code outside of the worksheet) with your assignment submission. For more details see the [assignments page](#) on the course website.

This exercise is analogous to the SVM exercise. You will:

- implement a fully-vectorized **loss function** for the Softmax classifier
- implement the fully-vectorized expression for its **analytic gradient**
- **check your implementation** with numerical gradient
- use a validation set to **tune the learning rate and regularization strength**

- **optimize** the loss function with **SGD**
- **visualize** the final learned weights

```
[2]: import random
import numpy as np
from cs231n.data_utils import load_CIFAR10
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

%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

[3]: def get_CIFAR10_data(num_training=49000, num_validation=1000, num_test=1000,
  ↳ num_dev=500):
    """
    Load the CIFAR-10 dataset from disk and perform preprocessing to prepare
    it for the linear classifier. These are the same steps as we used for the
    SVM, but condensed to a single function.
    """
    # Load the raw CIFAR-10 data
    cifar10_dir = 'cs231n/datasets/cifar-10-batches-py'

    # Cleaning up variables to prevent loading data multiple times (which may
    ↳ cause memory issue)
    try:
        del X_train, y_train
        del X_test, y_test
        print('Clear previously loaded data.')
    except:
        pass

    X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test = load_CIFAR10(cifar10_dir)

    # subsample the data
    mask = list(range(num_training, num_training + num_validation))
    X_val = X_train[mask]
    y_val = y_train[mask]
    mask = list(range(num_training))
    X_train = X_train[mask]
    y_train = y_train[mask]
```

```

mask = list(range(num_test))
X_test = X_test[mask]
y_test = y_test[mask]
mask = np.random.choice(num_training, num_dev, replace=False)
X_dev = X_train[mask]
y_dev = y_train[mask]

# Preprocessing: reshape the image data into rows
X_train = np.reshape(X_train, (X_train.shape[0], -1))
X_val = np.reshape(X_val, (X_val.shape[0], -1))
X_test = np.reshape(X_test, (X_test.shape[0], -1))
X_dev = np.reshape(X_dev, (X_dev.shape[0], -1))

# Normalize the data: subtract the mean image
mean_image = np.mean(X_train, axis = 0)
X_train -= mean_image
X_val -= mean_image
X_test -= mean_image
X_dev -= mean_image

# add bias dimension and transform into columns
X_train = np.hstack([X_train, np.ones((X_train.shape[0], 1))])
X_val = np.hstack([X_val, np.ones((X_val.shape[0], 1))])
X_test = np.hstack([X_test, np.ones((X_test.shape[0], 1))])
X_dev = np.hstack([X_dev, np.ones((X_dev.shape[0], 1))])

return X_train, y_train, X_val, y_val, X_test, y_test, X_dev, y_dev

# Invoke the above function to get our data.
X_train, y_train, X_val, y_val, X_test, y_test, X_dev, y_dev = ↳
get_CIFAR10_data()
print('Train data shape: ', X_train.shape)
print('Train labels shape: ', y_train.shape)
print('Validation data shape: ', X_val.shape)
print('Validation labels shape: ', y_val.shape)
print('Test data shape: ', X_test.shape)
print('Test labels shape: ', y_test.shape)
print('dev data shape: ', X_dev.shape)
print('dev labels shape: ', y_dev.shape)

```

```

Train data shape: (49000, 3073)
Train labels shape: (49000,)
Validation data shape: (1000, 3073)
Validation labels shape: (1000,)
Test data shape: (1000, 3073)
Test labels shape: (1000,)

```

```
dev data shape: (500, 3073)
dev labels shape: (500,)
```

1.1 Softmax Classifier

Your code for this section will all be written inside `cs231n/classifiers/softmax.py`.

```
[4]: # First implement the naive softmax loss function with nested loops.
# Open the file cs231n/classifiers/softmax.py and implement the
# softmax_loss_naive function.

from cs231n.classifiers.softmax import softmax_loss_naive
import time

# Generate a random softmax weight matrix and use it to compute the loss.
W = np.random.randn(3073, 10) * 0.0001
loss, grad = softmax_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)
# loss, grad = softmax_loss_vectorized(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)

# As a rough sanity check, our loss should be something close to -log(0.1).
print('loss: %f' % loss)
print('sanity check: %f' % (-np.log(0.1)))
```

```
loss: 2.323299
sanity check: 2.302585
```

Inline Question 1

Why do we expect our loss to be close to $-\log(0.1)$? Explain briefly.**

Your Answer: We have the CIFAR-10 with 10 classes each class with a probability of $1/10$. At initialization we use randomised weights and the loss is $-\log(1/C)$ where $C=10$ which is nothing but $-\log(0.1)$.

```
[5]: # Complete the implementation of softmax_loss_naive and implement a (naive)
# version of the gradient that uses nested loops.
loss, grad = softmax_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)

# As we did for the SVM, use numeric gradient checking as a debugging tool.
# The numeric gradient should be close to the analytic gradient.
from cs231n.gradient_check import grad_check_sparse
f = lambda w: softmax_loss_naive(w, X_dev, y_dev, 0.0)[0]
grad_numerical = grad_check_sparse(f, W, grad, 10)

# similar to SVM case, do another gradient check with regularization
loss, grad = softmax_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 5e1)
f = lambda w: softmax_loss_naive(w, X_dev, y_dev, 5e1)[0]
grad_numerical = grad_check_sparse(f, W, grad, 10)
```

```

numerical: 0.426035 analytic: 0.426035, relative error: 1.891000e-08
numerical: 1.903852 analytic: 1.903852, relative error: 5.625104e-09
numerical: 3.559090 analytic: 3.559090, relative error: 6.373249e-09
numerical: 2.399062 analytic: 2.399062, relative error: 8.147401e-09
numerical: 1.019080 analytic: 1.019080, relative error: 1.343745e-08
numerical: -2.340545 analytic: -2.340545, relative error: 8.394228e-10
numerical: -1.235481 analytic: -1.235481, relative error: 3.036651e-08
numerical: -0.553019 analytic: -0.553019, relative error: 4.231782e-08
numerical: 0.721772 analytic: 0.721772, relative error: 4.902116e-08
numerical: 0.804810 analytic: 0.804810, relative error: 2.760829e-08
numerical: 1.001254 analytic: 1.004654, relative error: 1.695121e-03
numerical: -0.150528 analytic: -0.156893, relative error: 2.070496e-02
numerical: -0.876213 analytic: -0.872382, relative error: 2.190887e-03
numerical: 0.600483 analytic: 0.603196, relative error: 2.253772e-03
numerical: -1.152849 analytic: -1.152179, relative error: 2.905546e-04
numerical: -0.307324 analytic: -0.308812, relative error: 2.414600e-03
numerical: 0.369093 analytic: 0.368075, relative error: 1.381613e-03
numerical: 0.490469 analytic: 0.501372, relative error: 1.099246e-02
numerical: -4.918443 analytic: -4.909239, relative error: 9.365219e-04
numerical: -0.510352 analytic: -0.501074, relative error: 9.173757e-03

```

```

[6]: # Now that we have a naive implementation of the softmax loss function and its
      →gradient,
      # implement a vectorized version in softmax_loss_vectorized.
      # The two versions should compute the same results, but the vectorized version
      →should be
      # much faster.
      tic = time.time()
      loss_naive, grad_naive = softmax_loss_naive(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.000005)
      toc = time.time()
      print('naive loss: %e computed in %fs' % (loss_naive, toc - tic))

      from cs231n.classifiers.softmax import softmax_loss_vectorized
      tic = time.time()
      loss_vectorized, grad_vectorized = softmax_loss_vectorized(W, X_dev, y_dev, 0.
      →000005)
      toc = time.time()
      print('vectorized loss: %e computed in %fs' % (loss_vectorized, toc - tic))

      # As we did for the SVM, we use the Frobenius norm to compare the two versions
      # of the gradient.
      grad_difference = np.linalg.norm(grad_naive - grad_vectorized, ord='fro')
      print('Loss difference: %f' % np.abs(loss_naive - loss_vectorized))
      print('Gradient difference: %f' % grad_difference)

```

```

naive loss: 2.323299e+00 computed in 0.249229s
vectorized loss: 2.323299e+00 computed in 0.014181s

```

Gradient difference: 0.000000

6


```

lr 5.000000e-05 reg 1.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.116653 val accuracy: 0.128000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 2.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.083184 val accuracy: 0.089000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 2.500000e+04 train accuracy: 0.147102 val accuracy: 0.155000
lr 5.000000e-05 reg 5.000000e+04 train accuracy: 0.051551 val accuracy: 0.045000
best validation accuracy achieved during cross-validation: 0.389000

```

```

[8]: # evaluate on test set
# Evaluate the best softmax on test set
y_test_pred = best_softmax.predict(X_test)
test_accuracy = np.mean(y_test == y_test_pred)
print('softmax on raw pixels final test set accuracy: %f' % (test_accuracy, ))

```

softmax on raw pixels final test set accuracy: 0.362000

Inline Question 2 - True or False

Suppose the overall training loss is defined as the sum of the per-datapoint loss over all training examples. It is possible to add a new datapoint to a training set that would leave the SVM loss unchanged, but this is not the case with the Softmax classifier loss.

Your Answer : True

Your Explanation : The SVM loss function is only concerned with the correct class score being greater than the other class score by the margin. Hence, as long as the new datapoint loss satisfies this condition, the SVM loss remains unchanged. The case where it hurts the SVM loss would probably be a rare occasion. The Softmax loss function takes into account the scores of all the datapoint. And the softmax loss decreases if the true class score is higher. Adding a datapoint decreases the true class score and in turn increases the loss. If the datapoint is too large, then it will cause even greater effect on the softmax loss.

```

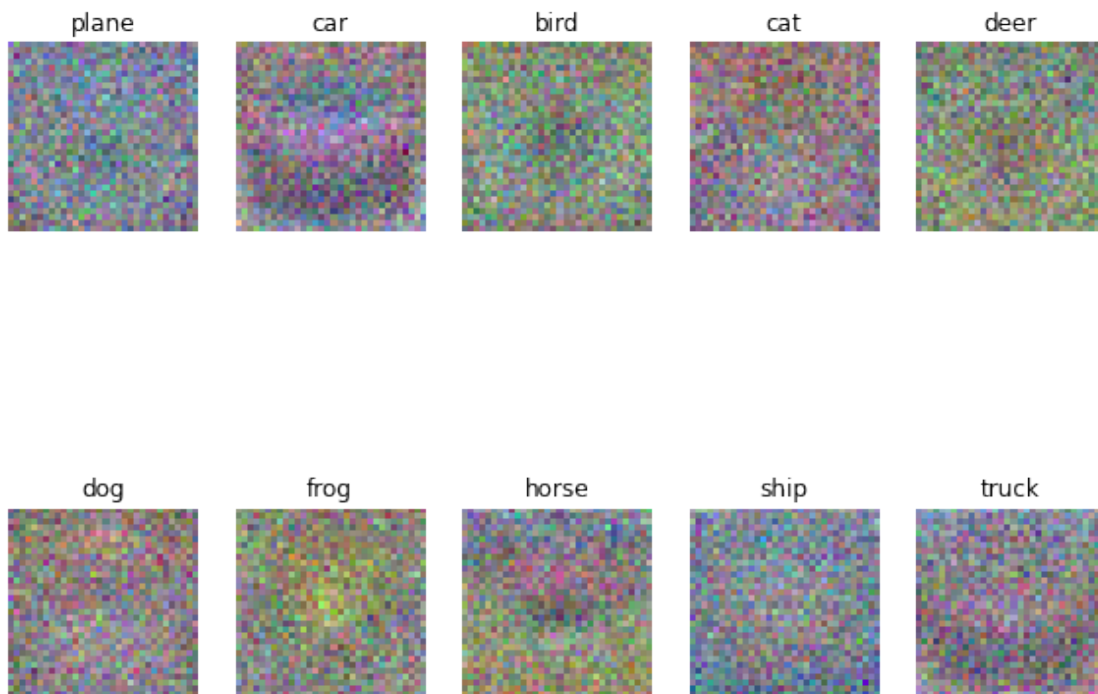
[9]: # Visualize the learned weights for each class
w = best_softmax.W[:-1,:] # strip out the bias
w = w.reshape(32, 32, 10)

w_min, w_max = np.min(w), np.max(w)

classes = ['plane', 'car', 'bird', 'cat', 'deer', 'dog', 'frog', 'horse', '
↳ 'ship', 'truck']
for i in range(10):
    plt.subplot(2, 5, i + 1)

    # Rescale the weights to be between 0 and 255
    wimg = 255.0 * (w[:, :, :, i].squeeze() - w_min) / (w_max - w_min)
    plt.imshow(wimg.astype('uint8'))
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.title(classes[i])

```

[9] :

two_layer_net

October 7, 2022

```
[1]: # This mounts your Google Drive to the Colab VM.
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive', force_remount=True)

# Enter the foldername in your Drive where you have saved the unzipped
# assignment folder, e.g. 'cs231n/assignments/assignment1/'
FOLDERNAME = '/ENPM809K/assignment1'
assert FOLDERNAME is not None, "[!] Enter the foldername."

# Now that we've mounted your Drive, this ensures that
# the Python interpreter of the Colab VM can load
# python files from within it.
import sys
sys.path.append('/content/drive/My Drive/{}'.format(FOLDERNAME))

# This downloads the CIFAR-10 dataset to your Drive
# if it doesn't already exist.
%cd drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME/cs231n/datasets/
!bash get_datasets.sh
%cd /content/drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME
```

```
Mounted at /content/drive
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1/cs231n/datasets
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1
```

1 Fully-Connected Neural Nets

In this exercise we will implement fully-connected networks using a 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.

```

[2]: # As usual, a bit of setup
from __future__ import print_function
import time
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from cs231n.classifiers.fc_net import *
from cs231n.data_utils import get_CIFAR10_data
from cs231n.gradient_check import eval_numerical_gradient, \
    eval_numerical_gradient_array
from cs231n.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))))

```

[3]: *# 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,))

```

2 Affine layer: forward

Open the file `cs231n/layers.py` and implement the `affine_forward` function.

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

[4]: *# 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_dim)
b = np.linspace(-0.3, 0.1, num=output_dim)
# print("x : ", x)

out, _ = affine_forward(x, w, b)
correct_out = np.array([[ 1.49834967,  1.70660132,  1.91485297],
                        [ 3.25553199,  3.5141327,  3.77273342]])

# 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: 9.769849468192957e-10

```

3 Affine layer: backward

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

```
[5]: # 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,
    ↪dout)
dw_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda w: affine_forward(x, w, b)[0], w,
    ↪dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: affine_forward(x, w, b)[0], b,
    ↪dout)

_, 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
```

4 ReLU activation: forward

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

```
[6]: # 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.,          0.04545455, 0.13636364],
                        [ 0.22727273, 0.31818182, 0.40909091, 0.5]])
```

```
# 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
```

5 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:

```
[7]: 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
```

5.1 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

5.2 Answer:

When the gradients are close to zero, the activation function suffers from the vanishing gradient problem.

- Sigmoid function has the derivatives over 0-0.25 and the gradients are close to zero for very large positive or negative values which fall towards the tail ends of the function. Here the

weight value updates are very small and the new values are similar to old ones which leads to the vanishing gradient problem. For e.g. $[-1e6, 1e6]$

- In ReLU function, the gradient is zero for 0 and negative values and 1 for positive values which avoids the vanishing problem. But all negative cases can nullify this advantage and still cause the vanishing gradient problem. For e.g. $[-24, -16]$
- Leaky ReLU when handling negative values applies a mapping of negative numbers to very small positive numbers (e.g. $0.001x$). This is done applying a small positive gradient for negative values.

6 "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 `cs231n/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:

```
[8]: from cs231n.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),
    x, dout)
dw_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda w: affine_relu_forward(x, w, b),
    w, dout)
db_num = eval_numerical_gradient_array(lambda b: affine_relu_forward(x, w, b),
    b, dout)

# 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: 2.299579177309368e-11

dw error: 8.162011105764925e-11

db error: 7.826724021458994e-12

7 Loss layers: Softmax and SVM

Now implement the loss and gradient for softmax and SVM in the `softmax_loss` and `svm_loss` function in `cs231n/layers.py`. These should be similar to what you implemented in `cs231n/classifiers/softmax.py` and `cs231n/classifiers/linear_svm.py`.

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

```
[9]: 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 order of e-9
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 around e-8
print('\nTesting softmax_loss:')
print('loss: ', loss)
print('dx error: ', rel_error(dx_num, dx))
```

```
Testing svm_loss:
loss: 8.999602749096233
dx error: 1.0
```

```
Testing softmax_loss:
loss: 2.302545844500738
dx error: 9.384673161989355e-09
```

8 Two-layer network

Open the file `cs231n/classifiers/fc_net.py` and complete the implementation of the `TwoLayerNet` class. Read through it to make sure you understand the API. You can run the cell below to test your implementation.


```

[10]: 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'
assert np.all(b1 == 0), 'First layer biases do not seem right'
assert W2_std < std / 10, 'Second layer weights do not seem right'
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(
    [[11.53165108, 12.2917344, 13.05181771, 13.81190102, 14.57198434, 15.
     ↪33206765, 16.09215096],
     [12.05769098, 12.74614105, 13.43459113, 14.1230412, 14.81149128, 15.
     ↪49994135, 16.18839143],
     [12.58373087, 13.20054771, 13.81736455, 14.43418138, 15.05099822, 15.
     ↪66781506, 16.2846319 ]])
scores_diff = np.abs(scores - correct_scores).sum()
assert scores_diff < 1e-6, 'Problem with test-time forward pass'

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'

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'

# 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: 1.83e-08
W2 relative error: 3.12e-10
b1 relative error: 9.83e-09
b2 relative error: 4.33e-10
Running numeric gradient check with reg = 0.7
W1 relative error: 2.53e-07
W2 relative error: 2.85e-08
b1 relative error: 1.56e-08
b2 relative error: 7.76e-10

```

9 Solver

Open the file `cs231n/solver.py` and read through it to familiarize yourself with the API. You also need to implement the `sgd` function in `cs231n/optim.py`. After doing so, use a `Solver` instance to train a `TwoLayerNet` that achieves about 36% accuracy on the validation set.

```

[11]: input_size = 32 * 32 * 3
      hidden_size = 50
      num_classes = 10
      reg = 1e-5
      weight_scale = 1e-3
      model = TwoLayerNet(input_size, hidden_size, num_classes, reg, weight_scale)
      solver = Solver(model, data, update_rule='sgd', optim_config={'learning_rate':
          ↪1e-3},
                      lr_decay=0.95, num_epochs=10, batch_size=100,
                      print_every=100)
      #####
      # TODO: Use a Solver instance to train a TwoLayerNet that achieves about 36% #
      # accuracy on the validation set.                                           #
      #####
      # *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

```

```

solver.train()

# *****END OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****
#####
#                               END OF YOUR CODE                               #
#####

(Iteration 1 / 4900) loss: 2.302585
(Epoch 0 / 10) train acc: 0.089000; val_acc: 0.105000
(Iteration 101 / 4900) loss: 1.894611
(Iteration 201 / 4900) loss: 1.843530
(Iteration 301 / 4900) loss: 1.781440
(Iteration 401 / 4900) loss: 1.769792
(Epoch 1 / 10) train acc: 0.396000; val_acc: 0.421000
(Iteration 501 / 4900) loss: 1.726390
(Iteration 601 / 4900) loss: 1.444964
(Iteration 701 / 4900) loss: 1.699632
(Iteration 801 / 4900) loss: 1.514729
(Iteration 901 / 4900) loss: 1.379359
(Epoch 2 / 10) train acc: 0.473000; val_acc: 0.454000
(Iteration 1001 / 4900) loss: 1.363061
(Iteration 1101 / 4900) loss: 1.488646
(Iteration 1201 / 4900) loss: 1.482401
(Iteration 1301 / 4900) loss: 1.366527
(Iteration 1401 / 4900) loss: 1.484753
(Epoch 3 / 10) train acc: 0.462000; val_acc: 0.447000
(Iteration 1501 / 4900) loss: 1.350041
(Iteration 1601 / 4900) loss: 1.353504
(Iteration 1701 / 4900) loss: 1.349600
(Iteration 1801 / 4900) loss: 1.377789
(Iteration 1901 / 4900) loss: 1.403609
(Epoch 4 / 10) train acc: 0.487000; val_acc: 0.478000
(Iteration 2001 / 4900) loss: 1.395138
(Iteration 2101 / 4900) loss: 1.341652
(Iteration 2201 / 4900) loss: 1.511159
(Iteration 2301 / 4900) loss: 1.239693
(Iteration 2401 / 4900) loss: 1.515976
(Epoch 5 / 10) train acc: 0.514000; val_acc: 0.487000
(Iteration 2501 / 4900) loss: 1.223355
(Iteration 2601 / 4900) loss: 1.500080
(Iteration 2701 / 4900) loss: 1.338687
(Iteration 2801 / 4900) loss: 1.477932
(Iteration 2901 / 4900) loss: 1.102182
(Epoch 6 / 10) train acc: 0.541000; val_acc: 0.488000
(Iteration 3001 / 4900) loss: 1.278284
(Iteration 3101 / 4900) loss: 1.178612
(Iteration 3201 / 4900) loss: 1.225690

```

```

(Iteration 3301 / 4900) loss: 1.218092
(Iteration 3401 / 4900) loss: 1.198735
(Epoch 7 / 10) train acc: 0.548000; val_acc: 0.506000
(Iteration 3501 / 4900) loss: 1.429308
(Iteration 3601 / 4900) loss: 1.222242
(Iteration 3701 / 4900) loss: 1.510199
(Iteration 3801 / 4900) loss: 1.250951
(Iteration 3901 / 4900) loss: 1.228812
(Epoch 8 / 10) train acc: 0.546000; val_acc: 0.496000
(Iteration 4001 / 4900) loss: 1.137462
(Iteration 4101 / 4900) loss: 1.286157
(Iteration 4201 / 4900) loss: 1.201133
(Iteration 4301 / 4900) loss: 1.222318
(Iteration 4401 / 4900) loss: 1.260221
(Epoch 9 / 10) train acc: 0.577000; val_acc: 0.499000
(Iteration 4501 / 4900) loss: 1.355219
(Iteration 4601 / 4900) loss: 1.157573
(Iteration 4701 / 4900) loss: 1.276505
(Iteration 4801 / 4900) loss: 1.219625
(Epoch 10 / 10) train acc: 0.566000; val_acc: 0.495000

```

10 Debug the training

With the default parameters we provided above, you should get a validation accuracy of about 0.36 on the validation set. This isn't very good.

One strategy for getting insight into what's wrong is to plot the loss function and the accuracies on the training and validation sets during optimization.

Another strategy is to visualize the weights that were learned in the first layer of the network. In most neural networks trained on visual data, the first layer weights typically show some visible structure when visualized.

[12]: *# Run this cell to visualize training loss and train / val accuracy*

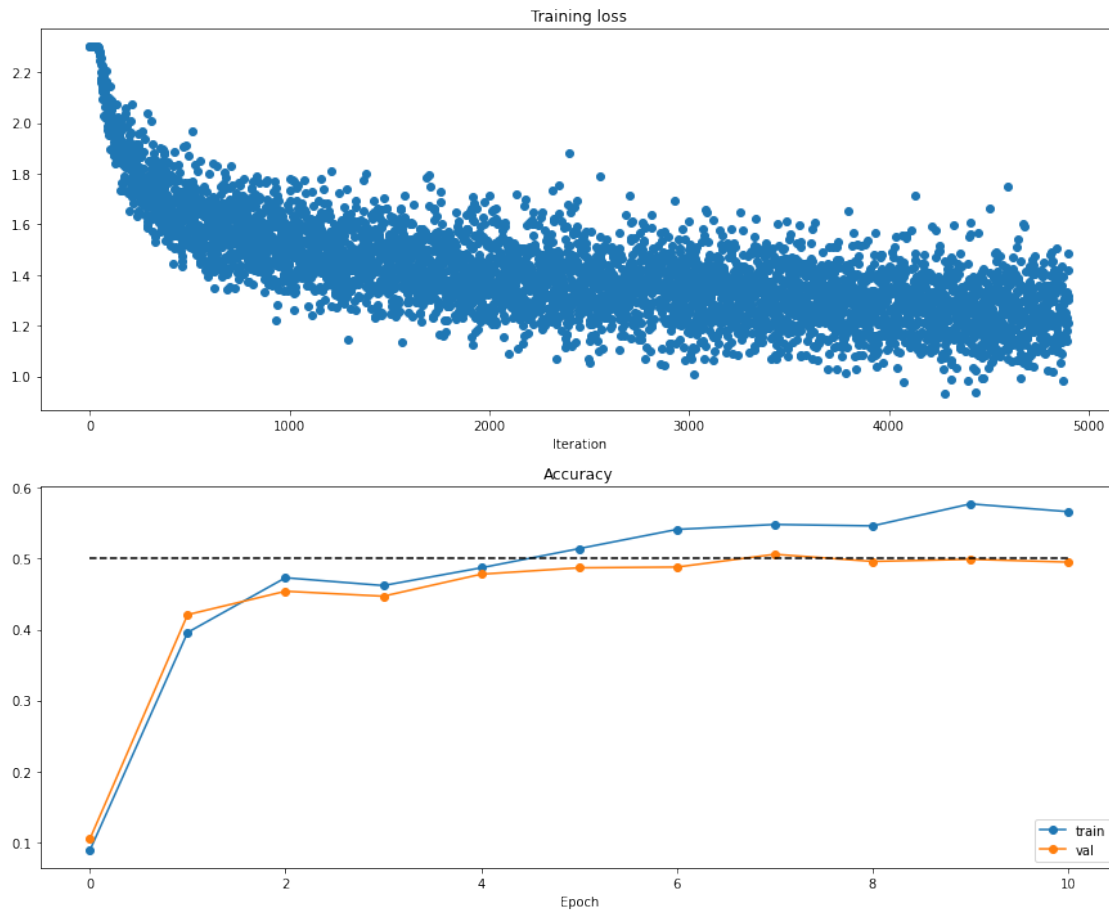
```

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()
```

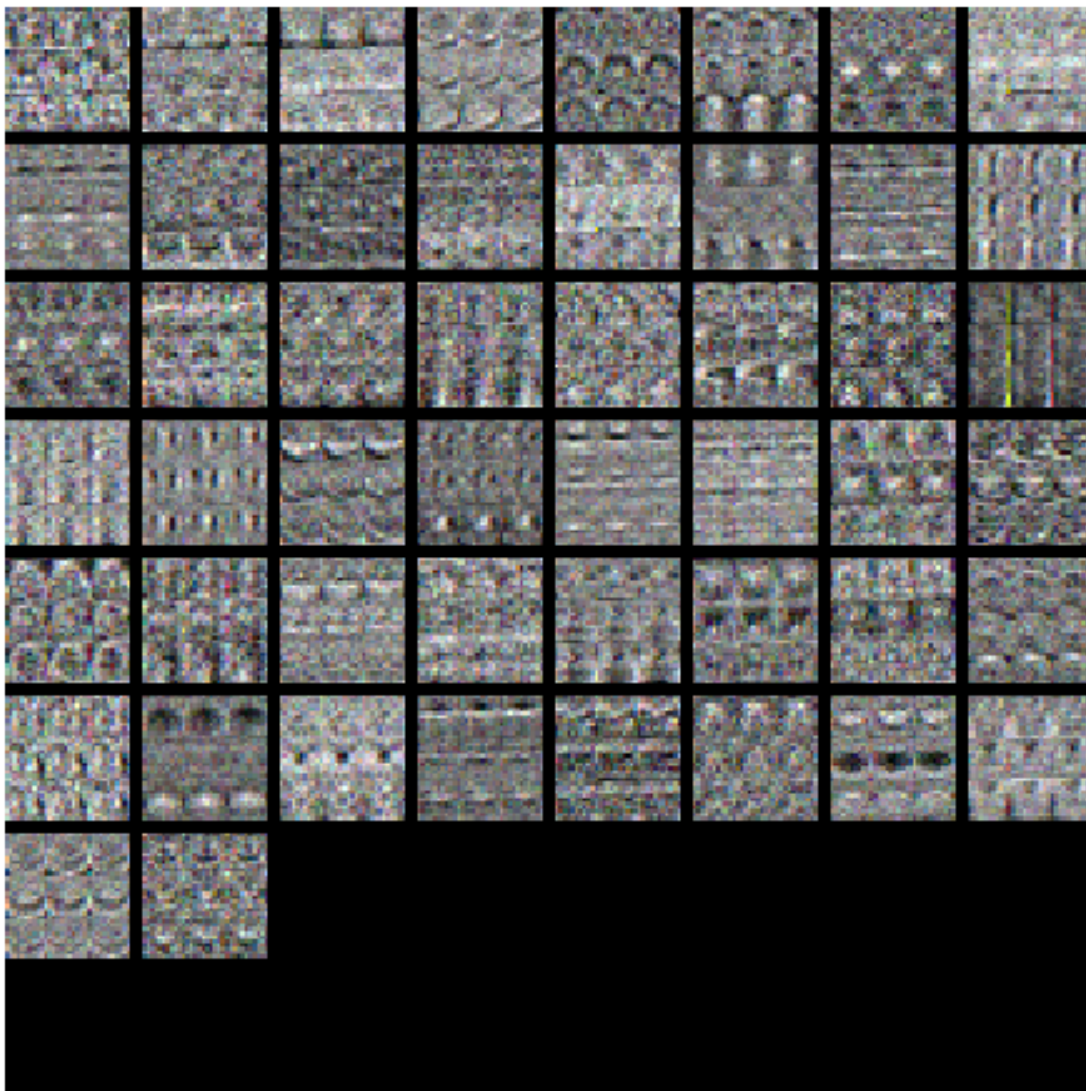


```
[13]: from cs231n.vis_utils import visualize_grid

# Visualize the weights of the network

def show_net_weights(net):
    W1 = net.params['W1']
    W1 = W1.reshape(32, 32, 3, -1).transpose(3, 0, 1, 2)
    plt.imshow(visualize_grid(W1, padding=3).astype('uint8'))
    plt.gca().axis('off')
    plt.show()

show_net_weights(model)
```



11 Tune your hyperparameters

What's wrong?. Looking at the visualizations above, we see that the loss is decreasing more or less linearly, which seems to suggest that the learning rate may be too low. Moreover, there is no gap between the training and validation accuracy, suggesting that the model we used has low capacity, and that we should increase its size. On the other hand, with a very large model we would expect to see more overfitting, which would manifest itself as a very large gap between the training and validation accuracy.

Tuning. Tuning the hyperparameters and developing intuition for how they affect the final performance is a large part of using Neural Networks, so we want you to get a lot of practice. Below, you should experiment with different values of the various hyperparameters, including hidden layer

size, learning rate, number of training epochs, and regularization strength. You might also consider tuning the learning rate decay, but you should be able to get good performance using the default value.

Approximate results. You should be able to achieve a classification accuracy of greater than 48% on the validation set. Our best network gets over 52% on the validation set.

Experiment: Your goal in this exercise is to get as good of a result on CIFAR-10 as you can (52% could serve as a reference), with a fully-connected Neural Network. Feel free to implement your own techniques (e.g. PCA to reduce dimensionality, or adding dropout, or adding features to the solver, etc.).

```
[14]: best_model = None

#####
# TODO: Tune hyperparameters using the validation set. Store your best trained
# model in best_model.
#
# To help debug your network, it may help to use visualizations similar to the
# ones we used above; these visualizations will have significant qualitative
# differences from the ones we saw above for the poorly tuned network.
#
# Tweaking hyperparameters by hand can be fun, but you might find it useful to
# write code to sweep through possible combinations of hyperparameters
# automatically like we did on the previous exercises.
#####
# *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****
# Objects to store best model and validation accuracy
best_val = -1
solver = None
best_solver = None
results = {}

# Try hyperparameters to figure out the best combinations for the model
learning_rates = [1e-3, 3e-3, 3.5e-4, 4e-4]
regularization_strengths = [1e-5, 1.7e-5, 5.5e-5, 7e-6]
epochs = [10, 20]
hidden_layer_sizes = [75, 90, 120]
```


[illegible]

[illegible]

12 Test your model!

Run your best model on the validation and test sets. You should achieve above 48% accuracy on the validation set and the test set.

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

Validation set accuracy: 0.558

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

Test set accuracy: 0.534

12.1 Inline Question 2:

Now that you have trained a Neural Network classifier, you may find that your testing accuracy is much lower than the training accuracy. In what ways can we decrease this gap? Select all that apply.

1. Train on a larger dataset.
2. Add more hidden units.
3. Increase the regularization strength.
4. None of the above.

Your Answer :

- Train on a larger dataset
- Add more hidden units

Your Explanation :

1. Train on a larger dataset: Since the training accuracy is much larger than the testing accuracy, we can say the model overfits the training data. As long as the additional training data (on the same network or of altogether a different network) is not noisy, it should be able to get rid of the incorrect/useless correlations that made it overfit the training data and make new, improved, and useful correlations. This way additional data can improve the network performance.
2. Additional hidden layers may or may not be able to improve the neural network accuracy. If the current network is not able to extract all the features of interest, then adding more hidden units will help the network extract more features and in turn improve the accuracy. But this can work to an extent. If there are too many hidden layers, then the network might start extracting features from objects which are not of interest and use them for classification decisions.
3. Increasing the regularization strength until a certain limit can help the network. The main reason of adding a regularization technique is to contain overfitting of the model. But after a certain extent increasing the regularization (for e.g. L2) might increase the loss which won't be good for improving the model performance.

[16]:

features

October 7, 2022

```
[1]: # This mounts your Google Drive to the Colab VM.
from google.colab import drive
drive.mount('/content/drive', force_remount=True)

# Enter the foldername in your Drive where you have saved the unzipped
# assignment folder, e.g. 'cs231n/assignments/assignment1/'
FOLDERNAME = 'ENPM809K/assignment1'
assert FOLDERNAME is not None, "[!] Enter the foldername."

# Now that we've mounted your Drive, this ensures that
# the Python interpreter of the Colab VM can load
# python files from within it.
import sys
sys.path.append('/content/drive/My Drive/{}'.format(FOLDERNAME))

# This downloads the CIFAR-10 dataset to your Drive
# if it doesn't already exist.
%cd drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME/cs231n/datasets/
!bash get_datasets.sh
%cd /content/drive/My\ Drive/$FOLDERNAME
```

```
Mounted at /content/drive
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1/cs231n/datasets
/content/drive/My Drive/ENPM809K/assignment1
```

1 Image features exercise

Complete and hand in this completed worksheet (including its outputs and any supporting code outside of the worksheet) with your assignment submission. For more details see the [assignments page](#) on the course website.

We have seen that we can achieve reasonable performance on an image classification task by training a linear classifier on the pixels of the input image. In this exercise we will show that we can improve our classification performance by training linear classifiers not on raw pixels but on features that are computed from the raw pixels.

All of your work for this exercise will be done in this notebook.

```
[2]: import random
import numpy as np
from cs231n.data_utils import load_CIFAR10
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

%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
```

1.1 Load data

Similar to previous exercises, we will load CIFAR-10 data from disk.

```
[3]: from cs231n.features import color_histogram_hsv, hog_feature

def get_CIFAR10_data(num_training=49000, num_validation=1000, num_test=1000):
    # Load the raw CIFAR-10 data
    cifar10_dir = 'cs231n/datasets/cifar-10-batches-py'

    # Cleaning up variables to prevent loading data multiple times (which may
    # → cause memory issue)
    try:
        del X_train, y_train
        del X_test, y_test
        print('Clear previously loaded data.')
    except:
        pass

    X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test = load_CIFAR10(cifar10_dir)

    # Subsample the data
    mask = list(range(num_training, num_training + num_validation))
    X_val = X_train[mask]
    y_val = y_train[mask]
    mask = list(range(num_training))
    X_train = X_train[mask]
    y_train = y_train[mask]
    mask = list(range(num_test))
```

```

X_test = X_test[mask]
y_test = y_test[mask]

return X_train, y_train, X_val, y_val, X_test, y_test

X_train, y_train, X_val, y_val, X_test, y_test = get_CIFAR10_data()

```

1.2 Extract Features

For each image we will compute a Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) as well as a color histogram using the hue channel in HSV color space. We form our final feature vector for each image by concatenating the HOG and color histogram feature vectors.

Roughly speaking, HOG should capture the texture of the image while ignoring color information, and the color histogram represents the color of the input image while ignoring texture. As a result, we expect that using both together ought to work better than using either alone. Verifying this assumption would be a good thing to try for your own interest.

The `hog_feature` and `color_histogram_hsv` functions both operate on a single image and return a feature vector for that image. The `extract_features` function takes a set of images and a list of feature functions and evaluates each feature function on each image, storing the results in a matrix where each column is the concatenation of all feature vectors for a single image.

```

[4]: from cs231n.features import *

num_color_bins = 10 # Number of bins in the color histogram
feature_fns = [hog_feature, lambda img: color_histogram_hsv(img,
    ↪nbin=num_color_bins)]
X_train_feats = extract_features(X_train, feature_fns, verbose=True)
X_val_feats = extract_features(X_val, feature_fns)
X_test_feats = extract_features(X_test, feature_fns)

# Preprocessing: Subtract the mean feature
mean_feat = np.mean(X_train_feats, axis=0, keepdims=True)
X_train_feats -= mean_feat
X_val_feats -= mean_feat
X_test_feats -= mean_feat

# Preprocessing: Divide by standard deviation. This ensures that each feature
# has roughly the same scale.
std_feat = np.std(X_train_feats, axis=0, keepdims=True)
X_train_feats /= std_feat
X_val_feats /= std_feat
X_test_feats /= std_feat

# Preprocessing: Add a bias dimension
X_train_feats = np.hstack([X_train_feats, np.ones((X_train_feats.shape[0], 1))])

```



```
X_val_feats = np.hstack([X_val_feats, np.ones((X_val_feats.shape[0], 1))])
X_test_feats = np.hstack([X_test_feats, np.ones((X_test_feats.shape[0], 1))])
```

```
Done extracting features for 1000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 2000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 3000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 4000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 5000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 6000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 7000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 8000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 9000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 10000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 11000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 12000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 13000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 14000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 15000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 16000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 17000 / 49000 images
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Done extracting features for 19000 / 49000 images
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Done extracting features for 38000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 39000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 40000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 41000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 42000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 43000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 44000 / 49000 images
```

```
Done extracting features for 45000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 46000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 47000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 48000 / 49000 images
Done extracting features for 49000 / 49000 images
```

1.3 Train SVM on features

Using the multiclass SVM code developed earlier in the assignment, train SVMs on top of the features extracted above; this should achieve better results than training SVMs directly on top of raw pixels.

[illegible]

[illegible]

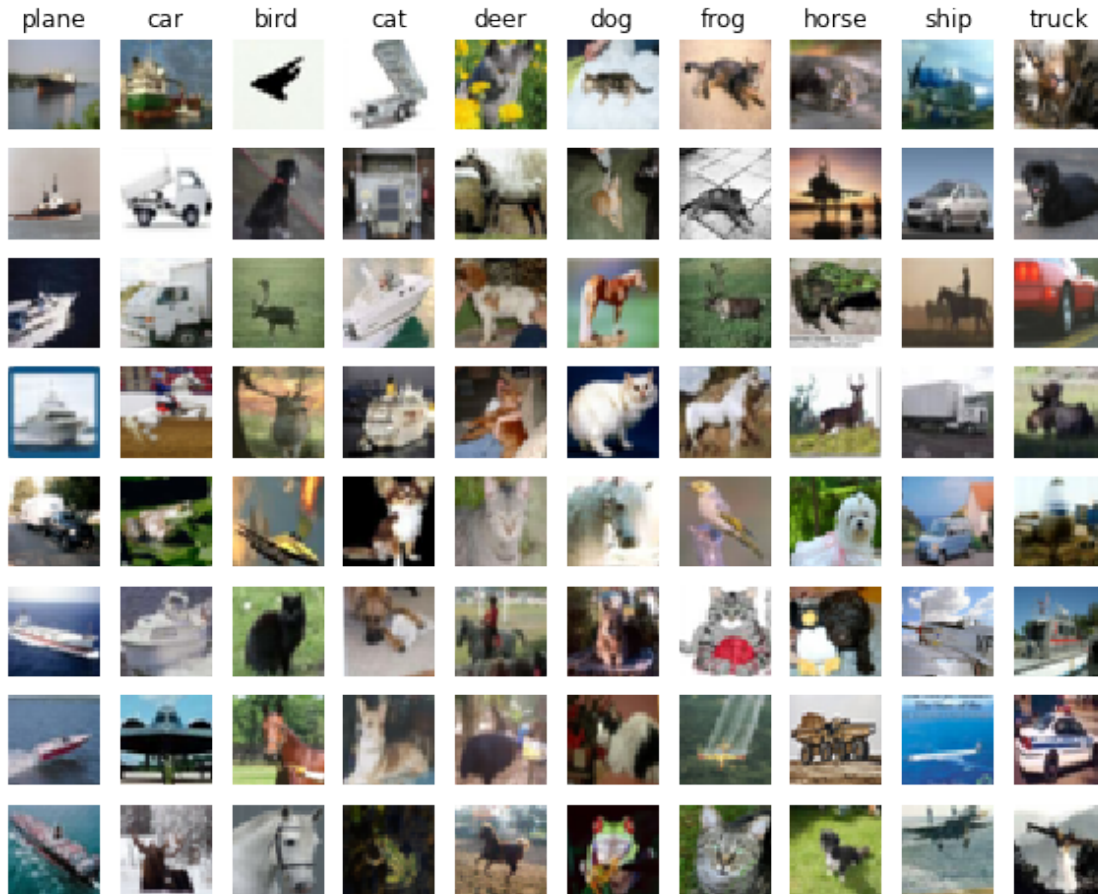
best validation accuracy achieved: 0.494000

```
[6]: # Evaluate your trained SVM on the test set: you should be able to get at least 0.40
y_test_pred = best_svm.predict(X_test_feats)
test_accuracy = np.mean(y_test == y_test_pred)
print(test_accuracy)
```

0.48

```
[22]: # An important way to gain intuition about how an algorithm works is to
# visualize the mistakes that it makes. In this visualization, we show examples
# of images that are misclassified by our current system. The first column
# shows images that our system labeled as "plane" but whose true label is
# something other than "plane".

examples_per_class = 8
classes = ['plane', 'car', 'bird', 'cat', 'deer', 'dog', 'frog', 'horse', 'ship', 'truck']
for cls, cls_name in enumerate(classes):
    idxs = np.where((y_test != cls) & (y_test_pred == cls))[0]
    idxs = np.random.choice(idxs, examples_per_class, replace=False)
    for i, idx in enumerate(idxs):
        plt.subplot(examples_per_class, len(classes), i * len(classes) + cls + 1)
        plt.imshow(X_test[idx].astype('uint8'))
        plt.axis('off')
        if i == 0:
            plt.title(cls_name)
plt.show()
```



1.3.1 Inline question 1:

Describe the misclassification results that you see. Do they make sense?

Your Answer :

Yes.

- The classification results are definitely better off the ones we obtained when we trained SVM on raw pixels.
- Since the classification is based on image features and color histogram, we see the misclassification results very close feature-wise. For example, the dog classification results at least contain animals like cats, horses or frogs which could be because these classes have some features in common like legs and overall appearance. Similarly the deer, birds and horses are classified as one for all the same reasons. The classifier no longer significantly classifies because of just the backgrounds of images (which was the case before).
- We can also see that the classifier faces the challenges we talked about in class such as Intra-class variation, rotation or viewpoint variation. For example, we can see a brown and a white

horse classified as a dog and as a frog respectively even if their positions are similar. On the same lines a brown and white horse (again) are classified in the bird class even when they are facing in opposite directions.

1.4 Neural Network on image features

Earlier in this assignment we saw that training a two-layer neural network on raw pixels achieved better classification performance than linear classifiers on raw pixels. In this notebook we have seen that linear classifiers on image features outperform linear classifiers on raw pixels.

For completeness, we should also try training a neural network on image features. This approach should outperform all previous approaches: you should easily be able to achieve over 55% classification accuracy on the test set; our best model achieves about 60% classification accuracy.

```
[8]: # Preprocessing: Remove the bias dimension  
# Make sure to run this cell only ONCE  
print(X_train_feats.shape)  
X_train_feats = X_train_feats[:, :-1]  
X_val_feats = X_val_feats[:, :-1]  
X_test_feats = X_test_feats[:, :-1]  
  
print(X_train_feats.shape)
```

```
(49000, 155)  
(49000, 154)
```

```
[23]: from cs231n.data_utils import get_CIFAR10_data  
data = get_CIFAR10_data()  
for k, v in list(data.items()):  
    print('%s: ' % k, v.shape)  
  
# Aligning data dict according to the feature space  
data['X_train'] = X_train_feats  
data['y_train'] = y_train  
data['X_val'] = X_val_feats  
data['y_val'] = y_val  
data['X_test'] = X_test_feats  
data['y_test'] = y_test  
print("\n")  
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,))
```

```

('X_train: ', (49000, 154))
('y_train: ', (49000,))
('X_val: ', (1000, 154))
('y_val: ', (1000,))
('X_test: ', (1000, 154))
('y_test: ', (1000,))

```

```

[19]: from cs231n.classifiers.fc_net import TwoLayerNet
      from cs231n.solver import Solver

input_dim = X_train_feats.shape[1]
hidden_dim = 500
num_classes = 10

# net = TwoLayerNet(input_dim, hidden_dim, num_classes)
best_net = None
best_val = -1
best_model = None
results = {}

#####
# TODO: Train a two-layer neural network on image features. You may want to #
# cross-validate various parameters as in previous sections. Store your best #
# model in the best_net variable.                                           #
#####
# *****START OF YOUR CODE (DO NOT DELETE/MODIFY THIS LINE)*****

# Similar to the two_layer_net we train the NN here
learning_rates = [1e-1, 2e-1, 3e-1]
regularization_strengths = [1e-5, 1e-6, 1e-7]
epochs = [10, 20]
hidden_layer_sizes = [300, 500, 600]

for eachLR in learning_rates:
    for eachRegStr in regularization_strengths:
        for eachHidden in hidden_layer_sizes:
            for eachEpoch in epochs:

                model = TwoLayerNet(input_dim, hidden_dim=eachHidden, num_classes=10)
                net = Solver(model, data, update_rule='sgd', optim_config={
                    'learning_rate':eachLR}, lr_decay=0.95,
                ↪num_epochs=eachEpoch,
                    batch_size=200, print_every=-1, verbose=False)

                net.train()

```


[illegible]

[illegible]

```
[21]: # Run your best neural net classifier on the test set. You should be able
      # to get more than 55% accuracy.
```

```
y_test_pred = np.argmax(best_model.loss(data['X_test']), axis=1)
test_acc = (y_test_pred == data['y_test']).mean()
print(test_acc)
```

0.582