Deep Learning

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1 Neural Networks & Deep Learning 神经网络和深度学习

1.1 Building your Deep Neural Network: Step by Step(第四周作业)

1.1.1 Outline of the Assignment

- 双隐藏层和 L 层神经网络模型的参数初始化
- 做前向传播
 - 计算正向传播的 LINEAR 部分,线性部分即 Z=WX+b 这部分,输出部分就是 A, 就是将线性部分的结果输入到激活函数所产生的结果。
 - 采用 RELU 或者 sigmoid 激活函数计算结果值
 - 联合上述两个步骤,进行前向传播操作[LINEAR->ACTIVATION]
 - 对输出层之前的 L-1 层,做 L-1 次的前向传播 [LINEAR->RELU] ,并将结果输出到第 L 层 [LINEAR->SIGMOID]。所以在前面 L-1 层的激活函数是 RELU,在输出层的激活函数是 sigmoid。
- 计算损失函数
- 做后向传播操作
 - 计算神经网络反向传播的 LINEAR 部分
 - 计算激活函数 (RELU 或者 sigmoid) 的梯度
 - 结合前面两个步骤,产生一个新的后向函数 [LINEAR->ACTIVATION]
- 更新参数

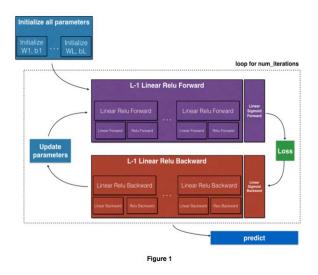


图 1: 流程图

1.1.2 L-layer Neural Network

对于 L 层模型:

- 模型结构: [LINEAR -> RELU] × (L-1) -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID。所以 L-1 层是需要用到 ReLU 激活函数的。输出层用的是 sigmoid 函数。
- 权重矩阵采用仍旧是随机化初始化的方式: np.random.rand(shape) * 0.01
- 偏移矩阵仍旧是 0 矩阵进行处初始化: np.zeros(shape).
- 我们将每层的神经元数量 n[l] 信息进行存储,layer_dims。例如在平面数据分类模型中 layer_dims 的值是 [2,4,1],其中输入层的神经元个数是 2,隐藏层的神经元个数是 4,输出层的神经元个数是 1。对应的 W1 尺寸 = (4,2), b1 尺寸 = (4,1), W2 尺寸 = (1,4), b2 尺寸 = (1,1)。

GRADED FUNCTION: initialize parameters deep

```
for 1 in range(1, L):
    ### START CODE HERE ### (~ 2 lines of code)
    parameters['W' + str(1)] = np.random.randn(layer_dims[1],layer_dims[1-1])*0.01
    parameters['b' + str(1)] = np.zeros((layer_dims[1],1))
### END CODE HERE ###
```

图 2: 初始化 W, b

1.1.3 Forward propagation module

线性传播部分:

GRADED FUNCTION: linear forward

```
### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 1 line of code)
Z = np.dot(W,A)+b
### END CODE HERE ###
```

图 3: Z 的计算

激活部分:

运用两个激活函数:

Sigmoid. 在这个步骤我们需要两个结果,一个是激活函数的结果值,另一个是包含"Z"的"cache"值,这个我们在后向传播过程需要用到。A, activation_cache = sigmoid(Z)

ReLU.A=RELU(Z)=max(0,Z). 同样结果值有两部分,其一是激活函数结果值 "A" ,另一个是包含 "Z" 的 "cache" 值。A, activation cache = relu(Z)

(a) 相邻两层的激活实现

GRADED FUNCTION: linear_activation_forward

```
if activation == "sigmoid":
    # Inputs: "A_prev, W, b". Outputs: "A, activation_cache".
    ### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
    Z, linear_cache = linear_forward(A_prev,W,b)
    A, activation_cache = sigmoid(Z)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

elif activation == "relu":
    # Inputs: "A_prev, W, b". Outputs: "A, activation_cache".
    ### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
    Z, linear_cache = linear_forward(A_prev,W,b)
    A, activation_cache = relu(Z)
    ### END CODE HERE ###
```

图 4: 激活函数

(b)L-Layer Model (L 层模型)

那么对于 L 层的神经网络,激活函数为 RELU 的 linear_activation_forward 需要重复 L-1 次,而最后的输出层采用的参数为 SIGMOID 的 linear_activation_forward 。

GRADED FUNCTION: $L_{model_forward}$

 $[LINEAR -> RELU] \times (L-1) -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID model$

```
# Implement [LINEAR -> RELU]*(L-1). Add "cache" to the "caches" list.
for 1 in range(1, L):
    A_prev = A
    ### START CODE HERE ### (* 2 lines of code)
    A, cache = linear_activation_forward(A_prev,parameters['W' + str(1)],parameters['b'+str(1)],activation = "relu")
    caches.append(cache)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

# Implement LINEAR -> SIGMOID. Add "cache" to the "caches" list.
### START CODE HERE ### (* 2 lines of code)
AL, cache = linear_activation_forward(A,parameters['W'+str(L)],parameters['b'+str(L)],activation = "sigmoid")
    caches.append(cache)
### END CODE HERE ###
assert(AL.shape == (1,X.shape[1]))
return AL, caches
```

图 5: L 层前向传播

1.1.4 Cost function

```
m = Y.shape[1]

# Compute loss from aL and y.
### START CODE HERE ### (* 1 lines of code)
cost = -(1/m)*np.sum(np.multiply(Y,np.log(AL))+np.multiply((1-Y),np.log(1-AL)))
### END CODE HERE ###

cost = np.squeeze(cost)  # To make sure your cost's shape is what we expect (e.g. this turns [[17]] into 17).
assert(cost.shape == ())
return cost
```

图 6: 代价函数

1.1.5 Backward propagation module

后向传播是为了计算各个参数梯度, 其模型如下:

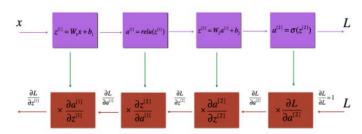


Figure 3: Forward and Backward propagation for LINEAR->RELU->LINEAR->SIGMOID

The purple blocks represent the forward propagation, and the red blocks represent the backward propagation.

图 7: 后向传播

和之前的前向传播类似,后向传播模块的建立分以下三个步骤:

- 后向 LINEAR (Linear backward)
- ReLU 或者 sigmoid 激活函数的后向 LINEAR -> ACTIVATION
- [LINEAR -> RELU]× (L-1) -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID backward (whole model)

后向 Linear

三个输出 $(dW^{[l]}, db^{[l]}, dA^{[l]})$ 可以通过输入 $dZ^{[l]}$ 计算获得。公式如下:

$$dW^{[l]} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W^{[l]}} = \frac{1}{m} dZ^{[l]} A^{[l-1]T}$$

$$db^{[l]} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b^{[l]}} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} dZ^{[l](i)}$$

$$dA^{[l-1]} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A^{[l-1]}} = W^{[l]T} dZ^{[l]}$$

图 8: 后向传播公式

GRADED FUNCTION: linear_backward

```
A_prev, W, b = cache
m = A_prev.shape[1]

### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 3 lines of code)
dW = (1/m)*np.dot(dZ,A_prev.T)
db = (1/m)*np.sum(dZ,axis=1,keepdims=True)
dA_prev = np.dot(W.T,dZ)

### END CODE HERE ###

assert (dA_prev.shape == A_prev.shape)
assert (dW.shape == W.shape)
assert (db.shape == b.shape)

return dA_prev, dW, db
```

图 9: 后向传播公式

(a)Linear-Activation backward

对于 sigmoid 函数,可以定义两个函数:

sigmoid_backward: 用以计算 SIGMOID 单元: dZ = sigmoid_backward(dA, activation_cache) 其用到的 cache 值是 Z 值

relu_backward: 用以计算 RELU 的 backward propagation: $dZ = relu_backward(dA, activation_cache)$ 对于 g(.) 的激活函数:

sigmoid_backward 和 relu_backward 的计算如下: $dZ^{[l]} = dA^{[l]} * g'(Z^{[l]})$

GRADED FUNCTION: $linear_activation_backward$

```
linear_cache, activation_cache = cache

if activation == "relu":
    ### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
    dZ = relu_backward(dA, activation_cache)
    dA_prev, dW, db = linear_backward(dZ, linear_cache)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

elif activation == "sigmoid":
    ### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
    dZ = sigmoid_backward(dA, activation_cache)
    dA_prev, dW, db = linear_backward(dZ, linear_cache)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

return dA_prev, dW, db
```

图 10: 线性激活函数反向传播

(b)L-Model Backward

对整个神经网络做后向传播,定义函数为 $L_{model_forward}$ 。在每次的迭代过程中,我们都将 cache 值 =(X,W,b, z) 保留,用以后向模块中梯度的计算。在 $L_{model_forward}$ 中,我们是重复了 L 次上述的步骤。

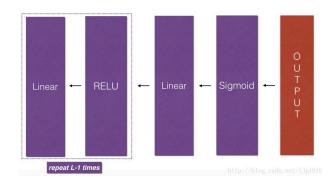


图 11: L 层反向传播

后向传播初始化:

对于后向传播,我们知道前向传播的输出是 $A^{[L]}=\sigma(Z^{[L]})$,我们需要计算 $dAL=\frac{\partial L}{\partial A^{[L]}}$,我们用以下的公式表示: dAL=- (np.divide(Y, AL) - np.divide(1 - Y, 1 - AL)) derivative of cost with respect to AL

之后,我们可以用这个后向激活的梯度 dAL 进行向后传播。再从 dAL 计算 LINEAR->SIGMOID 的后向传播结果。对于 LINEAR->RELU backward 函数,我们可以采用 for 循环来处理这 L-1 次操作。在此期间,我们要存储 dA, dW, db,本文用 grads 字典来存储: $grads[``dW'' + str(l)] = dW^{[l]}$

例如, 对于 l=3,则 $dW^{[l]}$ 以 grads["dW3"] 形式存储。

模型如下: [LINEAR->RELU] \times (L-1) -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID GRADED FUNCTION: L model backward

```
# Initializing the backpropagation
### START CODE HERE ### (1 line of code)
dAL = - (np.divide(Y, AL) - np.divide(1 - Y, 1 - AL))
### END CODE HERE ###

# Lth layer (SIGMOID -> LINEAR) gradients. Inputs: "AL, Y, caches". Outputs: "grads["dAL"], grads["dWL"], grads["dl
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
current_cache = caches[L-1]
grads["dA" + str(L)], grads["dW" + str(L)], grads["db" + str(L)] = linear_activation_backward(dAL, current_cache, approx. 2 lines)
for l in reversed(range(L-1)):
    #! th layer: (RELU -> LINEAR) gradients.
    # Inputs: "grads["dA" + str(1 + 2)], caches". Outputs: "grads["dA" + str(1 + 1)] , grads["dW" + str(1 + 1)] , fraction current_cache = caches[1]
dA_prev_temp, dW_temp, db_temp = linear_activation_backward(grads["dA" + str(1 + 2)], current_cache, activation
grads["dA" + str(1 + 1)] = dA_prev_temp
grads["dA" + str(1 + 1)] = dA_prev_temp
grads["dW" + str(1 + 1)] = dA_prev_temp
grads["db" + str(1 + 1)] = db_temp
### END CODE HERE ###
return grads

return grads
```

图 12: L 层反向传播模型

Update Parameters

采用梯度下降进行参数的更新: $W^{[l]}=W^{[l]}-\alpha dW^{[l]}\ b^{[l]}=b^{[l]}-\alpha db^{[l]}$

```
L = len(parameters) // 2 # number of layers in the neural network

# Update rule for each parameter. Use a for loop.
### START CODE HERE ### (~ 3 lines of code)
for 1 in range(L):
    parameters["W"+str(l+1)]=parameters["W"+str(l+1)]-learning_rate*grads["dW" + str(l+1)]
    parameters["b"+str(l+1)]=parameters["b"+str(l+1)]-learning_rate*grads["db" + str(l+1)]
### END CODE HERE ###
return parameters
```

图 13: 更新

1.1.6 General methodogy 通用模型

As usual you will follow the Deep Learning methodology to build the model:

- Initialize parameters / Define hyperparameters
- Loop for num iterations:
 - Forward propagation
 - Compute cost function
 - Backward propagation
 - Update parameters (using parameters, and grads from backprop)
- Use trained parameters to predict labels

lement those two models!

2 Improve Deep Neural Networks

2.1 Initialization

一个好的初始化参数能够加速梯度下降的收敛,同时能够以较大几率使得梯度下降收敛到较低的训练(和泛化)误差。

2.1.1 Zero initialization 全零初始化

parameters = initialize_parameters_zeros(layers_dims)

```
L = len(layers_dims)  # number of layers in the network

for l in range(1, L):
    ### START CODE HERE ### (~ 2 lines of code)
    parameters['W' + str(1)] = np.zeros((layers_dims[1],layers_dims[1-1]))
    parameters['D' + str(1)] = np.zeros((layers_dims[1],1))
    ### END CODE HERE ###

return parameters
```

图 14: 全零初始化

效果很差,整个迭代过程损失函数并没有下降。该参数下的模型对于训练集和测试集的预测结果全为 0。

该模型预测结果是没有边界的,因为都是预测结果都是一类,都是 0。这种全 0 的参数初始化方式就无法打破网络的对称。这意味着每层中的每个神经元学习内容都是相同的。当每层神经元个数 =1,即 $n^{[l]}=1$,那么该神经网络的性能便退化成线性分类器,比如逻辑回归。

所以,对于参数 $W^{[l]}$,我们用进行随机初始化,以打破神经网络的对称性。对于参数 $b^{[l]}$ 是可以初始化为 0 的。

2.1.2 Random initialization 随机初始化

当权重矩阵随机初始化后,每个神经元学习将从不同输入函数学习到不同东西。下面我们随机初始 化权重矩阵,但是初始化值设置为较大,下面代码中我们乘以 10。

Use np.random.randn(..,..) * 10 for weights and np.zeros((..,..)) for biases. We are using a fixed np.random.seed(..) to make sure your "random" weights match ours.

```
np.random.seed(3)  # This seed makes sure your "random" numbers will be the as
parameters = {
    L = len(layers_dims)  # integer representing the number of layers

for l in range(1, L):
    ### START CODE HERE ### (= 2 lines of code)
    parameters['W' + str(l)] = np.random.randn(layers_dims[1],layers_dims[1-1])*10
    parameters['b' + str(l)] = np.zeros((layers_dims[1],l))
    ### END CODE HERE ###

return parameters
```

图 15: 随机初始化

分析:

起始的代价函数很大,这是由于我们采用的随机初始化的权重矩阵值较大,导致有些样本对于激活函数(sigmoid,输出层)输出结果值很靠近 0 或者 1。当输出的结果值不同于真实值,其代价很大,比如 $log(a^{[3]}) = log(0)$,其代价是无穷大的。

过大或者过小的权重矩阵将导致梯度的暴涨或者快速衰减,这都会减缓优化算法获取最优结果的速度。为此,我们需要控制随机化的权重矩阵大小。

2.1.3 He initialization He 初始化

He 初始化方式(He et al., 2015.)正是为解决上面问题而提出的。这种初始化方式是对随机初始化的权重矩阵乘以 sqrt(2./layers_dims[l-1]))。另一种相识的初始化方式 Xavier 方式,是对权重矩阵乘以 sqrt(1./layers_dims[l-1])。

```
np.random.seed(3)
parameters = {}
L = len(layers_dims) - 1 # integer representing the number of layers

for 1 in range(1, L + 1):
    ### START CODE HERE ### (* 2 lines of code)
    parameters('\(^{\text{N}'}\) + str(1)] = np.random.randn(layers_dims[1],layers_dims[1-1])*np.sqrt(2./layers_dims[1-1])
    ### END CODE HERE ###

return parameters
```

图 16: He 初始化

总结:

	Model	Train accuracy	Problem/Comment
3-layer NN	with zeros initialization	50%	fails to break symmetry
r NN with la	rge random initialization	83%	too large weights
3-layer	NN with He initialization	99%	recommended method

图 17: 总结

2.2 Regularization 正则化

对于 L2 正则化模型,需要用到的参数是 lambd 值。该正则化模型需要用到 compute_cost_with_regularization() 和 backward_propagation_with_regularization()。

而对于 dropout 模型则需要设置 keep_prob 值作为神经元节点的概率开关。需要用到的函数是 forward_propagation_with_dropout() 和 backward_propagation_with_dropout()。

```
for i in range(0, num_iterations):
    # Forward propagation: LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID.
    if keep_prob == 1:
       a3, cache = forward_propagation(X, parameters)
    elif keep prob < 1:
       a3, cache = forward_propagation_with_dropout(X, parameters, keep_prob)
    # Cost function
   if lambd == 0:
       cost = compute_cost(a3, Y)
       cost = compute_cost_with_regularization(a3, Y, parameters, lambd)
    # Backward propagation.
                                        # it is possible to use both L2 regularization and
   assert(lambd==0 or keep_prob==1)
                                        # but this assignment will only explore one at a
    if lambd == 0 and keep_prob == 1:
       grads = backward_propagation(X, Y, cache)
    elif lambd != 0:
       grads = backward_propagation_with_regularization(X, Y, cache, lambd)
    elif keep_prob < 1:
       grads = backward_propagation_with_dropout(X, Y, cache, keep_prob)
```

图 18: 正则化

2.2.1 L2 Regularization

公式:

$$J = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(y^{(i)} \log \left(a^{[L](i)} \right) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log \left(1 - a^{[L](i)} \right) \right)$$

$$J_{regularized} = \underbrace{-\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left(y^{(i)} \log \left(a^{[L](i)} \right) + (1-y^{(i)}) \log \left(1-a^{[L](i)} \right) \right)}_{\text{cross-entropy cost}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{m} \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_{l} \sum_{k} \sum_{j} W_{k,j}^{[l]2}}_{\text{L2 regularization cost}}$$

图 19: 表达式

定义 compute_cost_with_regularization() 函数表示公式 (2) 的代价函数。 $\sum_k \sum_j W_{k,j}^{[l]2}$ 的计算,我们可以采用:np.sum(np.square(Wl))

由于我们有三个 W 参数 $W^{[1]},W^{[2]}$ and $W^{[3]},$ 所以需要将其分别计算,求和,再乘以 $(1/m)*(\lambda/2)$ 。

```
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
L2_regularization_cost = (np.sum(np.square(W1))+np.sum(np.square(W2))+np.sum(np.square(W3)))*(lambd/(2*m))
### END CODER HERE ###
cost = cross_entropy_cost + L2_regularization_cost
```

图 20: L2

由于我们修改了代价函数,所以后向传播也需要做修改。同理,我们也仅仅需要修改 dW1, dW2 and dW3。对于这三者,每一项都需要加入正则项的梯度 $\frac{d}{dW}(\frac{1}{2}\frac{\lambda}{m}W^2)=\frac{\lambda}{m}W$ 。

```
m = X.shape[1]
(Z1, A1, W1, b1, Z2, A2, W2, b2, Z3, A3, W3, b3) = cache
dz3 = A3 - Y
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
dW3 = 1./m * np.dot(dZ3, A2.T) + lambd/m*W3
### END CODE HERE ###
db3 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ3, axis=1, keepdims = True)
dA2 = np.dot(W3.T, dZ3)
dZ2 = np.multiply(dA2, np.int64(A2 > 0))
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
dW2 = 1./m * np.dot(dZ2, A1.T) + lambd/m*W2
### END CODE HERE ###
db2 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ2, axis=1, keepdims = True)
dA1 = np.dot(W2.T, dZ2)
dZ1 = np.multiply(dA1, np.int64(A1 > 0))
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
dWl = 1./m * np.dot(dZl, X.T) + lambd/m*Wl ### END CODE HERE ###
db1 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ1, axis=1, keepdims = True)
return gradients
```

图 21: L2

设置 λ 的值: parameters = model(train_X, train_Y, lambd = 0.7) 讨论:

 λ 的值是可以通过对 dev set 的调整获取最优值。L2 正则使得边界更加平滑,但是如果 λ 过大,会产生过度平滑,退化成一个线性回归,从而带来高偏差问题。L2 正则化是基于较小的权值比较大的权值模型更简单这一假设。通过正则化,我们在代价函数中引入权重的平方值,这导致在反向传播时候,权重变得更小。

2.2.2 Dropout Regularization

dropout 正则的前向传播:

 $d^{[1]}$ 和 $a^{[1]}$ 尺寸一致,所以 np.random.rand() 进行向量的初始化。对于矩阵 $D^{[1]}=[d^{1}d^{[1](2)}...d^{[1](m)}]$ 尺寸和 $A^{[1]}$ 一致,初始化方式类似。

根据 keep_prob 对 $D^{[1]}$ 矩阵做 0-1 划分。方式如 X=(X<0.5),其实这是产生一个 0-1 矩阵 mask,用于神经元节点的筛选。 $A^{[1]}$ to $A^{[1]}*D^{[1]}$ 进行神经元节点的筛选操作。 $A^{[1]}$ /keep_prob,使得前后的期望值一致(inverted dropout)

```
# LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> SIGMOID
Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
A1 = relu(Z1)
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 4 lines)
                                                      # Steps 1-4 below correspond to the Steps 1-
D1 = np.random.rand(A1.shape[0],A1.shape[1])
                                                                                             # Step 1:
                                                           # Step 2: convert entries of D1 to 0 or
D1 = (D1<keep_prob)
A1 = A1*D1
                                                        # Step 3: shut down some neurons of Al
A1 = A1/keep_prob
### END CODE HERE ###
                                                               # Step 4: scale the value of neurons
Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2

A2 = relu(Z2)
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 4 lines)
D2 = np.random.rand(A2.shape[0],A2.shape[1])
                                                                                             # Step 1:
D2 = (D2<keep_prob)
                                                               # Step 2: convert entries of D2 to 0
A2 = A2*D2
A2 = A2/keep_prob
                                                        # Step 3: shut down some neurons of A2
                                                               # Step 4: scale the value of neurons
### END CODE HERE ###
Z3 = np.dot(W3, A2) + b3
A3 = sigmoid(Z3)
cache = (Z1, D1, A1, W1, b1, Z2, D2, A2, W2, b2, Z3, A3, W3, b3)
return A3, cache
```

图 22: dropout 正则化前向传播

dropout 正则的后向传播:

前向传播过程中 A1 用到的 $D^{[1]}$,在后向传播过程将 $D^{[1]}$ 应用到 dA1 即可。前向传播过程将 A1 除以 keep_prob ,以保持期望值。在后向传播过程 dA1 也做如此操作,即 dA1 / keep_prob 。这是由于 $A^{[1]}$ 被 keep_prob 进行一定程度放大,则其导数 $A^{[1]}$ 也需要做同比例的操作。

```
d23 = A3 - Y
dW3 = 1./m * np.dot(dZ3, A2.T)
db3 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ3, axis=1, keepdims = True)
dA2 = np.dot(W3.T, dZ3)

### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
dA2 = dA2*D2  # Step 1: Apply mask D2 to shut down the same neurons as during the forward p
dA2 = dA2/Keep_prob  # Step 2: Scale the value of neurons that haven't been shut down

### END CODE HERE ###
dZ2 = np.multiply(dA2, np.int64(A2 > 0))
dW2 = 1./m * np.dot(dZ2, A1.T)
db2 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ2, axis=1, keepdims = True)

dA1 = np.dot(W2.T, dZ2)

### START CODE HERE ### (≈ 2 lines of code)
dA1 = dA1*D1  # Step 1: Apply mask D1 to shut down the same neurons as during the forward p
dA1 = dA1/Keep_prob  # Step 2: Scale the value of neurons that haven't been shut down

### END CODE HERE ###
dZ1 = np.multiply(dA1, np.int64(A1 > 0))
dW1 = 1./m * np.dot(dZ1, X.T)
db1 = 1./m * np.sum(dZ1, axis=1, keepdims = True)
```

图 23: dropout 正则化后向传播

讨论:

一个常见的错误是,将 dropout 同时用于训练集和测试集,记住一点: dropout 仅仅用于训练集! 结论:

model	train accuracy	test accuracy
3-layer NN without regularization	95%	91.5%
3-layer NN with L2-regularization	94%	93%
3-layer NN with dropout	93%	95%

图 24: 结论

2.3 Gradient Checking

在神经网络计算过程中,对后向传播的梯度进行校验,确保其计算无误。至于,前向传播,由于相对简单,所以,一般不会出错,在前向传播的基础上利用计算出来的代价 J 我们可以进行后向梯度的校验。

2.3.1 1-dimensional gradient checking 一维梯度校验

计算梯度近似值 "gradapprox": $gradapprox = \frac{J^+ - J^-}{2\xi}$ 计算两者 difference: $difference = \frac{||grad - gradapprox||_2}{||gradapprox||_2}$ 范数的计算可以用 np.linalg.norm(...)。当 difference 足够小 ($< 10^{-7}$),则可以视为梯度校验通过。

```
# Compute gradapprox using left side of formula (1). epsilon is small enough, you don't need ### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 5 lines)
thetaplus = theta+epsilon
                                                                       # Step 1
thetaminus = theta-epsilon
                                                                       # Step 2
J_plus = forward_propagation(thetaplus,x)
J_minus = forward_propagation(thetaminus,x)
                                                                                                # Step 3
                                                                                                 # Step 4
gradapprox = (J_plus-J_minus)/(2*epsilon)
### END CODE HERE ###
                                                                                       # Step 5
# Check if gradapprox is close enough to the output of backward_propagation()
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
grad = backward_propagation(x,theta)
### END CODE HERE ###
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
numerator = np.linalg.norm(grad-gradapprox)
denominator = np.linalg.norm(grad)+ np.linalg.norm(gradapprox)
difference = numerator/denominator # Step 3'
### END CODE HERE ###
print ("The gradient is correct!")
else:
     print ("The gradient is wrong!")
return difference
```

图 25: 一维梯度校验

2.3.2 N-dimensional gradient checking n 维梯度校验

所以,要注意看 difference 值是否和阈值相距很大。本文为何就差那么一些,导致需要修改 epsilon,可能是由于代价函数在局部存在毛刺,导致估算值和后向梯度计算结果,存在超于阈值的偏差。另外,relu

```
# Compute gradapprox
for i in range(num_parameters):
     # "_" is used because the function you have to outputs two parameters but we only care about 
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 3 lines)
thetaplus = np.copy(parameters_values)  # Step 1
thetaplus[i][0] = thetaplus[i][0]+epsilon  # Step 2
J_plus[i], _ = forward_propagation_n(X, Y, vector_to_dictionary(thetaplus))
### END CODE HERE ###
      # Compute J_minus[i]. Inputs: "parameters_values, epsilon". Output = "J_minus[i]".
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 3 lines)
      thetaminus = np.copy(parameters_values)
     thetaminus[i][0] = thetaminus[i][0]-epsilon  # Step 2
J_minus[i], _ = forward_propagation_n(X, Y, vector_to_dictionary(thetaplus))
      J_minus[i], _ = forwa
### END CODE HERE ###
     # Compute gradapprox[i]
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
     gradapprox[i] = (J_plus[i]-J_minus[i])/(2*epsilon)
### END CODE HERE ###
# Compare gradapprox to backward propagation gradients by computing difference.
### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 1 line)
numerator = np.linalg.norm(grad-gradapprox)
                                                                                                                         # Step 1'
denominator = np.linalg.norm(grad)+ np.linalg.norm(gradapprox)
difference = numerator/denominator
                                                                                                           # Step 3'
### END CODE HERE ###
   #注意这里的epsilon值的问题,如果1e-6是可以的,是的梯度校验通过,epsilon值越小,反而和导数越不一致
if difference > 1e-7:
     print ("\033[93m" + "There is a mistake in the backward propagation! difference = " + str(di
     print ("\033[92m" + "Your backward propagation works perfectly fine! difference = " + str(di
return difference
```

图 26: n 维梯度校验

的导数在 0 处有歧义,也可能导致此处的不够准确。

2.4 Optimization Methods

2.4.1 Gradient Descent 梯度下降法

梯度下降是每次处理完 m 个样本后对参数进行一次更新操作,也叫做 Batch Gradient Descent。对于 L 层模型,梯度下降法对于各层参数的更新: l=1,...L。

$$W^{[l]} = W^{[l]} - \alpha dW^{[l]}$$
$$b^{[l]} = b^{[l]} - \alpha db^{[l]}$$

update parameters with gd:

```
L = len(parameters) // 2 # number of layers in the neural networks

# Update rule for each parameter
for 1 in range(L):

### START CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
parameters["W" + str(1+1)] = parameters["W" + str(1+1)]-learning_rate*grads['dW' + str(1+1)]
parameters["b" + str(1+1)] = parameters["b" + str(1+1)]-learning_rate*grads['db' + str(1+1)]
### END CODE HERE ###

return parameters
```

图 27: Gradient Descent

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) 随机梯度下降法。这等同于 mini-batch 中每个 mini-batch 只有一个样本的梯度下降法。此时,梯度下降的更新法则就变成,每个样本都要计算一次,而不是此前的对整个样本集计算一次。

. (Batch) Gradient Descent:

```
X = data_input
  Y = labels
  parameters = initialize_parameters(layers_dims)
  for i in range(0, num_iterations):
      # Forward propagation
      a, caches = forward_propagation(X, parameters)
      # Compute cost.
     cost = compute_cost(a, Y)
      # Backward propagation.
     grads = backward_propagation(a, caches, parameters)
      # Update parameters.
      parameters = update_parameters(parameters, grads)
· Stochastic Gradient Descent:
```

```
X = data_input
Y = labels
parameters = initialize_parameters(layers_dims)
for i in range(0, num_iterations):
   for j in range(0, m):
        # Forward propagation
       a, caches = forward_propagation(X[:,j], parameters)
        # Compute cost
       cost = compute_cost(a, Y[:,j])
        # Backward propagation
        grads = backward_propagation(a, caches, parameters)
        # Update parameters.
        parameters = update_parameters(parameters, grads)
```

图 28: SGD vs GD

当训练集很大时,这种方法可以明显提高运行速度,但是参数会沿着最小方向震荡,而不是平滑地 收敛。

注意 SGD 共需要三个循环:

- 最外层的迭代次数
- m 个训练样本
- 每层参数的更新 $((W^{[l]}, b^{[l]})to(W^{[L]}, b^{[L]}))$

谨记:

- gradient descent, mini-batch gradient descent 和 stochastic gradient descent 之间的区别在于梯度 更新所用到的样本数据量。
- 超参数学习率 是需要调整获取到
- mini-batch 的尺寸也是调整获取到的,所以也是一个超参数。一般情况下这种方式比另外两者更好, 特别是当训练集特别大的时候。

2.4.2 Mini-Batch 梯度下降

There are two steps:

• Shuffle (洗牌) X 和 Y 的随机要一致,否则 Y 值不能与 X 匹配

当样本数无法被 mini_batch_size 整除的时候,最后一个 mini-batch<mini_batch_size=64。[s] 表示 s 向下取整(Python 中实现: math.floor(s))。

最后一个 min-batch 中样本数量 = (m-mini_batch_size × m/mini_batch_size)。

图 29: Mini-Batch

一般 mini-batch size 的取值是 2ⁿ, 如 16, 32, 64, 128 等。

2.4.3 Momentum 动量梯度下降法

由于 min-batch 梯度下降法是在看过训练集的一部分子数据集之后,就开始了参数的更新,那么就会在参数更新过程中出现偏差震荡。采用动量梯度下降法可以减缓震荡的出现。momentum 方式是在参数更新时候,参考历史的参数值,以平滑参数的更新。

velocity 值初始化: initialize_velocity 在 Python 中是一个字典, 初始为 0 矩阵, 其尺寸与 grads 一致。

带 momentum 的参数更新, l 从 1 开始。:

$$\begin{cases} v_{dW}[l] = \beta v_{dW}[l] + (1 - \beta)dW^{[l]} \\ W^{[l]} = W^{[l]} - \alpha v_{dW}[l] \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} v_{db}[l] = \beta v_{db}[l] + (1 - \beta)db^{[l]} \\ b^{[l]} = b^{[l]} - \alpha v_{db}[l] \end{cases}$$

图 30: 参数更新

update_parameters_with_momentum 注意:

velocity 初始化为 zeros,所以算法需要迭代一定次数以建立起速度,实现每次迭代的 bigger steps。 当 $\beta=0$,则退化成标准的梯度下降法。

β 值的选取:

越大,历史梯度值引入到当前值的权重越大,更新就会越平滑。但是如果太大,则会导致更新平滑过度。一般取值在 0.8 到 0.999 之间,常取 0.9。可以通过尝试几个 β 值,然后看哪个值在降低 cost function J 效果最好,来获取最优值。

2.4.4 Adam 算法

$$\begin{cases} v_{dW}[l] = \beta_1 v_{dW}[l] + (1 - \beta_1) \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial W^{[l]}} \\ v_{dW}^{corrected} = \frac{v_{dW}[l]}{1 - (\beta_1)^l} \\ s_{dW}[l] = \beta_2 s_{dW}[l] + (1 - \beta_2) (\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial W^{[l]}})^2 \\ s_{dW}^{corrected} = \frac{s_{dW}[l]}{1 - (\beta_1)^l} \\ W^{[l]} = W^{[l]} - \alpha \frac{v_{dW}^{corrected}}{\sqrt{s_{dW}^{corrected}} + \varepsilon} \end{cases}$$

图 31: 公式

过程

```
# Perform Adam update on all parameters
for 1 in range(L):
    # Moving average of the gradients. Inputs: "v, grads, betal". Output: "v".
    ### $TART CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    v['dW" + str(1+1)] = betal*v['dW" + str(1+1)]+(1-betal)*grads['dW' + str(1+1)]
    ## END CODE HERE ###

# Compute bias-corrected first moment estimate. Inputs: "v, betal, t". Output: "v_corrected".
    ### $TART CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    v_corrected("dW" + str(1+1)] = v["db" + str(1+1)]/(1-np.power(betal,2))
    v_corrected("db" + str(1+1)] = v["db" + str(1+1)]/(1-np.power(betal,2))
    ## END CODE HERE ###

# Moving average of the squared gradients. Inputs: "s, grads, beta2". Output: "s".
    ### $TART CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    s["dW" + str(1+1)] = beta2*s["dW" + str(1+1)]+(1-beta2)*np.power(grads['dW' + str(1+1)],2)
    s["db" + str(1+1)] = beta2*s["db" + str(1+1)]+(1-beta2)*np.power(grads['db' + str(1+1)],2)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

# Compute bias-corrected second raw moment estimate. Inputs: "s, beta2, t". Output: "s_corrected".
    ### $TART CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    s_corrected("db" + str(1+1)] = s["db" + str(1+1)]/(1-beta2)
    s_corrected("db" + str(1+1)] = s["db" + str(1+1)]/(1-beta2)
    ### END CODE HERE ###

# Update parameters. Inputs: "parameters, learning_rate, v_corrected, s_corrected, epsilon". Output: "parameters
    ### $TART CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    parameters["b" + str(1+1)] = parameters["b" + str(1+1)] - learning_rate*v_corrected["db" + str(1+1)] /np.sqrt(s_coi
    ### END CODE HERE ### (approx. 2 lines)
    parameters["b" + str(1+1)] = parameters["b" + str(1+1)] - learning_rate*v_corrected["db" + str(1+1)] /np.sqrt(s_coi
    ### END CODE HERE ###

# CODE HERE ###

# CODE HERE ###

# POODE HE
```

图 32: 公式

2.4.5 总结

Momentum 一般都是有助于提升速度,但是当学习率较小,数据集相对简单的时候,其性能的优越性没有太明显。我们在优化算法中看到的那些较大的震荡是由于一些 minibatches 相对更加复杂所造成的。

从运行结果可以看出, Adam 算法比 mini-batch gradient descent 和 Momentum 都要显得优越。对于 model 如果在简单数据集上, 迭代次数更多的话, 这三种优化算法都会产生较好的结果, 但是我们也

可以看出, Adam 算法收敛得更快些。

Adam 算法的优点::

内存要求低 (尽管比 gradient descent 和 gradient descent with momentum 要高些) 一般微调超参数 就可以获得较好的结果 (除了 α)

optimization method	accuracy	cost shape	
Gradient descent	79.7%	oscillations	
Momentum	79.7%	oscillations	
Adam	94%	smoother	

图 33: 结论