

深度学习技术与应用(5)

Deep Learning: Techniques and Applications (5)

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本节内容

■ 神经网络训练优化方法

■ 卷积神经网络 之一

设待最小的函数为:f(x),即:求取 x 使 f(x) 最小:

$$\min_{x} f(x)$$
.

【带 Peano 余项的 Taylor 公式】设 f(x) 在 x_k 处有 n 阶导数,则存在 x_k 的一个邻域,对于该邻域中的任一点 x,成立:

$$f(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k) + \frac{f''(x_k)}{2!}(x - x_k)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_k)}{n!}(x - x_k)^n + o((x - x_n)^n)$$

余项 $o((x-x_n)^n)$ 为高阶无穷小。



设 x_k 为当前的极小值估计值,则在 x_k 邻域中的任一点 x 点做二阶泰勒展开,得到:

$$f(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k) + \frac{f''(x_k)}{2!}(x - x_k)^2$$

若在 x_k 邻域中的任一点 x 处能够取得最小值,即:f'(x) = 0 于是得:

$$f'(x_k) + f''(x_k)(x - x_k) = 0$$

于是得:

$$x = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$$

得到 x 的迭代更新规律为:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$$



将上式中的 x 推广至 N 维的情形 (下文中 x 表示 N 向量),设 x_k 为第 k 步时,与目标函数极小值的估计值所对应的 x,则在 x_k 处目标函数 f(x) 的二阶泰勒展开式为:

$$f(x) = f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k) \cdot (x - x_k) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x - x_k)^T \cdot \nabla^2 f(x_k) \cdot (x - x_k)$$

其中, ∇f 为 f 的梯度向量, $\nabla^2 f$ 为 Hessian 矩阵 :

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_N} \end{bmatrix}$$
 记为: g ,
$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_N} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_N \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_N \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_N^2} \end{bmatrix}$$
 记为: H

注:仅在上式中, x_i 表示 N 维向量 x 的第 i 维 x_i , x_i , x_i 。 x_i 。

所以上式变为:

$$f(x) = f(x_k) + g_k(x - x_k) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x - x_k)^T \cdot H_k \cdot (x - x_k)$$

其中, g_k 表示 $\nabla f(x_k)$, H_k 表示 $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$;

若在 x_k 邻域中的任一点 x 处能够取得最小值,即:f'(x) = 0 于是,对上式对 x 求导数,得:

$$g_k + H_k \cdot (x - x_k) = 0$$

${f z}_{H_k}$ 非奇异,则得到:

$$x = x_k - H_k^{-1} \cdot g_k$$

得到 x 的迭代更新规律为:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - H_k^{-1} \cdot g_k$$

$$d_k = -H_k^{-1} \cdot g_k$$
 被称为"牛顿方向".

阻尼牛顿法

- 当目标函数为二次函数时、Hessian 矩阵退化成一个常数矩阵、从任一初始点出发只需要一步迭代即可达到 f(x) 的极小点 x*, 这就是牛顿法的"二次收敛性"。
- 然而、牛顿法的迭代公式中、每步迭代都是固定长度、因此、并不一定能够收敛。对于非二次型目标函数、甚至可能会使函数值上升、导致计算失败。
- 为了克服这个问题,人们给牛顿法增加一个"步长因子"λ_k,且该步长因子满足:

$$\lambda_k = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\lambda \in \mathcal{R}} f(x_k + \lambda d_k)$$

- 其中,难点在于计算 $d_k = -H_k^{-1} \cdot g_k$.
- 迭代终止条件可以设定为: $\parallel g_k \parallel < \epsilon$



阻尼牛顿法

- **1** Initialize: k = 0; $x_k = \text{random number}$; $\epsilon > 0$;
- ② Calculate: g_k and H_k ;
- $\text{ If } \| g_k \| < \epsilon, \text{ then return } x_k; \\ \text{ else calculate } d_k = -H_k^{-1} \cdot g_k;$
- Calculate: $\lambda_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda \in \mathcal{R}} f(x_k + \lambda d_k)$
- **1** Iterate: k+=1; goto step 2;
 - 优点:利用目标函数的二阶导数,不但考虑了一阶方向性,且利用了二阶导数对变化趋势的预测能力;
 - 缺点:
 - 对目标函数的要求很高——要求二阶可导,且 Hessian 矩阵必须为正定矩阵;
 - 计算量大,需要求解 Hessian 矩阵的逆,计算复杂度为 $O(n^3)$ 级;

拟牛顿法的基本思想

基本思想:针对牛顿法存在的上述缺点,通过构造 Hessian 矩阵的近似矩阵的方法,对目标函数进行优化。希望该矩阵具有以下性质:

- 该矩阵应该能够具有逼近(模拟)目标函数二阶导数的特性;
- 该矩阵不必求取 Hessian 矩阵;
- 更不必求取 Hessian 矩阵的逆矩阵;
- $\frac{\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{r}}$ 该矩阵应该具备递推性质,即由 k 情况下的矩阵值,可以递推出 k+1 情况下的矩阵值。即:

$$\hat{H}_{k+1} = \hat{H}_k + \Delta \hat{H}_k$$

如果存在一个这样的矩阵 \hat{H}_k ,那么原始牛顿法的计算过程,将改为:

拟牛顿法的计算过程

如上所述,设 \hat{H} 为 Hessian 矩阵 H^{-1} 的同阶近似矩阵;

- Initialize: $k=0; x_k$ as random number; $\epsilon>0;$ \hat{H}_0 as positive definite and symmetric matrix;
- **2** Calculate: g_k ;
- Calculate $g_{k+1} = \nabla f(x_k)$, $\hat{H}_{k+1} = \hat{H}_k + \Delta \hat{H}_k$;
- **6** Calculate: $\lambda_{k+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\lambda \in \mathcal{R}} f(x_k + \lambda d_{k+1});$
- O Calculate: $x_{k+1} = x_k + \lambda_k d_{k+1}$;
- **1** Iterate: k+=1; goto step 2;

拟牛顿法的构造条件

在上述方法中,只有 \hat{H} 未知,因此,<mark>现在的关键是:如何构造 \hat{H} 。</mark> 先来分析一下 \hat{H}_{k+1} 应该满足的条件:

• $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$ 矩阵值,可以递推出 k+1 情况下的矩阵值。即:

$$\hat{H}_{k+1} = \hat{H}_k + \Delta \hat{H}_k$$

- ② 条件 2:由 $x_{k+1} = x_k + \lambda_k d_{k+1}$ 且 $d_{k+1} = -\hat{H}_{k+1} \cdot g_{k+1}$ 可知,为 了确保 x 的搜索方向稳定,最好保持 \hat{H}_{k+1} 为正定矩阵;
- 条件3 在数学上,必须满足"拟牛顿条件":



拟牛顿条件

设当前要优化的目标函数为 f(x),设已完成的迭代步骤为 k;需要推知 k+1 情况下的计算方法;

下面开始推导:

① 首先将 f(x) 在 x_{k+1} 点展开:

$$f(x) = f(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \cdot (x - x_{k+1})$$

+ $\frac{1}{2} \cdot (x - x_{k+1})^T \cdot \nabla^2 f(x_{k+1}) \cdot (x - x_{k+1})$

② 对两边关于 x 求导:

$$\nabla f(x) = \nabla f(x_{k+1}) + H_{k+1} \cdot (x - x_{k+1})$$

■ 在上式中, 取 x 为当前已经迭代到的值 x_k, 得到:

$$\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k+1}) = H_{k+1} \cdot (x_k - x_{k+1})$$

即:

$$g_{k+1} - g_k = H_{k+1} \cdot (x_{k+1} - x_k)$$

拟牛顿条件

另一种推导方法是,直接利用微分中值定理,直接写出:

$$\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k+1}) = H_{k+1} \cdot (x_k - x_{k+1})$$

也得到:

$$g_{k+1} - g_k = H_{k+1} \cdot (x_{k+1} - x_k)$$

为简化表示,设 $s_k = x_{k+1} - x_k, y_k = g_{k+1} - g_k$,则得到拟牛顿条件:

$$y_k = H_{k+1} \cdot s_k$$
 !! : $s_k = H_{k+1}^{-1} \cdot y_k$

设 B_{k+1} 为 Hessian 矩阵 H_{k+1} 的近似,设 \hat{H}_{k+1} 为 H_{k+1}^{-1} 的近似矩阵, 则:得到<mark>拟牛顿条件的惯用表示:</mark>

$$y_k = B_{k+1} \cdot s_k \quad \mathbf{II} : s_k = \hat{H}_{k+1} \cdot y_k$$

拟牛顿法

观察拟牛顿条件:

$$y_k = B_{k+1} \cdot s_k \quad \mathbf{II} : s_k = \hat{H}_{k+1} \cdot y_k$$

可知,在 y_k 与 s_k 已知的条件下:

- ullet 若保持 B_{k+1} 或 \hat{H}_{k+1} 为对称矩阵,则其中有 $\frac{n^2+n}{2}$ 个未知数,而 方程个数只有 k 个,所以满足条件的 B_{k+1} 或 \hat{H}_{k+1} 有无穷多个; 所以,一定有多种满足拟牛顿条件的近似方法;
- 这些方法要么是对 B_{k+1} 进行迭代修正,要么是对 \hat{H}_{k+1} 进行迭代 修正。

那么,如何来选择构造 Hessian 矩阵的近似矩阵?



由数学家 William C. Davidon 在 1959 年最早提出,后经 Roger Fletcher、 Michael J.D. Powell 在 1963 年完善,1991 年发表。

基本原理是,在前文分析的三个条件的限制下,对 \hat{H}_k 进行秩 2 修正:

$$\hat{H}_{k+1} = \hat{H}_k + \Delta \hat{H}_k$$

= $\hat{H}_k + \alpha_k u_k u_k^T + \beta_k v_k v_k^T$

其中, $\alpha_k, \beta_k \in \mathcal{R}; u_k, v_k \in \mathcal{R}^n$;由于 $u_k u_k^T$ 与 $v_k v_k^T$ 的秩均为 1,所以被称为"对 \hat{H}_k 进行秩 2 修正";

接下来,关键看如何求解 $\alpha_k, \beta_k, u_k, v_k$:

DFP 秩 2 修正的好处:

• 在 u_k 与 v_k 不为零, α_k , β_k 不为负的前提下,保证了 \hat{H}_{k+1} 矩阵的 正定特性。确保了对x稳定的调整方向:

以 u_k 为例: $z^T u_k u_k^T z = (u_k^T z)^T u_k^T z = ||u_k^T z|| > 0$; \Rightarrow 正定.

- ② $u_k u_k^T$ 与 $v_k v_k^T$ 均为对称矩阵,从而延续了 \hat{H}_{k+1} 的对称性;
- 当然,接下来还得让它必须满足"拟牛顿条件"。



由拟牛顿条件:

$$s_k = \hat{H}_{k+1} \cdot y_k$$

代入 \hat{H}_{k+1} 的秩 2 修正,得:

$$\begin{aligned} s_k &= (\hat{H}_k + \alpha_k u_k u_k^T + \beta_k v_k v_k^T) y_k \\ &= \hat{H}_k y_k + \alpha_k u_k u_k^T y_k + \beta_k v_k v_k^T y_k \end{aligned}$$

即:

$$s_k - \hat{H}_k y_k = \alpha_k u_k (u_k^T y_k) + \beta_k v_k (v_k^T y_k)$$

也就是说,要满足拟牛顿条件,就是要使这个式子成立。



使这个式子成立的办法很多,DFP 方法中选择如下条件:

$$s_k = \alpha_k u_k (u_k^T y_k)$$
$$\hat{H}_k y_k = -\beta_k v_k (v_k^T y_k)$$

进而,可以再选择:

选择:
$$s_k = u_k$$
,得到: $\alpha_k(u_k^T y_k) = 1$
选择: $\hat{H}_k y_k = v_k$,得到: $\beta_k(v_k^T y_k) = -1$

进而得到:

$$\begin{split} u_k &= s_k, \quad \alpha_k = \frac{1}{(u_k^T y_k)} \\ v_k &= \hat{H}_k y_k, \quad \beta_k = -\frac{1}{(v_k^T y_k)} = -\frac{1}{(y_k^T \hat{H}_k y_k)} \end{split}$$

从 DFP 到 BFGS 方法

最终得到,DFP 方法近似矩阵 \hat{H}_k 的迭代更新公式:

$$\hat{H}_{k+1} = \hat{H}_k + \frac{s_k^T s_k}{(u_k^T y_k)} - \frac{\hat{H}_k y_k y_k^T \hat{H}_k}{(y_k^T \hat{H}_k y_k)}$$

类似的,利用拟牛顿公式的另一个描述 $y_k = B_{k+1} \cdot s_k$,我们也可以对 B_{k+1} 进行迭代修正——BFGS 方法

- 以数学家 Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb, Shanno 的名字命名;
- 比 DFP 方法具有更好的性能, 是当前常用的优化算法;

拟牛顿法之 BFGS 方法

对 B_{k+1} 进行秩 2 修正:

$$B_{k+1} = B_k + \alpha_k u_k u_k^T + \beta_k v_k v_k^T$$

由拟牛顿条件 $y_k = B_{k+1} \cdot s_k$, 得:

$$y_k = B_k s_k + \alpha_k u_k u_k^T s_k + \beta_k v_k v_k^T s_k$$

选取:

$$y_k = \alpha_k u_k u_k^T s_k = \alpha_k u_k (u_k^T s_k)$$

$$B_k s_k = -\beta_k v_k v_k^T s_k = -\beta_k v_k (v_k^T s_k)$$

再选取:

$$u_k = y_k$$
,得到: $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{u_k^T s_k}$

$$v_k = B_k s_k$$
,得到: $-\beta_k = -\frac{1}{v_k^T s_k} = -\frac{1}{s_k^T B_k s_k}$

拟牛顿法之 BFGS 方法

从而得到,BFGS 方法近似矩阵 B_k 的迭代更新公式:

$$B_{k+1} = B_k + \frac{y_k y_k^T}{u_k^T s_k} - \frac{B_k s_k s_k^T B_k}{s_k^T B_k s_k}$$

注意: B_k+1 是对 H_{k+1} 的近似,在牛顿法中计算 $d_{k+1}=-H_{k+1}^{-1}\cdot g_{k+1}$ 的公式相应变为 $d_{k+1}=-B_{k+1}^{-1}\cdot g_{k+1}$,可见,还需要计算 B_{k+1}^{-1} . 这很不爽,因此,改写公式:

$$B_{k+1}^{-1} = \left(I - \frac{s_k y_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}\right) B_k^{-1} \left(I - \frac{y_k s_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}\right) + \frac{s_k s_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}$$

可见,BFGS 方法具有更好的计算性能,其时间复杂度为 $O(n^2)$ 级;然而,其空间复杂度仍值得关注: B_{k+1} 为 $N \times N$ 方阵,存储量很大;

拟牛顿法之 L-BFGS 方法

L-BFGS (Limited-storage BFGS) 基本思想:

- **①** 在计算过程中,不选择存储 B_k ,而选择利用 $\{s_i\}\{y_i\}$ 的历史序列计算得到;
- ② 计算中,抛弃 m 步迭代之前的 $\{s_i\}\{y_i\}$ 序列,而仅利用最近的 m 个存储序列来估算;

对照公式:

$$B_{k+1}^{-1} = \left(I - \frac{s_k y_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}\right) B_k^{-1} \left(I - \frac{y_k s_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}\right) + \frac{s_k s_k^T}{y_k^T s_k}$$

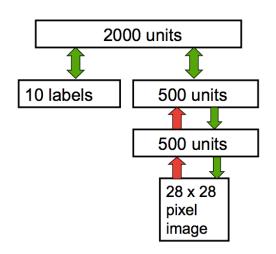
设: $\rho_k = \frac{1}{y_L^T s_k}, U_k = I - \rho_k y_k s_k^T, M_k = B_k^{-1}$, 则原公式写为:

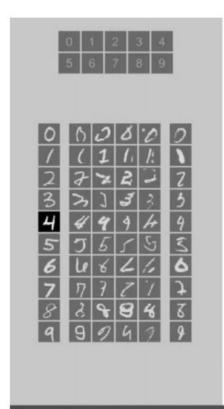
$$M_{k+1} = U_k^T M_k U_k + \rho_k s_k s_k^T$$

可见,计算 M_{k+1} 只需要对第一项进行 m 步迭代计算;

Problems for Fully Connected Neural Networks

■ Hinton in 2006













DETAILED VIEW

Problems for Fully Connected Neural Networks

■ Fully Connect Networks

- With small images, it was computationally feasible to learn features on the entire image.
 - 28x28 images for the MNIST dataset
- With larger images, learning features that span the entire image is very computationally expensive.
 - With 96x96 images, you would have about 10⁴ input units, and assuming you want to learn 100 features, you would have on the order of 10⁶ parameters to learn.
 - The feedforward and backpropagation computations would also be about 10² times slower, compared to 28x28 images.

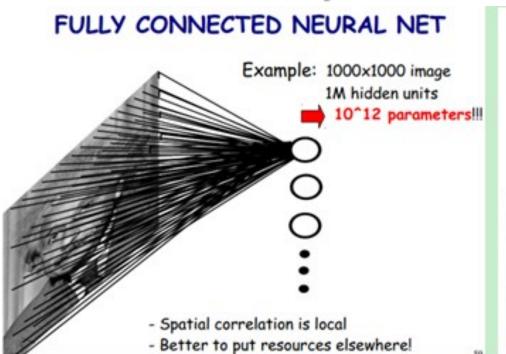
Locally Connected Networks

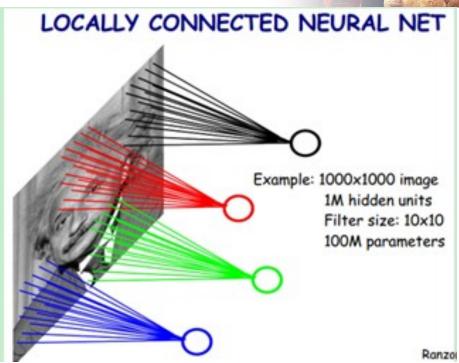
- One simple solution:
 - to restrict the connections between the hidden units and the input units, allowing each hidden unit to connect to only a small subset of the input units.
 - ◆ Specifically, each hidden unit will connect to only a small contiguous region of pixels in the input.
 - there is often also a natural way to select "contiguous groups" of input units to connect to a single hidden unit as well;
 - ◆ This idea of having locally connected networks also draws inspiration from how the early visual system is wired up in biology.
 - Specifically, neurons in the visual cortex have localized receptive fields (i.e., they respond only to stimulit in a certain location).

Locally Connected Networks

- Natural images have the property of being "stationary"
 - meaning that the statistics of one part of the image are the same as any other part.
- So, the features that we learn at one part of the image can also be applied to other parts of the image, and we can use the same features at all locations.
 - More precisely, having learned features over small (say 8x8) patches sampled randomly from the larger image, we can then apply this learned 8x8 feature detector anywhere in the image.
 - Specifically, we can take the learned 8x8 features and convolve them with the larger image, thus obtaining a different feature activation value at each location in the image.

Locally Connected Networks



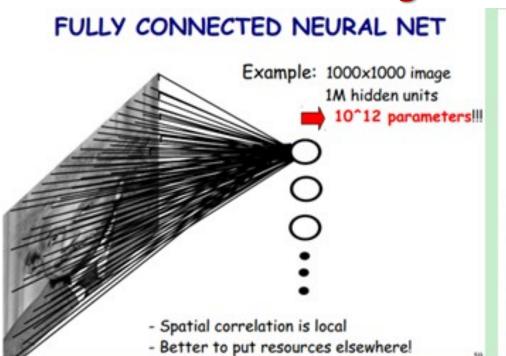


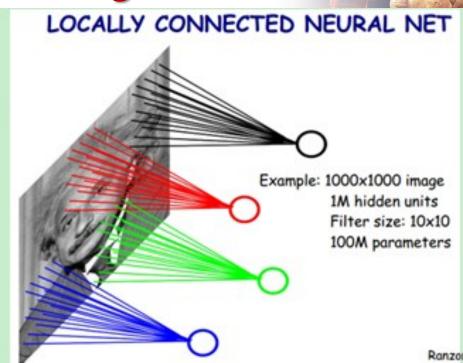
Suppose there are 1M hidden units:

Left: $1000 \times 1000 \times 1M = 10^{12}$

Right: $10 \times 10 \times 1M = 10^{8}$

Weights Sharing





Suppose there are 1M hidden units:

Left: $1000 \times 1000 \times 1M = 10^{12}$

Right: $10 \times 10 \times 1 = 10^2$

Convolutions



- Suppose you want to learned9 features from a 5x5 image.
 - With Fully Connected Neural Networks:

$$5 \times 5 \times 9 = 225$$

 With Locally Connected Neural Networks:

$$3 \times 3 \times 9 = 81$$

• With Weights Sharing: $3 \times 3 \times 1 = 9$

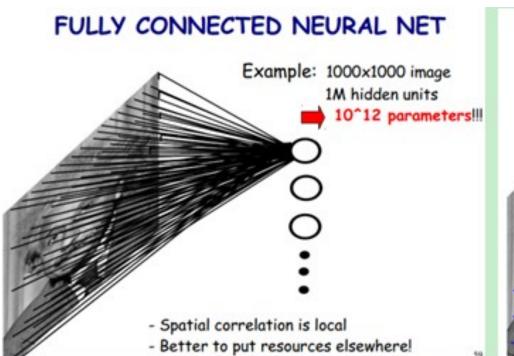
1 _{×1}	1 _{×0}	1 _{×1}	0	0
0,	1,	1,0	1	0
0 _{×1}	0,0	1 _{×1}	1	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0

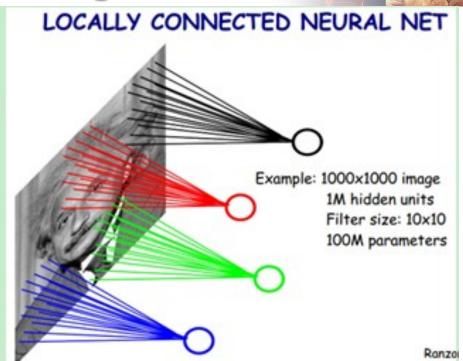
Image	
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4	

Convolved Feature

Is 1 Hidden Unit Enough? No!



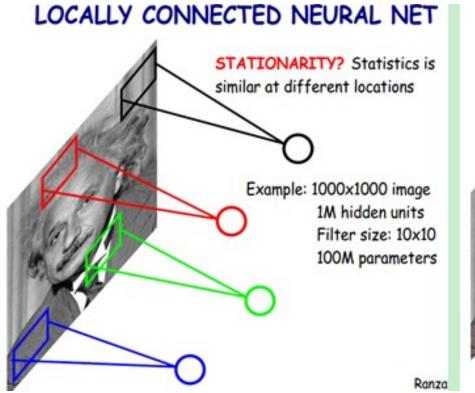


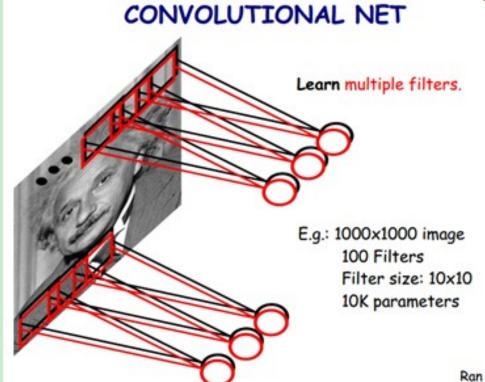
Suppose there are 1M hidden units:

Left: $1000 \times 1000 \times 1M = 10^{12}$

Right: $10 \times 10 \times 1 = 10^2$

Multiple Kernels Convolution





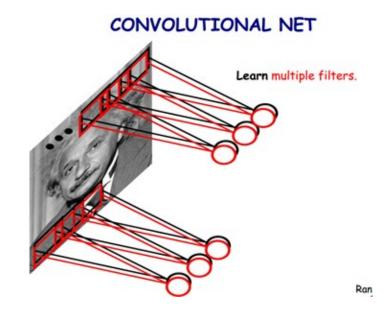
Left: $10 \times 10 \times 1M$ (特征数) = 10^8

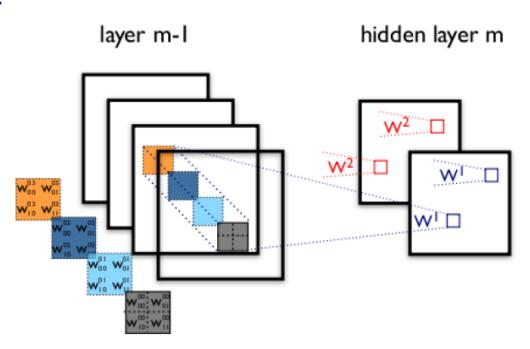
Right: $10 \times 10 \times 100$ (特征数) = 10^4

Multiple Kernels Convolution



- 对于一张100×100的图片
 - One Kernel: $10 \times 10 \times 100 = 10^4$ 4 Kernels: $10^4 \times 4$
 - 2^{nd} -Convolution: $2 \times 2 \times 4 \times 2 = 32$





Pooling

- If we use all the extracted features with a classifier, this can be computationally challenging.
 - images of size 96x96 pixels;
 - suppose we want to learn 400 features over 8x8 inputs;

Then we have to compute

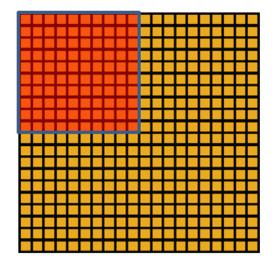
$$(96-8+1)*(96-8+1)*400=3,168,400$$
 features

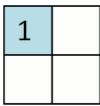
Learning a classifier with inputs having 3+ million features can be unwieldy, and can also be prone to over-fitting.

■ Pooling: to describe a large image, we can aggregate statistics of these features at various locations.

Pooling

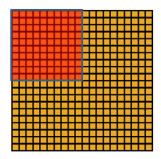
- Subsampling: "mean pooling" or "max pooling"
 - one could compute the mean (or max) value of a particular feature over a region of the image.
 - These summary statistics are much lower in dimension and can also improve results (less over-fitting).





Convolutional Neural Networks

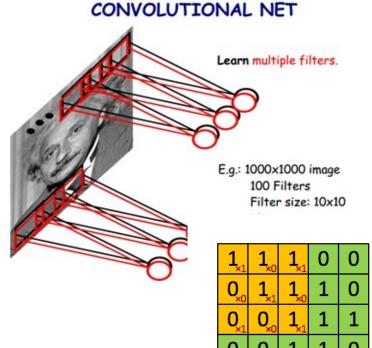
- Composed of
 - Convolution Layers
 - Pooling Layers



Convolved feature



Pooled feature



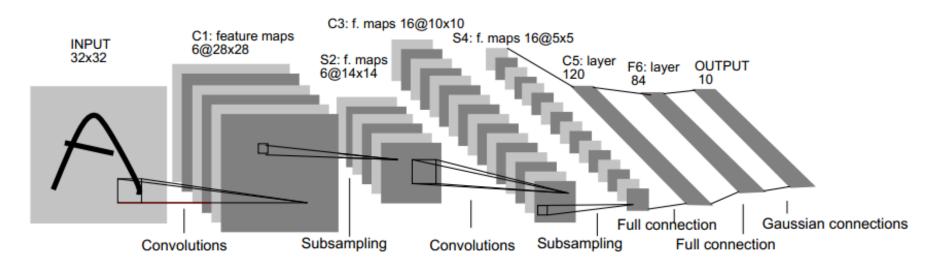
I	m	a	ge

4	

Convolved Feature

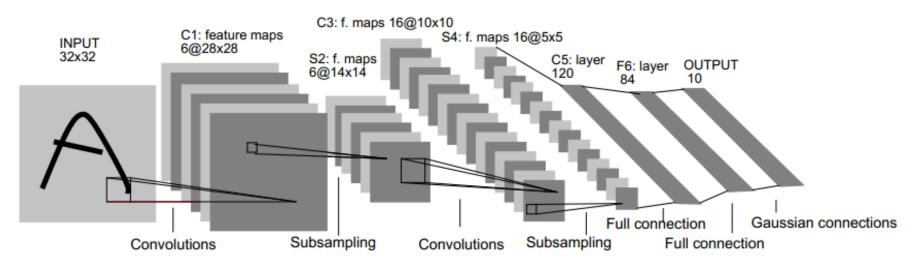


- ◆ 6个特征图,每个特征图中的每个神经元与输入中5*5的邻域相连,特征图大小为28*28,
- ◆ 每个卷积神经元的参数数目:5*5=25个unit参数和一个bias参数,
- ◆ 连接数目: (5*5+1)*6*(28*28)=122,304个连接
- ◆ 参数共享:每个特征图内共享参数,因此参数总数:共(5*5+1)*6=156个参数

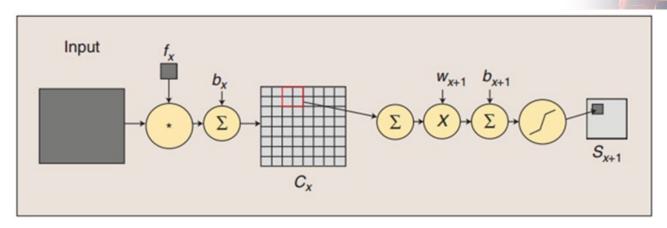


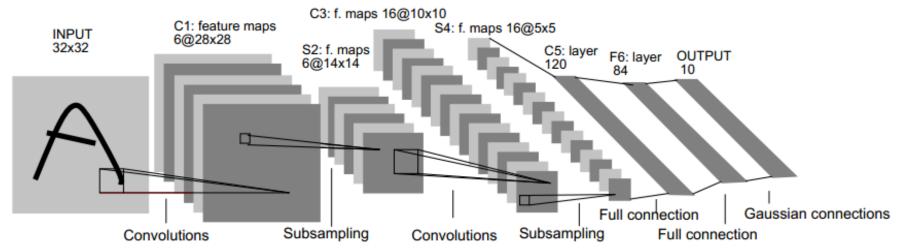


- ◆ 6个14*14的特征图,每个图中的每个单元与C1特征图中的一个2*2邻域相连接,不重叠。因此,S2 中每个特征图的大小是C1中特征图大小的1/4.
- ◆ S2层每个单元的4个输入相加,乘以一个可训练参数w,再加上一个可训练偏置b,结果通过sigmoid函数计算。
- ◆ 连接数: (2*2+1)*1*14*14*6 = 5880个
- ◆ 参数共享:每个特征图内共享参数,因此有(2*2+1)*6=30个可训练参数



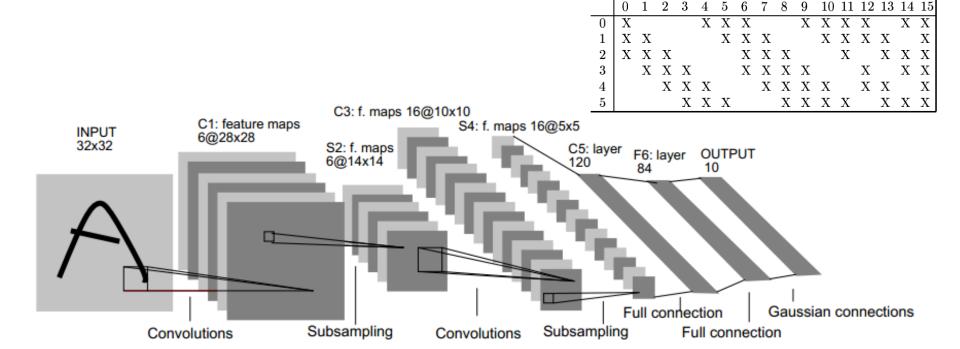
■ LeCun的表示法







- C3层是一个卷积层
 - ◆ 16个卷积核,得到16张特征图,特征图大小为10*10;
 - ◆ 每个特征图中的每个神经元与S2中某几层的多个5*5的邻域相连;

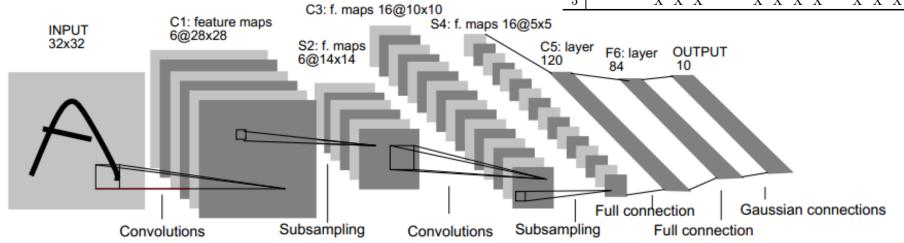




■ C3层是一个卷积层

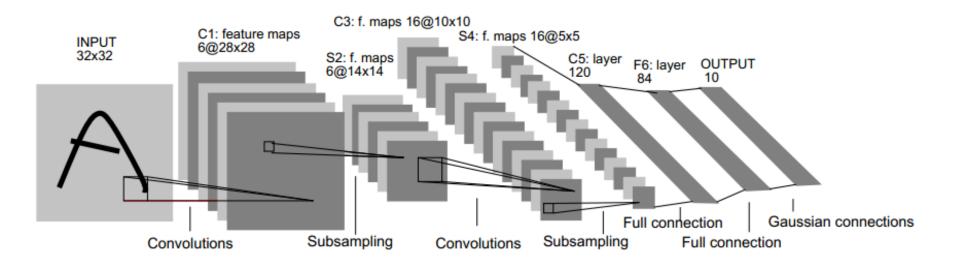
- ◆ 16个卷积核,得到16张特征图,特征图大小为10*10;
- ◆ 每个特征图中的每个神经元与S2中某几层的多个5*5的邻域相连;
 - 例如,对于C3层第0张特征图,其每一个节点与S2层的第0张特征图,第1张特征图,第2张特征图,总共3个5x5个节点相连接。

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
0	X				Χ	Χ	X			Χ	Χ	Χ	Χ		Χ	Χ
1	X	X				X	X	X			X	\mathbf{X}	X	X		Χ
2	X	X	X				X	X	X			X		X	X	X
3		\mathbf{X}	X	\mathbf{X}			\mathbf{X}	X	\mathbf{X}	X			\mathbf{X}		\mathbf{X}	Χ
4			\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}			\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}		\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}		Χ
5				\mathbf{X}	\mathbf{X}	X			X	\mathbf{X}	X	\mathbf{X}		X	\mathbf{X}	X



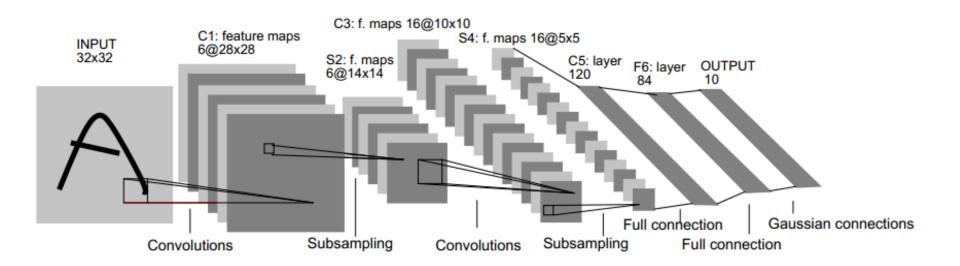


- ◆ 由16个5*5大小的特征图构成,特征图中的每个单元与C3中相应特征图的2*2邻域相连接;
- ◆ 连接数: (2*2+1)*5*5*16=2000个
- ◆ 参数共享:特征图内共享参数,每张特征图中的每个神经元需要1个因子和一个偏置,因此有 2*16 个可训练参数





- ◆ 120个神经元,可以看作120个特征图,每张特征图的大小为1*1
- ◆ 每个单元与S4层的全部16个单元的5*5邻域相连(S4和C5之间的全连接)
- ◆ 连接数=可训练参数:(5*5*16+1)*120=48120个



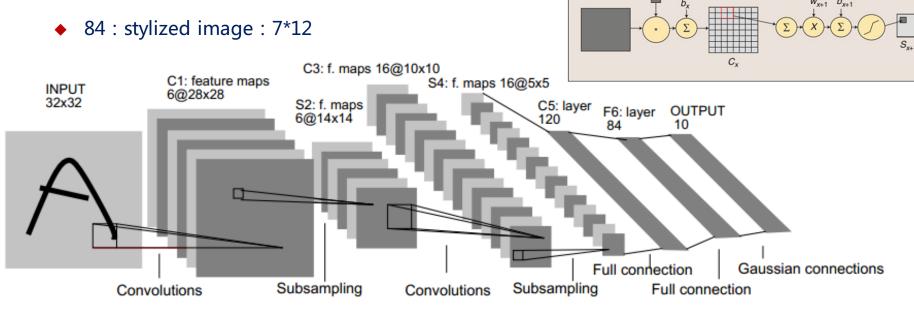


◆ 有84个单元(之所以选这个数字的原因来自于输出层的设计),与C5层全相连。

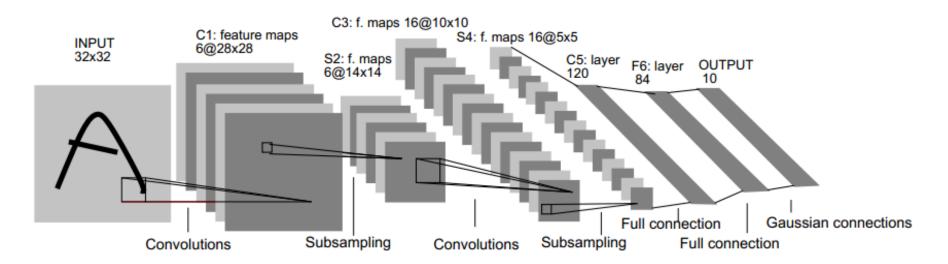
Input

◆ F6层计算输入向量和权重向量之间的点积,再加上一个偏置。

◆ 连接数=可训练参数: (120+1)*84=10164



- 输出层采用欧式径向基函数(Euclidean Radial Basis Function)单元
 - ◆ 给定一个输入模式,损失函数应能使得F6的配置与RBF参数向量(即模式的期望分类) 足够接近。
 - ◆ 每类一个单元,每个单元连接84个输入;每个输出RBF单元计算输入向量和参数向量之间的欧式距离。
 - ◆ RBF输出可以被理解为F6层配置空间的高斯分布的【-log-likelihood】





Thanks.