

# Tensorflow\_introduction

June 9, 2021

## 1 Introduction to TensorFlow

Welcome to this week's programming assignment! Up until now, you've always used Numpy to build neural networks, but this week you'll explore a deep learning framework that allows you to build neural networks more easily. Machine learning frameworks like TensorFlow, PaddlePaddle, Torch, Caffe, Keras, and many others can speed up your machine learning development significantly. TensorFlow 2.3 has made significant improvements over its predecessor, some of which you'll encounter and implement here!

By the end of this assignment, you'll be able to do the following in TensorFlow 2.3:

- Use `tf.Variable` to modify the state of a variable
- Explain the difference between a variable and a constant
- Apply TensorFlow decorators to speed up code
- Train a Neural Network on a TensorFlow dataset

Programming frameworks like TensorFlow not only cut down on time spent coding, but can also perform optimizations that speed up the code itself.

### 1.1 Table of Contents

- Section ??
  - Section ??
- Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
- Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
  - Section ??
    - \* Section ??
  - Section ??

- Section ??

## 1 - Packages

```
[ ]: import h5py
import numpy as np
import tensorflow as tf
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from tensorflow.python.framework.ops import EagerTensor
from tensorflow.python.ops.resource_variable_ops import ResourceVariable
import time
```

### 1.1 - Checking TensorFlow Version

You will be using v2.3 for this assignment, for maximum speed and efficiency.

```
[ ]: tf.__version__
```

## 2 - Basic Optimization with GradientTape

The beauty of TensorFlow 2 is in its simplicity. Basically, all you need to do is implement forward propagation through a computational graph. TensorFlow will compute the derivatives for you, by moving backwards through the graph recorded with **GradientTape**. All that's left for you to do then is specify the cost function and optimizer you want to use!

When writing a TensorFlow program, the main object to get used and transformed is the `tf.Tensor`. These tensors are the TensorFlow equivalent of Numpy arrays, i.e. multidimensional arrays of a given data type that also contain information about the computational graph.

Below, you'll use `tf.Variable` to store the state of your variables. Variables can only be created once as its initial value defines the variable shape and type. Additionally, the `dtype` arg in `tf.Variable` can be set to allow data to be converted to that type. But if none is specified, either the datatype will be kept if the initial value is a Tensor, or `convert_to_tensor` will decide. It's generally best for you to specify directly, so nothing breaks!

Here you'll call the TensorFlow dataset created on a HDF5 file, which you can use in place of a Numpy array to store your datasets. You can think of this as a TensorFlow data generator!

You will use the Hand sign data set, that is composed of images with shape 64x64x3.

```
[ ]: train_dataset = h5py.File('datasets/train_signs.h5', "r")
test_dataset = h5py.File('datasets/test_signs.h5', "r")

[ ]: x_train = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(train_dataset['train_set_x'])
y_train = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(train_dataset['train_set_y'])

x_test = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(test_dataset['test_set_x'])
y_test = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(test_dataset['test_set_y'])

[ ]: type(x_train)
```

Since TensorFlow Datasets are generators, you can't access directly the contents unless you iterate over them in a for loop, or by explicitly creating a Python iterator using `iter` and consuming its elements using `next`. Also, you can inspect the `shape` and `dtype` of each element using the `element_spec` attribute.

```
[ ]: print(y_train.element_spec)
```

```
[ ]: print(next(iter(x_train)))
```

```
[ ]: for element in x_train:
      print(element)
      break
```

There's one more additional difference between TensorFlow datasets and Numpy arrays: If you need to transform one, you would invoke the `map` method to apply the function passed as an argument to each of the elements.

```
[ ]: def normalize(image):
      """
      Transform an image into a tensor of shape (64 * 64 * 3, 1)
      and normalize its components.

      Arguments
      image - Tensor.

      Returns:
      result -- Transformed tensor
      """
      image = tf.cast(image, tf.float32) / 256.0
      image = tf.reshape(image, [-1,1])
      return image
```

```
[ ]: new_train = x_train.map(normalize)
      new_test = x_test.map(normalize)
```

```
[ ]: new_train.element_spec
```

```
[ ]: print(next(iter(new_train)))
```

### ### 2.1 - Linear Function

Let's begin this programming exercise by computing the following equation:  $Y = WX + b$ , where  $W$  and  $X$  are random matrices and  $b$  is a random vector.

#### ### Exercise 1 - linear\_function

Compute  $WX + b$  where  $W$ ,  $X$ , and  $b$  are drawn from a random normal distribution.  $W$  is of shape (4, 3),  $X$  is (3,1) and  $b$  is (4,1). As an example, this is how to define a constant  $X$  with the shape (3,1):

```
X = tf.constant(np.random.randn(3,1), name = "X")
```

Note that the difference between `tf.constant` and `tf.Variable` is that you can modify the state of a `tf.Variable` but cannot change the state of a `tf.constant`.

You might find the following functions helpful: - `tf.matmul(..., ...)` to do a matrix multiplication - `tf.add(..., ...)` to do an addition - `np.random.randn(...)` to initialize randomly

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: linear_function

def linear_function():
    """
    Implements a linear function:
        Initializes X to be a random tensor of shape (3,1)
        Initializes W to be a random tensor of shape (4,3)
        Initializes b to be a random tensor of shape (4,1)

    Returns:
        result -- Y = WX + b
    """

    np.random.seed(1)

    """
    Note, to ensure that the "random" numbers generated match the expected
    ↪ results,
    please create the variables in the order given in the starting code below.
    (Do not re-arrange the order).
    """
    # (approx. 4 lines)
    # X = ...
    # W = ...
    # b = ...
    # Y = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE

    # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
    return Y
```

```
[ ]: result = linear_function()
print(result)

assert type(result) == EagerTensor, "Use the TensorFlow API"
assert np.allclose(result, [[-2.15657382], [ 2.95891446], [-1.08926781], [-0.
↪ 84538042]]), "Error"
print("\033[92mAll test passed")
```

Expected Output:

```
result =
[[-2.15657382]
 [ 2.95891446]
 [-1.08926781]
 [-0.84538042]]
```

### 2.2 - Computing the Sigmoid Amazing! You just implemented a linear function. TensorFlow offers a variety of commonly used neural network functions like `tf.sigmoid` and `tf.softmax`.

For this exercise, compute the sigmoid of `z`.

In this exercise, you will: Cast your tensor to type `float32` using `tf.cast`, then compute the sigmoid using `tf.keras.activations.sigmoid`.

### Exercise 2 - sigmoid

Implement the sigmoid function below. You should use the following:

- `tf.cast(..., tf.float32)`
- `tf.keras.activations.sigmoid(...)`

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: sigmoid

def sigmoid(z):

    """
    Computes the sigmoid of z

    Arguments:
    z -- input value, scalar or vector

    Returns:
    a -- (tf.float32) the sigmoid of z
    """
    # tf.keras.activations.sigmoid requires float16, float32, float64,
    # → complex64, or complex128.

    # (approx. 2 lines)
    # z = ...
    # a = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE

    # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
    return a
```

```
[ ]: result = sigmoid(-1)
print ("type: " + str(type(result)))
print ("dtype: " + str(result.dtype))
print ("sigmoid(-1) = " + str(result))
```

```

print ("sigmoid(0) = " + str(sigmoid(0.0)))
print ("sigmoid(12) = " + str(sigmoid(12)))

def sigmoid_test(target):
    result = target(0)
    assert(type(result) == EagerTensor)
    assert (result.dtype == tf.float32)
    assert sigmoid(0) == 0.5, "Error"
    assert sigmoid(-1) == 0.26894143, "Error"
    assert sigmoid(12) == 0.9999939, "Error"

    print("\033[92mAll test passed")

sigmoid_test(sigmoid)

```

### Expected Output:

type

class 'tensorflow.python.framework.ops.EagerTensor'

dtype

"dtype: 'float32'

Sigmoid(-1)

0.2689414

Sigmoid(0)

0.5

Sigmoid(12)

0.999994

### ### 2.3 - Using One Hot Encodings

Many times in deep learning you will have a  $Y$  vector with numbers ranging from 0 to  $C - 1$ , where  $C$  is the number of classes. If  $C$  is for example 4, then you might have the following  $y$  vector which you will need to convert like this:

This is called “one hot” encoding, because in the converted representation, exactly one element of each column is “hot” (meaning set to 1). To do this conversion in numpy, you might have to write a few lines of code. In TensorFlow, you can use one line of code:

- `tf.one_hot(labels, depth, axis=0)`

`axis=0` indicates the new axis is created at dimension 0

### ### Exercise 3 - one\_hot\_matrix

Implement the function below to take one label and the total number of classes  $C$ , and return the one hot encoding in a column wise matrix. Use `tf.one_hot()` to do this, and `tf.reshape()` to reshape your one hot tensor!

- `tf.reshape(tensor, shape)`

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: one_hot_matrix
def one_hot_matrix(label, depth=6):
    """
    Computes the one hot encoding for a single label

    Arguments:
        label -- (int) Categorical labels
        depth -- (int) Number of different classes that label can take

    Returns:
        one_hot -- tf.Tensor A single-column matrix with the one hot encoding.
    """
    # (approx. 1 line)
    # one_hot = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE

    # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
    return one_hot
```

```
[ ]: def one_hot_matrix_test(target):
    label = tf.constant(1)
    depth = 4
    result = target(label, depth)
    print(result)
    assert result.shape[0] == depth, "Use the parameter depth"
    assert result.shape[1] == 1, f"Reshape to have only 1 column"
    assert np.allclose(result, [[0.], [1.], [0.], [0.]] ), "Wrong output. Use ↪
    ↪tf.one_hot"
    result = target(3, depth)
    assert np.allclose(result, [[0.], [0.], [0.], [1.]] ), "Wrong output. Use ↪
    ↪tf.one_hot"

    print("\033[92mAll test passed")

one_hot_matrix_test(one_hot_matrix)
```

### Expected output

```
tf.Tensor(
[[0.]
 [1.]
 [0.]
 [0.]], shape=(4, 1), dtype=float32)
```

```
[ ]: new_y_test = y_test.map(one_hot_matrix)
      new_y_train = y_train.map(one_hot_matrix)
```

```
[ ]: print(next(iter(new_y_test)))
```

### ### 2.4 - Initialize the Parameters

Now you'll initialize a vector of numbers between zero and one. The function you'll be calling is `tf.keras.initializers.GlorotNormal`, which draws samples from a truncated normal distribution centered on 0, with `stddev = sqrt(2 / (fan_in + fan_out))`, where `fan_in` is the number of input units and `fan_out` is the number of output units, both in the weight tensor.

To initialize with zeros or ones you could use `tf.zeros()` or `tf.ones()` instead.

### ### Exercise 4 - initialize\_parameters

Implement the function below to take in a shape and to return an array of numbers between -1 and 1.

- `tf.keras.initializers.GlorotNormal(seed=1)`
- `tf.Variable(initializer(shape=()))`

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: initialize_parameters

def initialize_parameters():
    """
    Initializes parameters to build a neural network with TensorFlow. The
    ↪ shapes are:

        W1 : [25, 12288]
        b1 : [25, 1]
        W2 : [12, 25]
        b2 : [12, 1]
        W3 : [6, 12]
        b3 : [6, 1]

    Returns:
    parameters -- a dictionary of tensors containing W1, b1, W2, b2, W3, b3
    """

    initializer = tf.keras.initializers.GlorotNormal(seed=1)
    #(approx. 6 lines of code)
    # W1 = ...
    # b1 = ...
    # W2 = ...
    # b2 = ...
    # W3 = ...
    # b3 = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
```



```

# YOUR CODE ENDS HERE

parameters = {"W1": W1,
              "b1": b1,
              "W2": W2,
              "b2": b2,
              "W3": W3,
              "b3": b3}

return parameters

```

```

[ ]: def initialize_parameters_test(target):
    parameters = target()

    values = {"W1": (25, 12288),
              "b1": (25, 1),
              "W2": (12, 25),
              "b2": (12, 1),
              "W3": (6, 12),
              "b3": (6, 1)}

    for key in parameters:
        print(f"{key} shape: {tuple(parameters[key].shape)}")
        assert type(parameters[key]) == ResourceVariable, "All parameter must
        ↳ be created using tf.Variable"
        assert tuple(parameters[key].shape) == values[key], f"{key}: wrong
        ↳ shape"
        assert np.abs(np.mean(parameters[key].numpy())) < 0.5, f"{key}: Use
        ↳ the GlorotNormal initializer"
        assert np.std(parameters[key].numpy()) > 0 and np.std(parameters[key].
        ↳ numpy()) < 1, f"{key}: Use the GlorotNormal initializer"

    print("\033[92mAll test passed")

initialize_parameters_test(initialize_parameters)

```

### Expected output

```

W1 shape: (25, 12288)
b1 shape: (25, 1)
W2 shape: (12, 25)
b2 shape: (12, 1)
W3 shape: (6, 12)
b3 shape: (6, 1)

```

```

[ ]: parameters = initialize_parameters()

```

## 3 - Building Your First Neural Network in TensorFlow

In this part of the assignment you will build a neural network using TensorFlow. Remember that there are two parts to implementing a TensorFlow model:

- Implement forward propagation
- Retrieve the gradients and train the model

Let's get into it!

### ### 3.1 - Implement Forward Propagation

One of TensorFlow's great strengths lies in the fact that you only need to implement the forward propagation function.

Here, you'll use a TensorFlow decorator, `@tf.function`, which builds a computational graph to execute the function. `@tf.function` is polymorphic, which comes in very handy, as it can support arguments with different data types or shapes, and be used with other languages, such as Python. This means that you can use data dependent control flow statements.

When you use `@tf.function` to implement forward propagation, the computational graph is activated, which keeps track of the operations. This is so you can calculate your gradients with backpropagation.

#### ### Exercise 5 - forward\_propagation

Implement the `forward_propagation` function.

**Note** Use only the TF API.

- `tf.math.add`
- `tf.linalg.matmul`
- `tf.keras.activations.relu`

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: forward_propagation

@tf.function
def forward_propagation(X, parameters):
    """
    Implements the forward propagation for the model: LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR
    ↪ -> RELU -> LINEAR

    Arguments:
    X -- input dataset placeholder, of shape (input size, number of examples)
    parameters -- python dictionary containing your parameters "W1", "b1",
    ↪ "W2", "b2", "W3", "b3"
                   the shapes are given in initialize_parameters

    Returns:
    Z3 -- the output of the last LINEAR unit
    """

    # Retrieve the parameters from the dictionary "parameters"
    W1 = parameters['W1']
```

```

b1 = parameters['b1']
W2 = parameters['W2']
b2 = parameters['b2']
W3 = parameters['W3']
b3 = parameters['b3']

#(approx. 5 lines)                                # Numpy Equivalents:
# Z1 = ...                                         # Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
# A1 = ...                                         # A1 = relu(Z1)
# Z2 = ...                                         # Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2
# A2 = ...                                         # A2 = relu(Z2)
# Z3 = ...                                         # Z3 = np.dot(W3, A2) + b3
# YOUR CODE STARTS HERE

# YOUR CODE ENDS HERE

return Z3

```

```

[ ]: def forward_propagation_test(target, examples):
    for batch in examples:
        forward_pass = target(batch, parameters)
        assert type(forward_pass) == EagerTensor, "Your output is not a tensor"
        assert forward_pass.shape == (6, 1), "Last layer must use W3 and b3"
        assert np.any(forward_pass < 0), "Don't use a ReLu layer at end of your_
↳network"
        assert np.allclose(forward_pass,
                            [[-0.13082162],
                             [ 0.21228778],
                             [ 0.7050022 ],
                             [-1.1224034 ],
                             [-0.20386729],
                             [ 0.9526217 ]]), "Output does not match"
        print(forward_pass)
        break

    print("\033[92mAll test passed")

forward_propagation_test(forward_propagation, new_train)

```

### Expected output

```

tf.Tensor(
[[-0.13082162]
 [ 0.21228778]
 [ 0.7050022 ]
 [-1.1224034 ]

```

```
[-0.20386732]
[ 0.9526217 ]], shape=(6, 1), dtype=float32)
```

### ### 3.2 Compute the Cost

Here again, the delightful `@tf.function` decorator steps in and saves you time. All you need to do is specify how to compute the cost, and you can do so in one simple step by using:

```
tf.reduce_mean(tf.keras.losses.binary_crossentropy(y_true = ..., y_pred = ...,
from_logits=True))
```

### ### Exercise 6 - compute\_cost

Implement the cost function below. - It's important to note that the “y\_pred” and “y\_true” inputs of `tf.keras.losses.binary_crossentropy` are expected to be of shape (number of examples, num\_classes). Since both the transpose and the original tensors have the same values, just in different order, the result of calculating the `binary_crossentropy` should be the same if you transpose or not the logits and labels. Just for reference here is how the Binary Cross entropy is calculated in TensorFlow:

```
mean_reduce(max(logits, 0) - logits * labels + log(1 + exp(-abs(logits))),
axis=-1)
```

- `tf.reduce_mean` basically does the summation over the examples.

```
[ ]: # GRADED FUNCTION: compute_cost

@tf.function
def compute_cost(logits, labels):
    """
    Computes the cost

    Arguments:
        logits -- output of forward propagation (output of the last LINEAR unit),
        ↪ of shape (6, number of examples)
        labels -- "true" labels vector, same shape as Z3

    Returns:
        cost - Tensor of the cost function
    """

    #(1 line of code)
    # cost = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE

    # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
    return cost
```

```
[ ]: def compute_cost_test(target):
    labels = np.array([[0., 1.], [0., 0.], [1., 0.]])
```

```

logits = np.array([[0.6, 0.4], [0.4, 0.6], [0.4, 0.6]])
result = compute_cost(logits, labels)
print(result)
assert(type(result) == EagerTensor), "Use the TensorFlow API"
assert (np.abs(result - (0.7752516 + 0.9752516 + 0.7752516) / 3.0) < 1e-7), "Test does not match. Did you get the mean of your cost functions?"

print("\033[92mAll test passed")

compute_cost_test(compute_cost)

```

## Expected output

```
tf.Tensor(0.8419182681095858, shape=(), dtype=float64)
```

### ### 3.3 - Train the Model

Let's talk optimizers. You'll specify the type of optimizer in one line, in this case `tf.keras.optimizers.Adam` (though you can use others such as SGD), and then call it within the training loop.

Notice the `tape.gradient` function: this allows you to retrieve the operations recorded for automatic differentiation inside the `GradientTape` block. Then, calling the optimizer method `apply_gradients`, will apply the optimizer's update rules to each trainable parameter. At the end of this assignment, you'll find some documentation that explains this more in detail, but for now, a simple explanation will do. ;)

Here you should take note of an important extra step that's been added to the batch training process:

- `tf.Data.dataset = dataset.prefetch(8)`

What this does is prevent a memory bottleneck that can occur when reading from disk. `prefetch()` sets aside some data and keeps it ready for when it's needed. It does this by creating a source dataset from your input data, applying a transformation to preprocess the data, then iterating over the dataset the specified number of elements at a time. This works because the iteration is streaming, so the data doesn't need to fit into the memory.

```

[ ]: def model(X_train, Y_train, X_test, Y_test, learning_rate = 0.0001,
            num_epochs = 1500, minibatch_size = 32, print_cost = True):
    """
    Implements a three-layer tensorflow neural network:
    LINEAR->RELU->LINEAR->RELU->LINEAR->SOFTMAX.

    Arguments:
    X_train -- training set, of shape (input size = 12288, number of training
    examples = 1080)
    Y_train -- test set, of shape (output size = 6, number of training examples
    = 1080)

```

```

    X_test -- training set, of shape (input size = 12288, number of training_
→examples = 120)
    Y_test -- test set, of shape (output size = 6, number of test examples =
→120)
    learning_rate -- learning rate of the optimization
    num_epochs -- number of epochs of the optimization loop
    minibatch_size -- size of a minibatch
    print_cost -- True to print the cost every 100 epochs

    Returns:
    parameters -- parameters learnt by the model. They can then be used to
→predict.
    """

    costs = [] # To keep track of the
→cost

    # Initialize your parameters
    #(1 line)
    parameters = initialize_parameters()

    W1 = parameters['W1']
    b1 = parameters['b1']
    W2 = parameters['W2']
    b2 = parameters['b2']
    W3 = parameters['W3']
    b3 = parameters['b3']

    optimizer = tf.keras.optimizers.SGD(learning_rate)

    X_train = X_train.batch(minibatch_size, drop_remainder=True).prefetch(8)#
→<<< extra step
    Y_train = Y_train.batch(minibatch_size, drop_remainder=True).prefetch(8) #
→loads memory faster

    # Do the training loop
    for epoch in range(num_epochs):

        epoch_cost = 0.

        for (minibatch_X, minibatch_Y) in zip(X_train, Y_train):
            # Select a minibatch
            with tf.GradientTape() as tape:
                # 1. predict
                Z3 = forward_propagation(minibatch_X, parameters)
                # 2. loss

```

```

        minibatch_cost = compute_cost(Z3, minibatch_Y)

        trainable_variables = [W1, b1, W2, b2, W3, b3]
        grads = tape.gradient(minibatch_cost, trainable_variables)
        optimizer.apply_gradients(zip(grads, trainable_variables))
        epoch_cost += minibatch_cost / minibatch_size

        # Print the cost every epoch
        if print_cost == True and epoch % 10 == 0:
            print ("Cost after epoch %i: %f" % (epoch, epoch_cost))
        if print_cost == True and epoch % 5 == 0:
            costs.append(epoch_cost)

        # Plot the cost
        plt.plot(np.squeeze(costs))
        plt.ylabel('cost')
        plt.xlabel('iterations (per fives)')
        plt.title("Learning rate =" + str(learning_rate))
        plt.show()

        # Save the parameters in a variable
        print ("Parameters have been trained!")

    return parameters

```

```
[ ]: model(new_train, new_y_train, new_test, new_y_test, num_epochs=200)
```

### Expected output

```

Cost after epoch 0: 0.742591
Cost after epoch 10: 0.614557
Cost after epoch 20: 0.598900
Cost after epoch 30: 0.588907
Cost after epoch 40: 0.579898
...

```

**Congratulations!** You've made it to the end of this assignment, and to the end of this week's material. Amazing work building a neural network in TensorFlow 2.3!

Here's a quick recap of all you just achieved:

- Used `tf.Variable` to modify your variables
- Applied TensorFlow decorators and observed how they sped up your code
- Trained a Neural Network on a TensorFlow dataset

You are now able to harness the power of TensorFlow's computational graph to create cool things, faster. Nice!

## 4 - Bibliography

In this assignment, you were introduced to `tf.GradientTape`, which records operations for differentiation. Here are a couple of resources for diving deeper into what it does and why:

Introduction to Gradients and Automatic Differentiation: <https://www.tensorflow.org/guide/autodiff>

GradientTape documentation: [https://www.tensorflow.org/api\\_docs/python/tf/GradientTape](https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/GradientTape)

[ ]: