



Future Skills Academy for Emerging Technologies

CERTIFIED

DEEP LEARNING **PROFESSIONAL**

(CDLP)

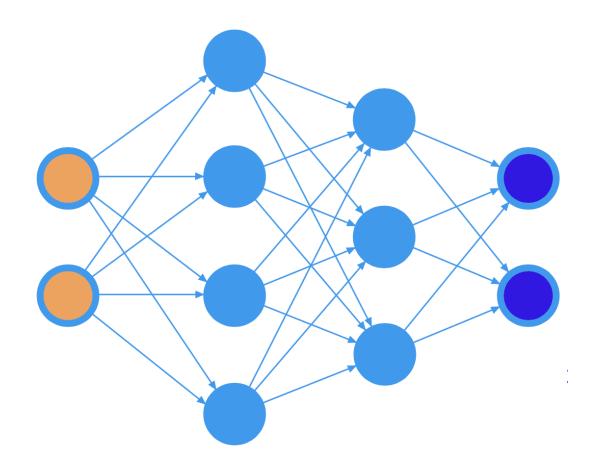








Understanding Artificial Neural Networks



Neural Networks

Artificial Neural Networks

- A large part of this section will focus on theory behind many of the ideas we will implement with code.
- Let's do a quick review of how we will gradually build an understanding of artificial neural networks.

Artificial Neural Networks

Theory Topics

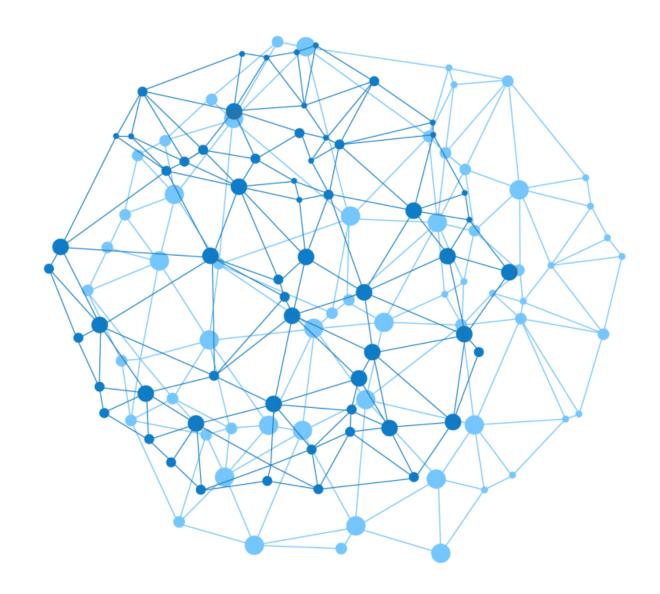
- Perceptron Model to Neural Networks
- Activation Functions
- Cost Functions
- Feed Forward Networks
- BackPropagation

Artificial Neural Networks

Coding Topics

- TensorFlow 2.0 Keras Syntax
- ANN with Keras
 - Regression
 - Classification
- Exercises for Keras ANN
- Tensorboard Visualizations





Neural Networks

To begin understanding deep learning, we will build up our model abstractions:

- Single Biological Neuron
- Perceptron
- Multi-layer Perceptron Model
- Deep Learning Neural Network

As we learn about more complex models, we'll also introduce concepts, such as:

- Activation Functions
- Gradient Descent
- BackPropagation

If the whole idea behind deep learning is to have computers artificially mimic biological natural intelligence, we should probably build a general understanding of how biological neurons work!

Stained Neurons in cerebral cortex

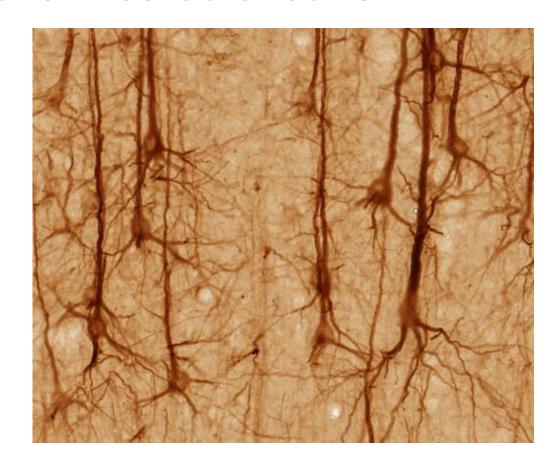


Illustration of biological neurons

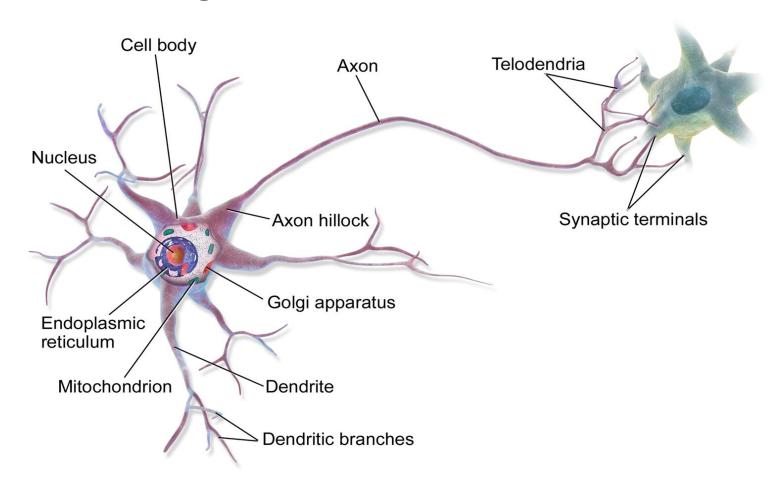
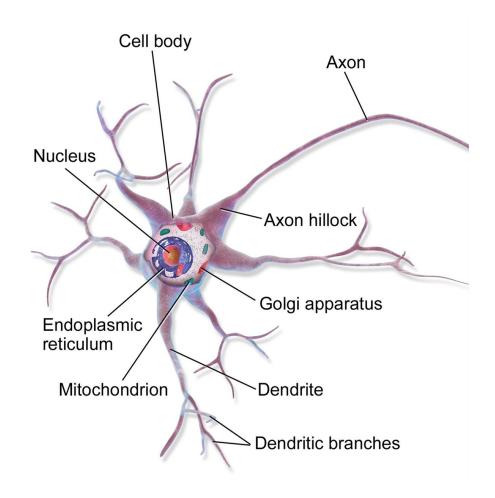
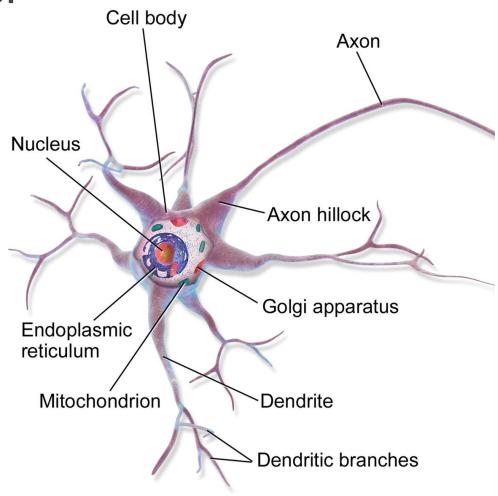


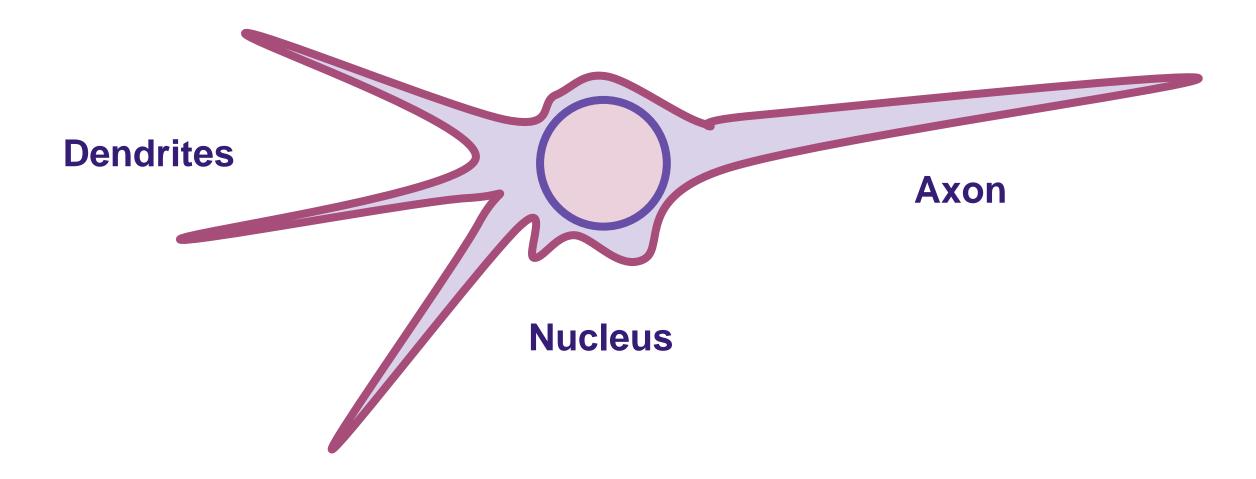
Illustration of biological neurons



Let's really simplify this!



Simplified Biological Neuron Model

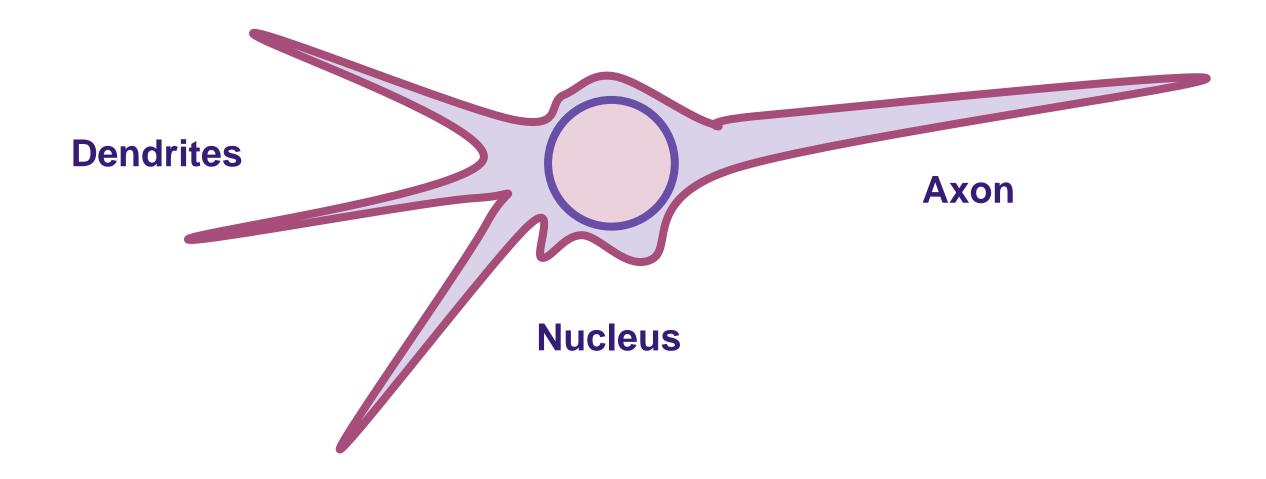


- A perceptron was a form of neural network introduced in 1958 by Frank Rosenblatt.
- Amazingly, even back then he saw huge potential:
 - "...perceptron may eventually be able to learn, make decisions, and translate languages."

- However, in 1969 Marvin Minsky and Seymour Papert's published their book *Perceptrons*.
- It suggested that there were severe limitations to what perceptrons could do.
- This marked the beginning of what is known as the Al Winter, with little funding into Al and Neural Networks in the 1970s.

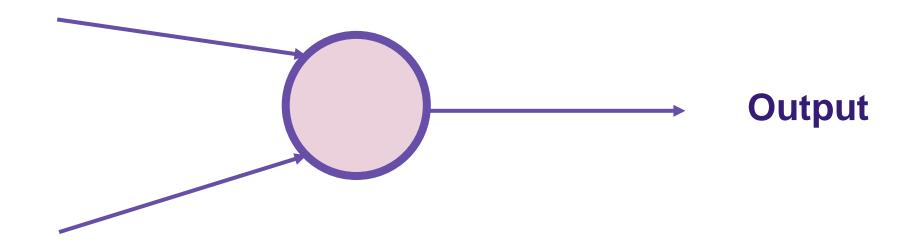
Fortunately for us, we now know the amazing power of neural networks, which all stem from the simple perceptron model, so let's head back and convert our simple biological neuron model into the perceptron model.

Perceptron Model

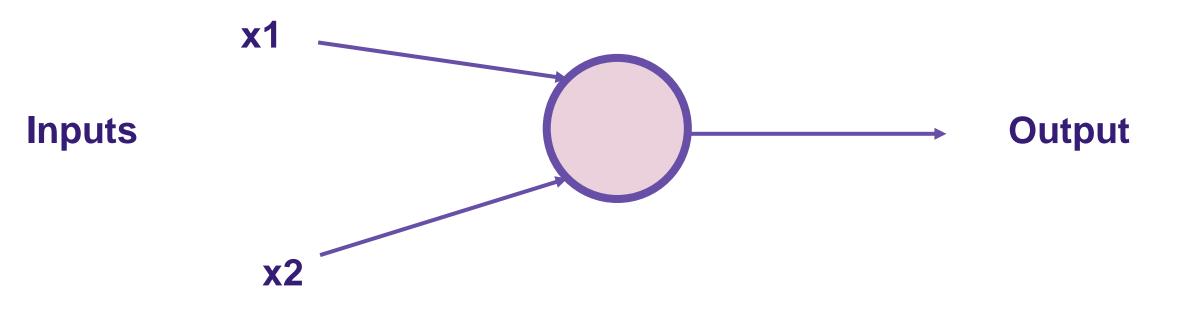


Perceptron Model

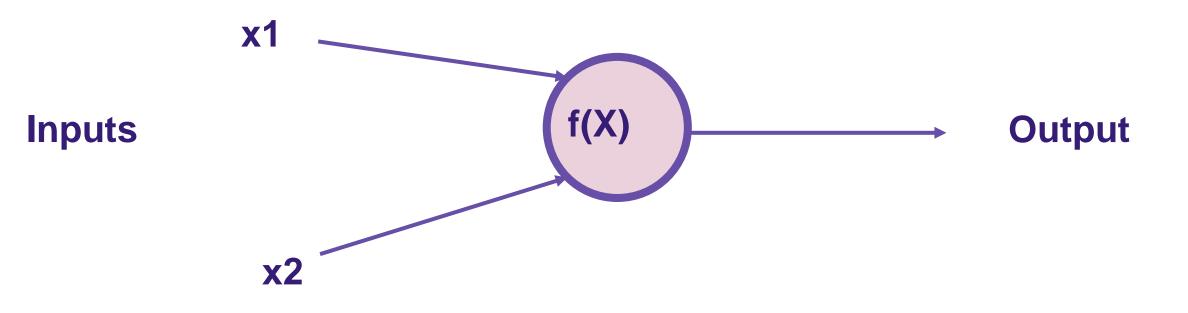




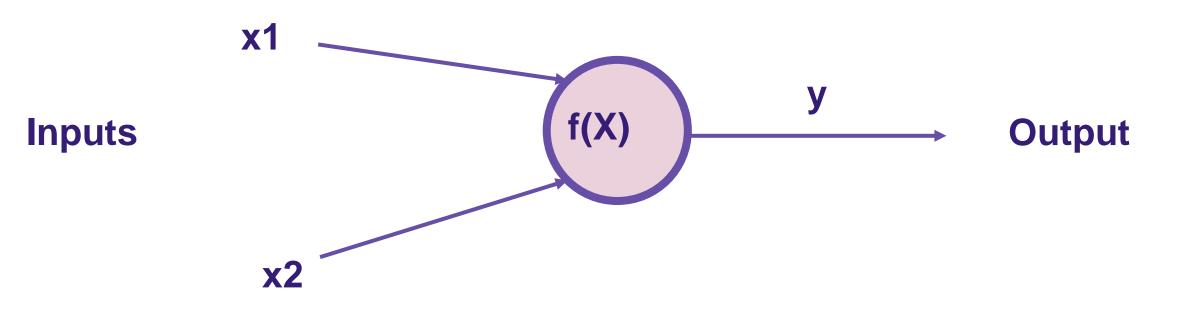
Let's work through a simple example



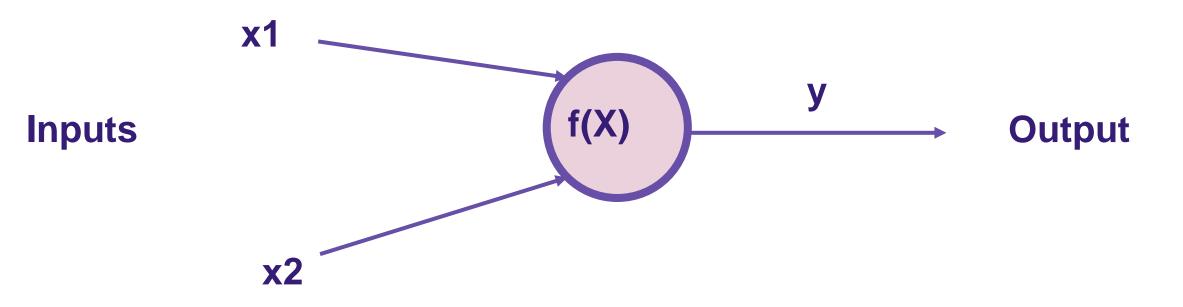
Let's work through a simple example



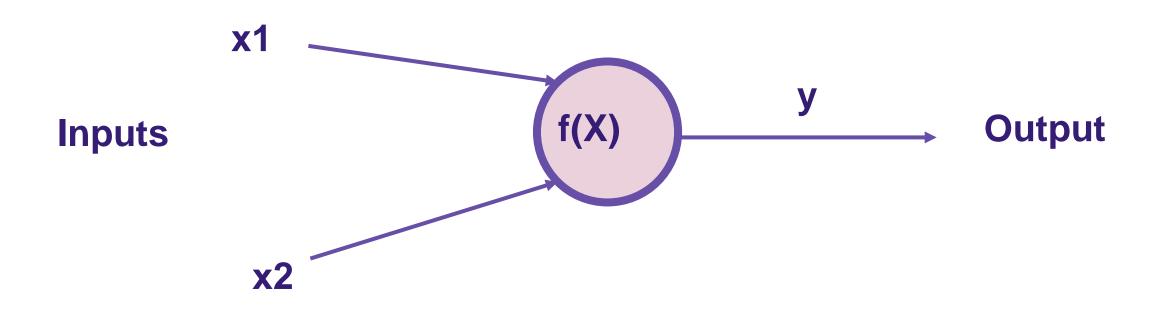
Let's work through a simple example



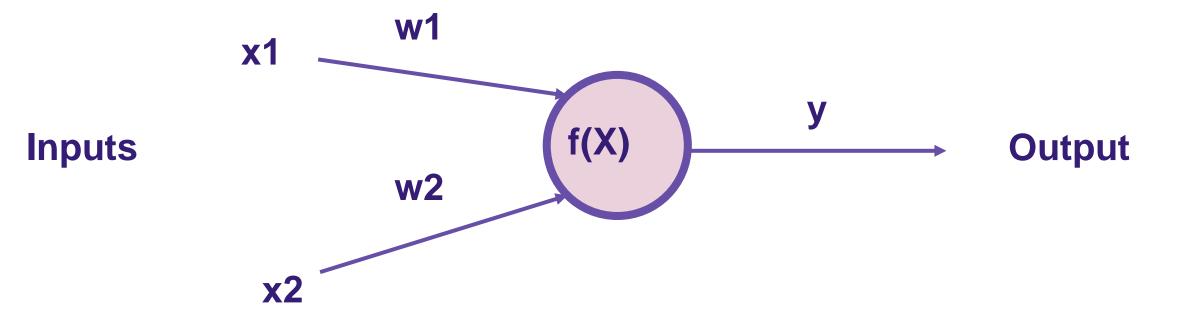
• If f(X) is just a sum, then y=x1+x2



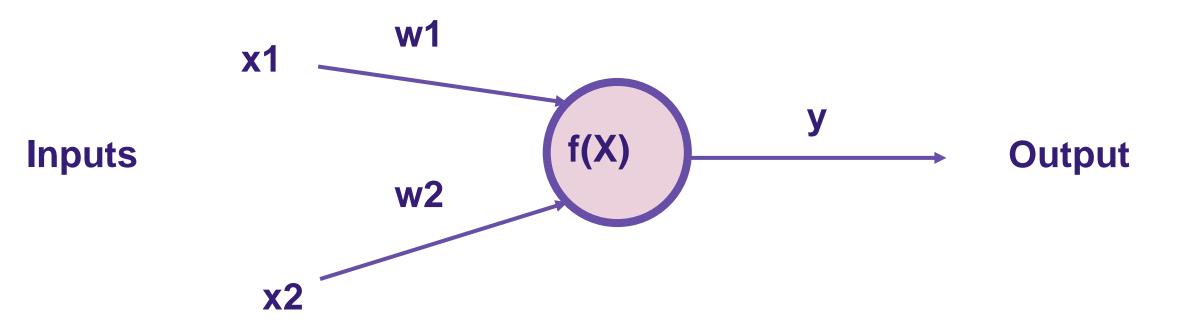
 Realistically, we would want to be able to adjust some parameter in order to "learn"



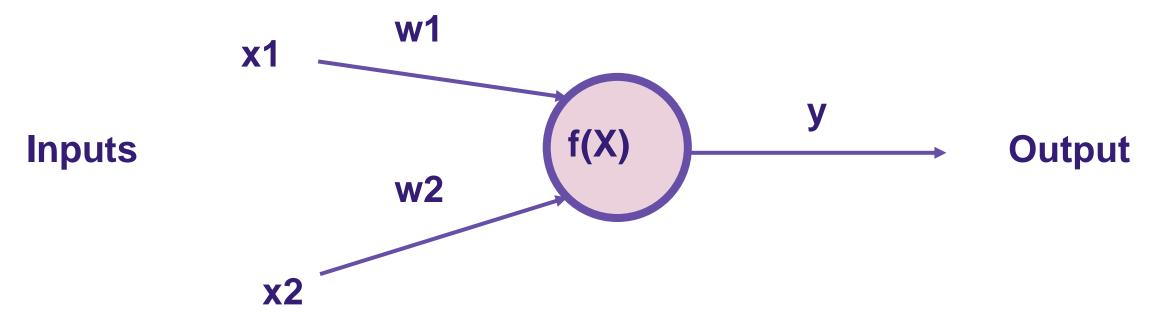
Let's add an adjustable weight we multiply against x



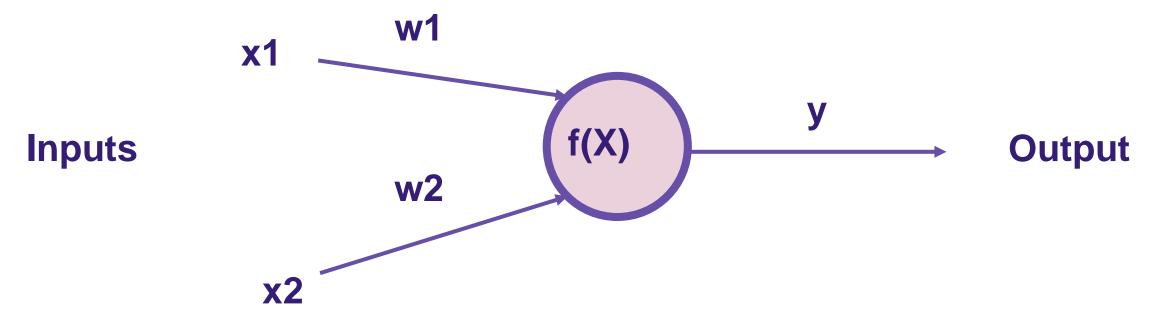
• Now y = x1w1 + x2w2



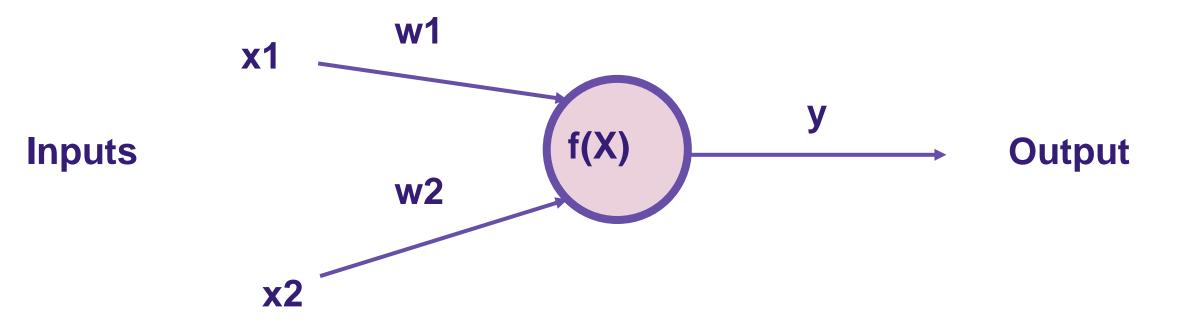
We could update the weights to effect y



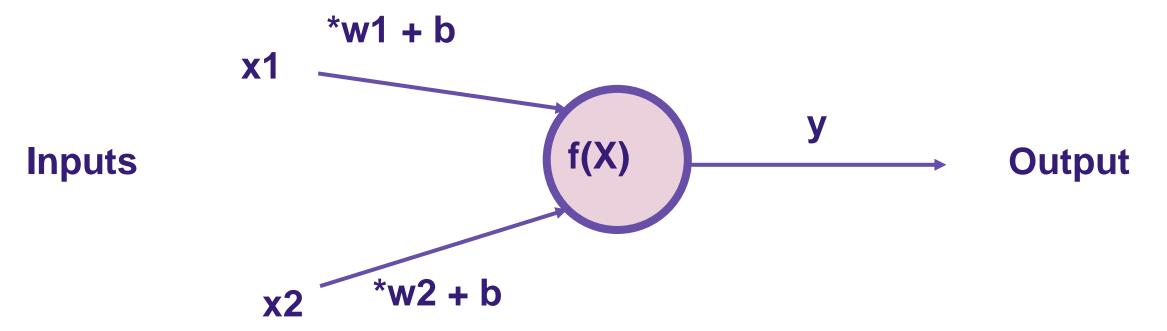
But what if an x is zero? w won't change anything!



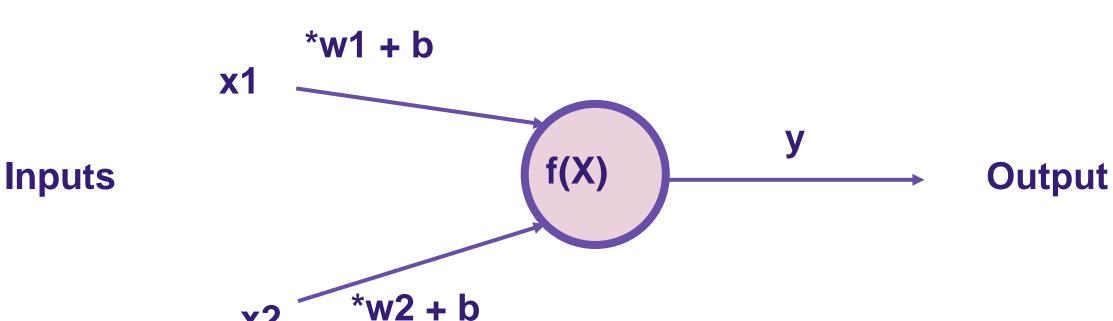
Let's add in a bias term b to the inputs.



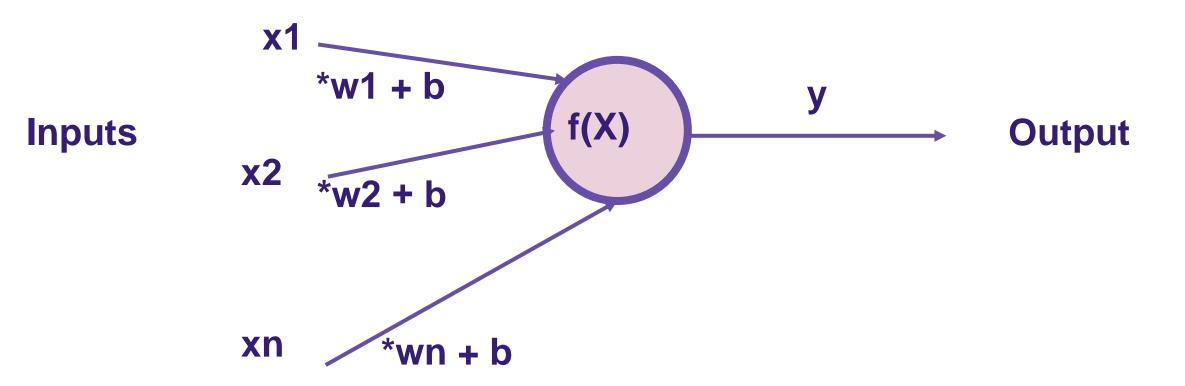
Let's add in a bias term b to the inputs.



y = (x1w1 + b) + (x2w2 + b)



• We can expand this to a generalization:



 We've been able to model a biological neuron as a simple perceptron! Mathematically our generalization was:

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i w_i + b_i$$

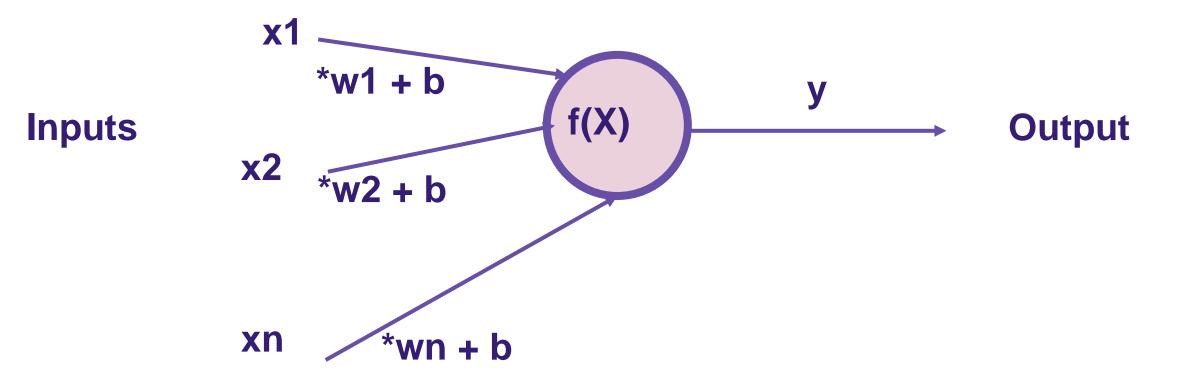
Later on we will see how we can expand this model to have
 X be a tensor of information (an n-dimensional matrix).

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i w_i + b_i$$

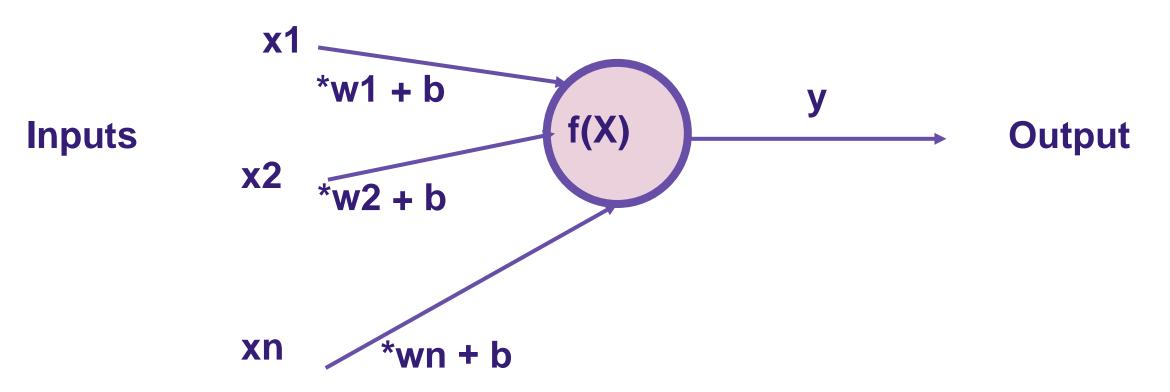
 Also we'll see we can even simplify the bias to be at a layer level instead of a bias per input.

$$\hat{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i w_i + b_i$$

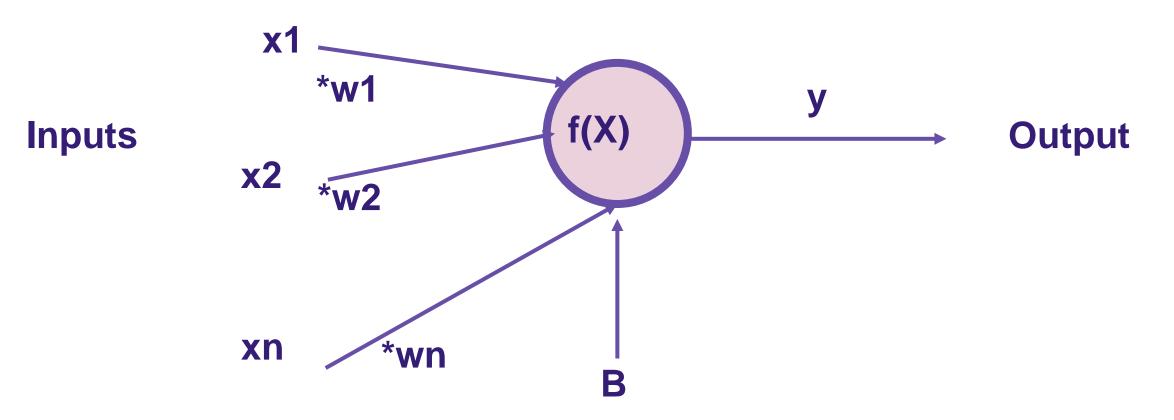
Notice how at the end we sum a bunch of biases...



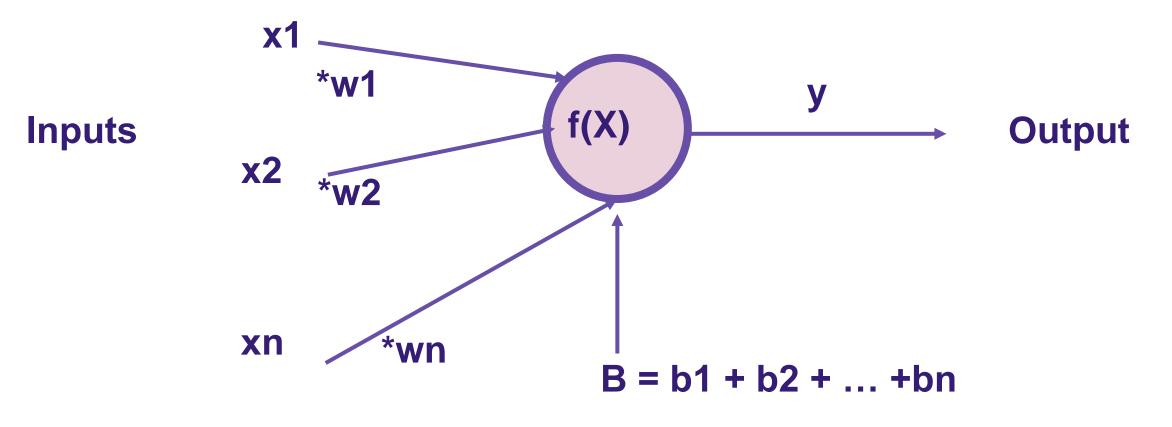
 Theoretically for any number of biases, there exists a bias that is the sum.



 Theoretically for any number of biases, there exists a bias that is the sum.

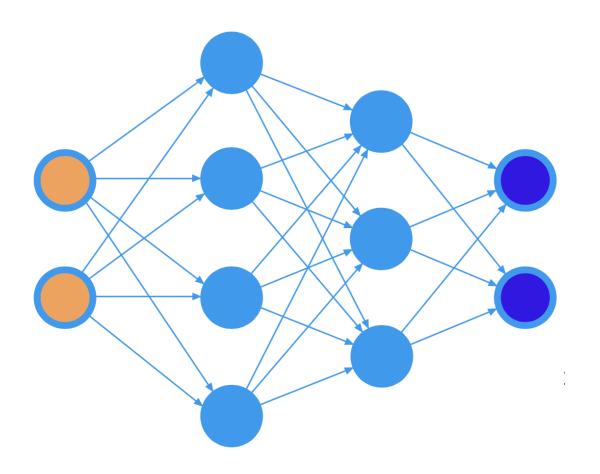


 Theoretically for any number of biases, there exists a bias that is the sum.



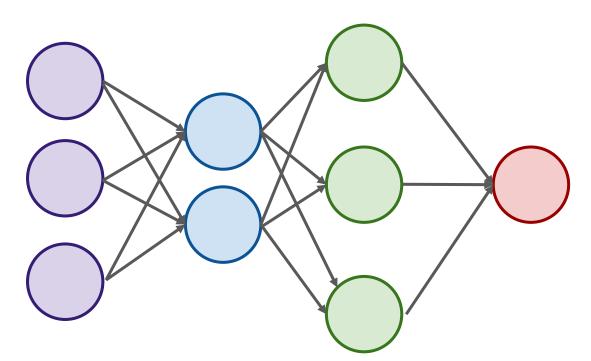
- Let's review what we learned:
 - We understand the very basics of a biological neuron
 - We saw how we can create a simple perceptron model replicating the core concepts behind a neuron.



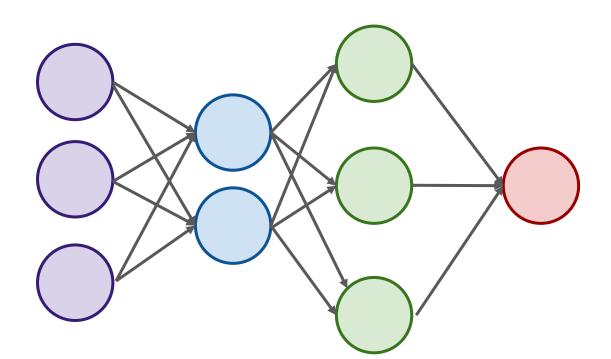


- A single perceptron won't be enough to learn complicated systems.
- Fortunately, we can expand on the idea of a single perceptron, to create a multi-layer perceptron model.
- We'll also introduce the idea of activation functions.

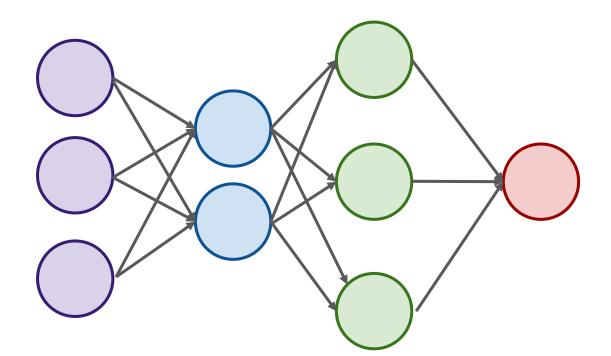
 To build a network of perceptrons, we can connect layers of perceptrons, using a multilayer perceptron model.



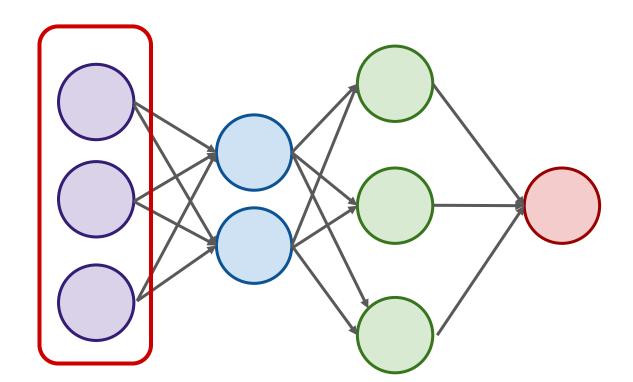
 The outputs of one perceptron are directly fed into as inputs to another perceptron.



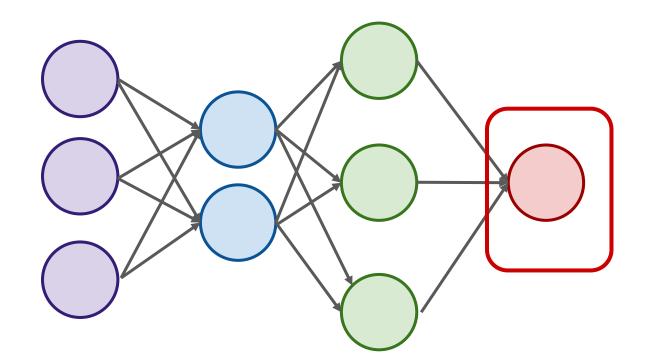
 This allows the network as a whole to learn about interactions and relationships between features.



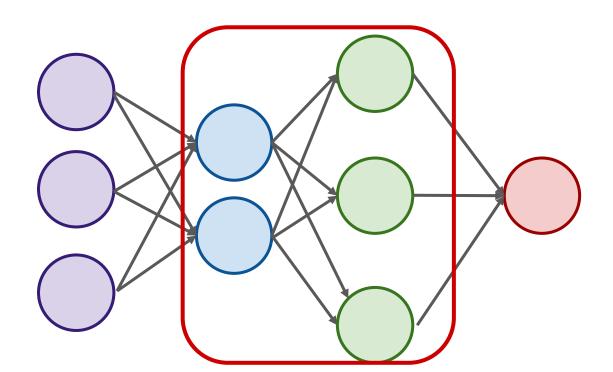
The first layer is the input layer



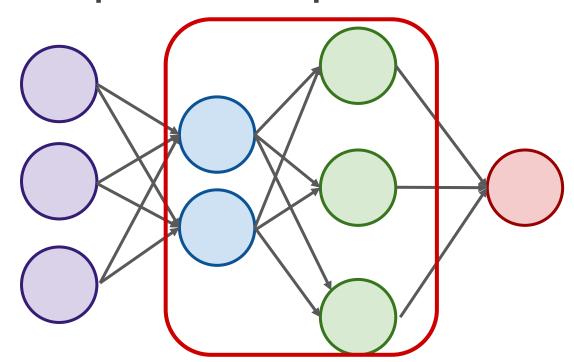
- The last layer is the output layer.
- Note: This last layer can be more than one neuron



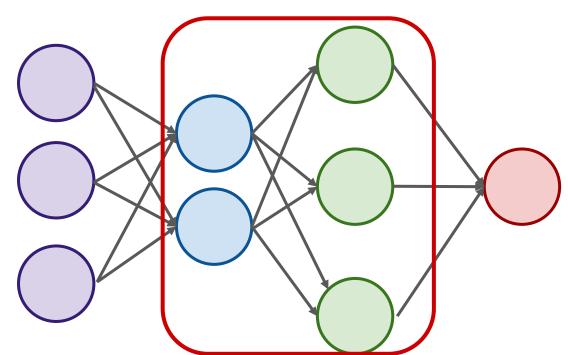
 Layers in between the input and output layers are the hidden layers.



 Hidden layers are difficult to interpret, due to their high interconnectivity and distance away from known input or output values.

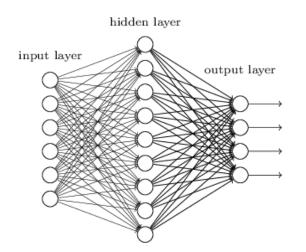


 Neural Networks become "deep neural networks" if then contain 2 or more hidden layers.

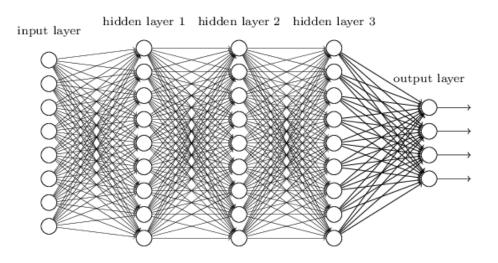


 Neural Networks become "deep neural networks" if then contain 2 or more hidden layers.

"Non-deep" feedforward neural network



Deep neural network



- Terminology:
 - Input Layer: First layer that directly accepts real data values
 - Hidden Layer: Any layer between input and output layers
 - Output Layer: The final estimate of the output.

- What is incredible about the neural network framework is that it can be used to approximate any function.
- Zhou Lu and later on Boris Hanin proved mathematically that Neural Networks can approximate any convex continuous function.

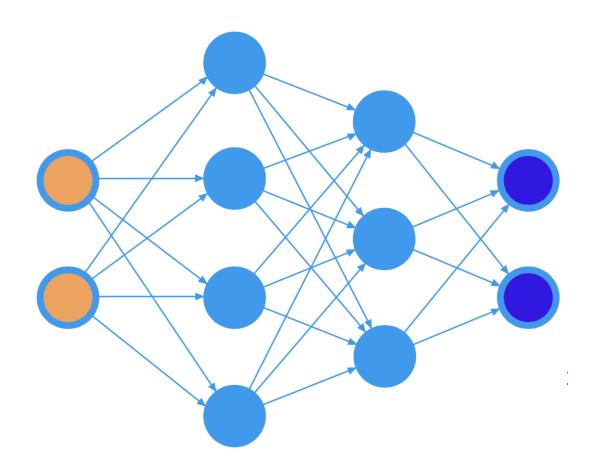
 For more details on this check out the Wikipedia page for "Universal Approximation Theorem"

- Previously in our simple model we saw that the perceptron itself contained a very simple summation function f(x).
- For most use cases however that won't be useful, we'll want to be able to set constraints to our output values, especially in classification tasks.

- In a classification tasks, it would be useful to have all outputs fall between 0 and 1.
- These values can then present probability assignments for each class.
- In the next lecture, we'll explore how to use activation functions to set boundaries to output values from the neuron.



Activation Functions



Deep Learning

- Recall that inputs x have a weight w and a bias term b attached to them in the perceptron model.
- Which means we have
 - \circ x*w + b

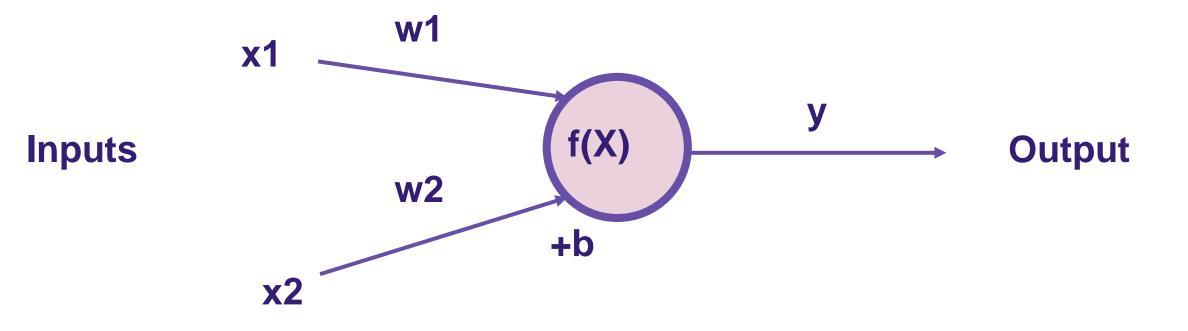
- Which means we have
 - \circ $x^*w + b$
 - Clearly w implies how much weight or strength to give the incoming input.
 - We can think of b as an offset value, making x*w have to reach a certain threshold before having an effect.

- For example if b= -10
 - \circ x*w + b
 - Then the effects of x*w won't really start to overcome the bias until their product surpasses 10.
 - After that, then the effect is solely based on the value of w.
 - Thus the term "bias"

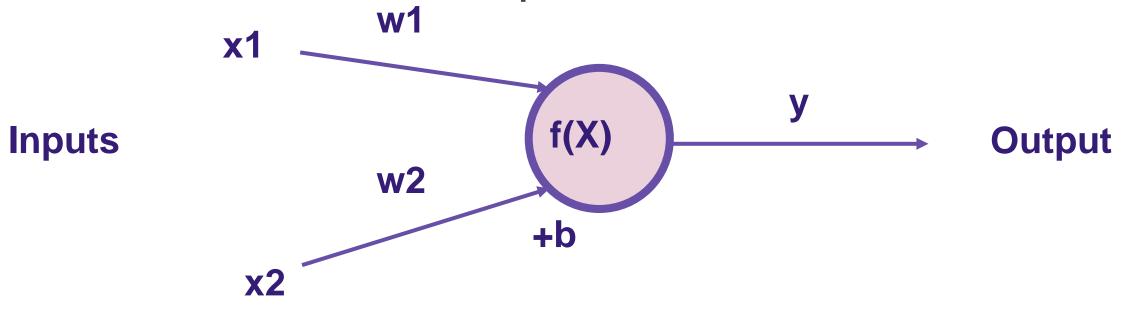
- Next we want to set boundaries for the overall output value of:
 - \circ $x^*w + b$
 - We can state:
 - \circ $z = x^*w + b$
 - And then pass z through some activation function to limit its value.

- A lot of research has been done into activation functions and their effectiveness.
- Let's explore some common activation functions.

Recall our simple perceptron has an f(X)

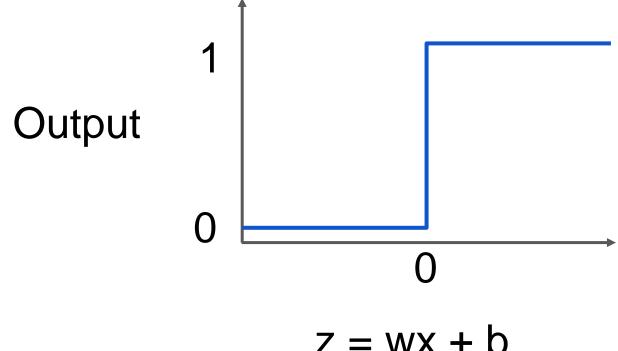


• If we had a binary classification problem, we would want an output of either 0 or 1.



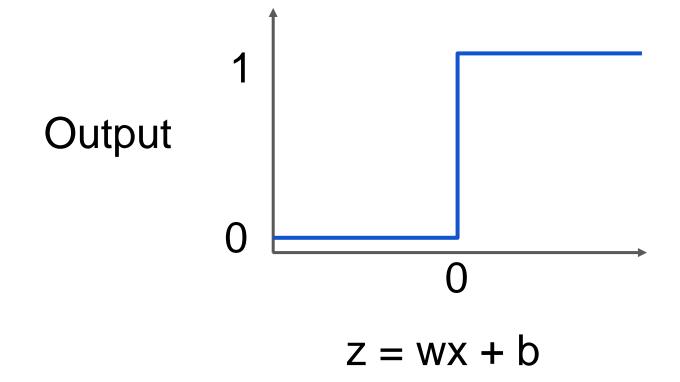
- To avoid confusion, let's define the total inputs as a variable z.
- Where z = wx + b
- In this context, we'll then refer to activation functions as f(z).
- Keep in mind, you will often see these variables capitalized f(Z) or X to denote a tensor input consisting of multiple values.

 The most simple networks rely on a basic step function that outputs 0 or 1.

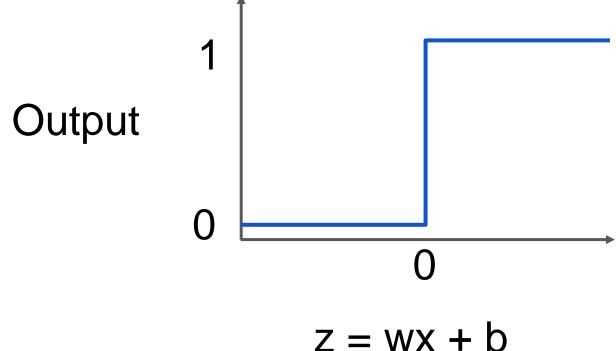


$$z = wx + b$$

 Regardless of the values, this always outputs 0 or 1.

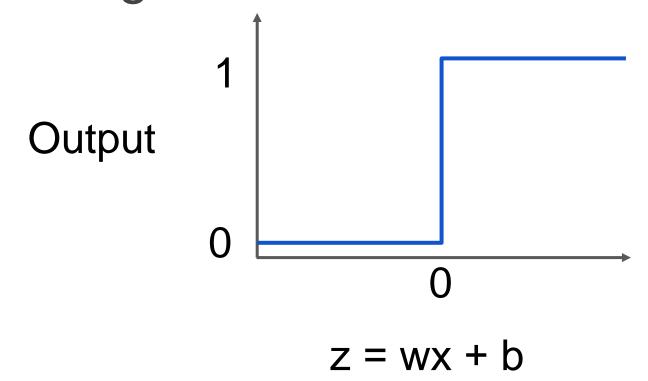


 This sort of function could be useful for classification (0 or 1 class).

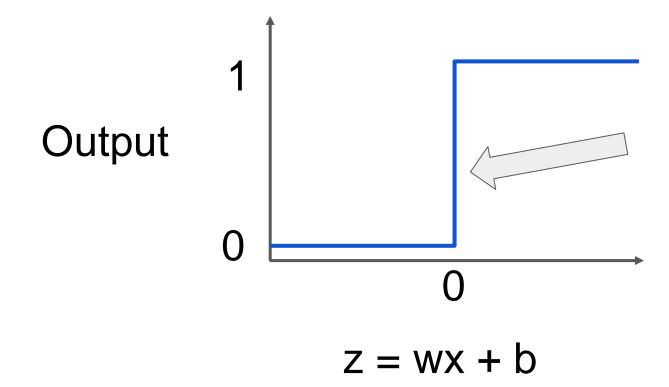


$$z = wx + b$$

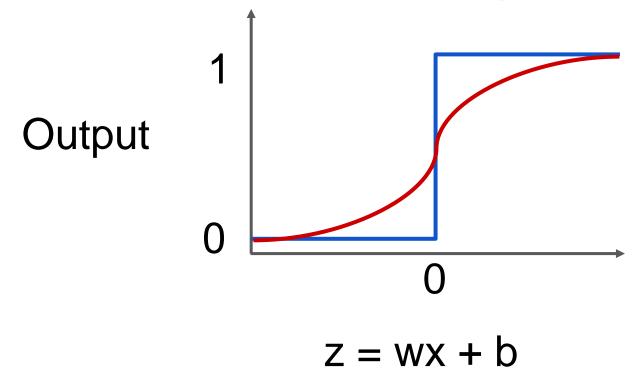
 However this is a very "strong" function, since small changes aren't reflected.



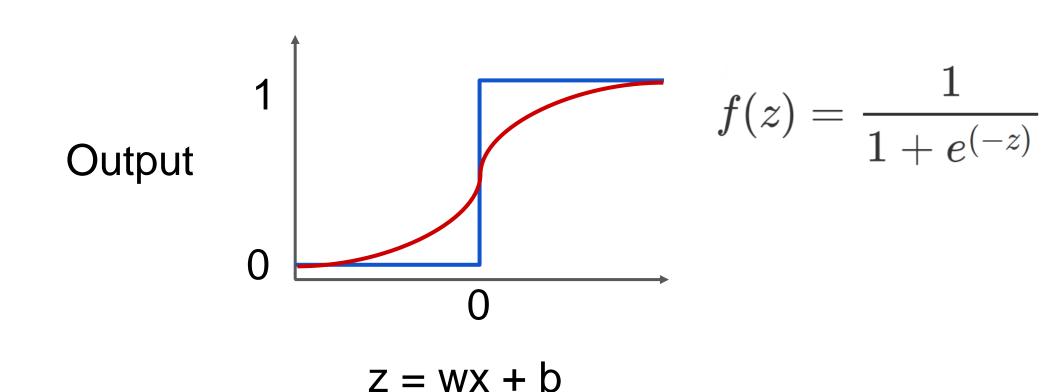
 There is just an immediate cut off that splits between 0 and 1.



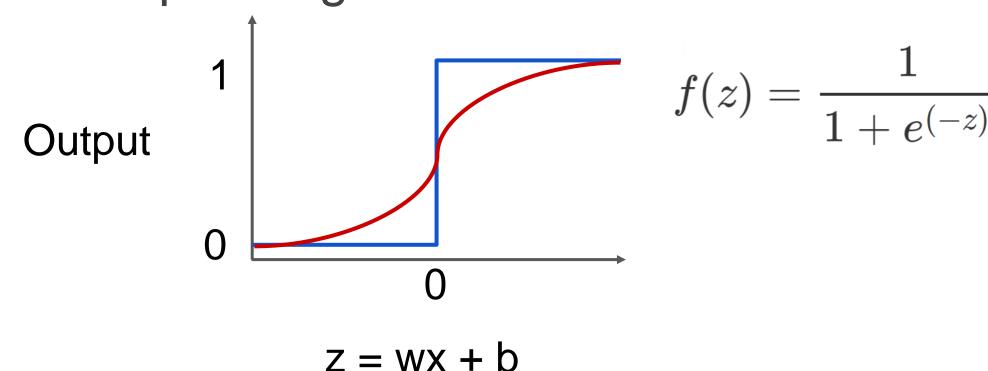
 It would be nice if we could have a more dynamic function, for example the red line!



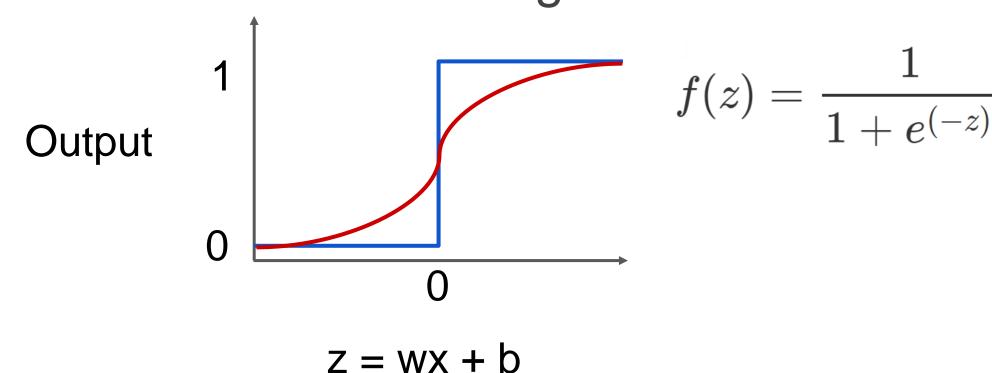
Lucky for us, this is the sigmoid function!



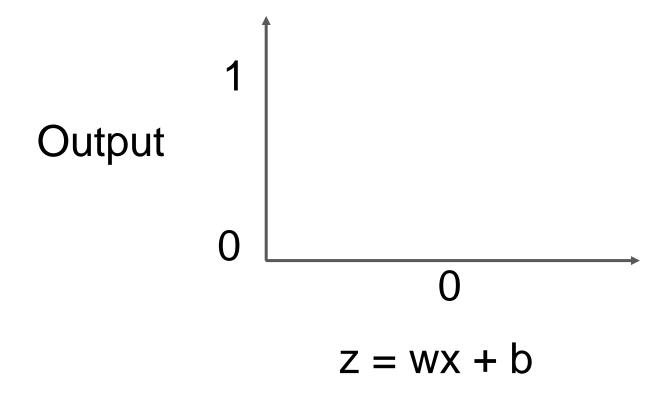
 Changing the activation function used can be beneficial depending on the task!



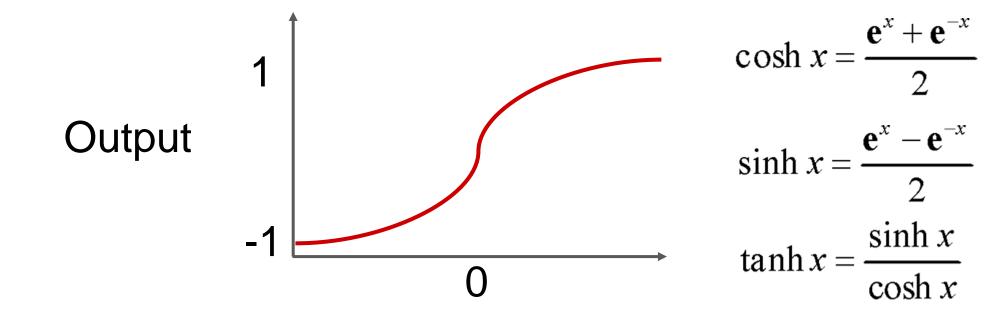
 This still works for classification, and will be more sensitive to small changes.



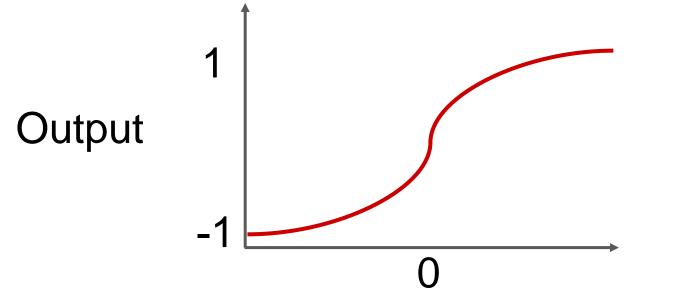
 Let's discuss a few more activation functions that we'll encounter!



Hyperbolic Tangent: tanh(z)



- Hyperbolic Tangent: tanh(z)
- Outputs between -1 and 1 instead of 0 to 1

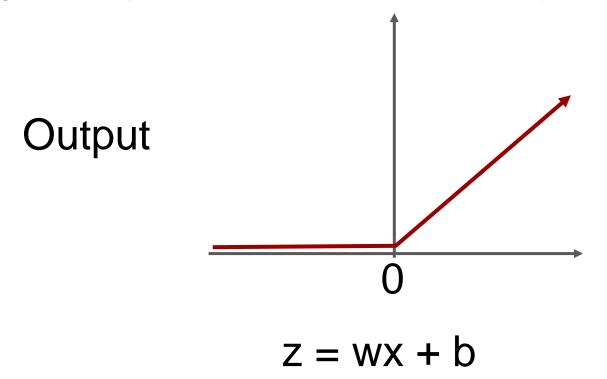


$$\cosh x = \frac{\mathbf{e}^x + \mathbf{e}^{-x}}{2}$$

$$\sinh x = \frac{\mathbf{e}^x - \mathbf{e}^{-x}}{2}$$

$$tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}$$

 Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): This is actually a relatively simple function: max(0,z)

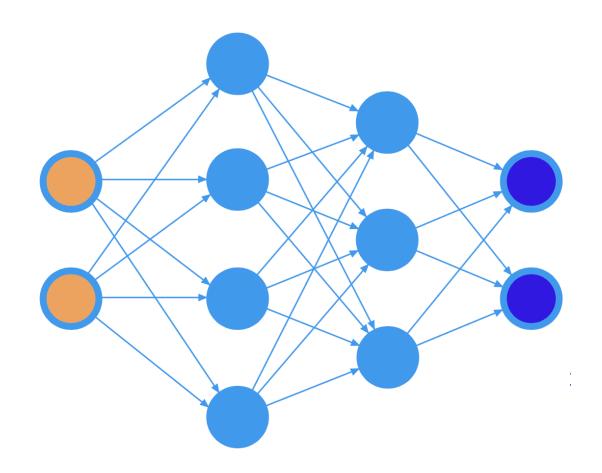


- ReLu has been found to have very good performance, especially when dealing with the issue of vanishing gradient.
- We'll often default to ReLu due to its overall good performance.

- For a full list of possible activation functions check out:
- en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Activation_function



Multi-Class Activation Functions



- Notice all these activation functions make sense for a single output, either a continuous label or trying to predict a binary classification (either a 0 or 1).
- But what should we do if we have a multi-class situation?

- There are 2 main types of multi-class situations
 - Non-Exclusive Classes
 - A data point can have multiple classes/categories assigned to it
 - Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - Only one class per data point.

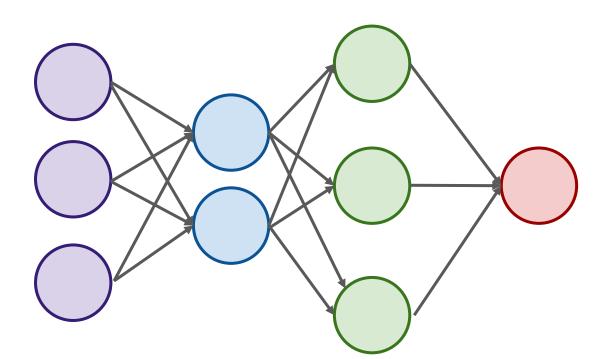
- Non-Exclusive Classes
 - A data point can have multiple classes/categories assigned to it
 - Photos can have multiple tags (e.g. beach, family, vacation, etc...)

- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - A data point can only have one class/category assigned to it
 - Photos can be categorized as being in grayscale (black and white) or full color photos. A photo can not be both at the same time.

- Organizing Multiple Classes
 - The easiest way to organize multiple classes is to simply have 1 output node per class.

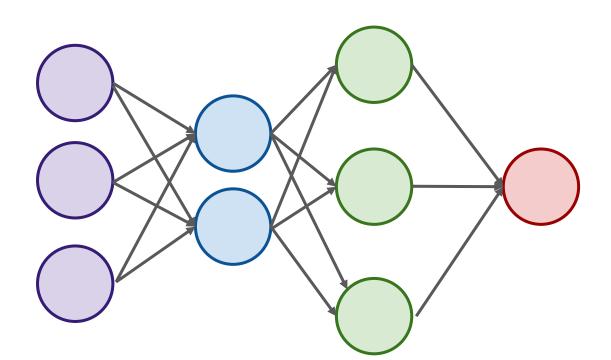
Neural Networks

 Previously we thought of the last output layer as a single node.



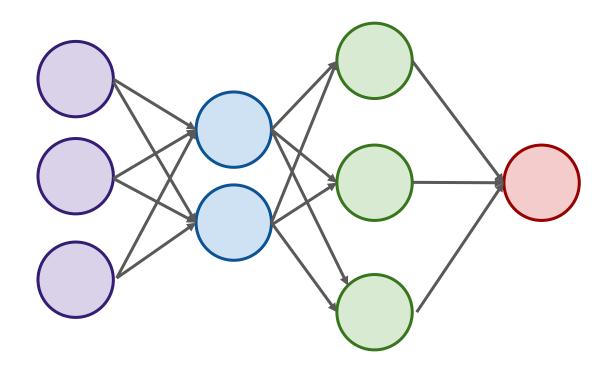
Neural Networks

 This single node could output a continuous regression value or binary classification (0 or 1).

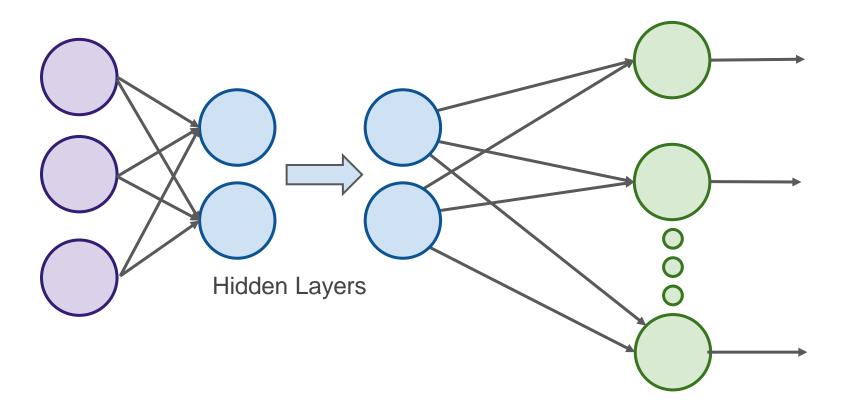


Neural Networks

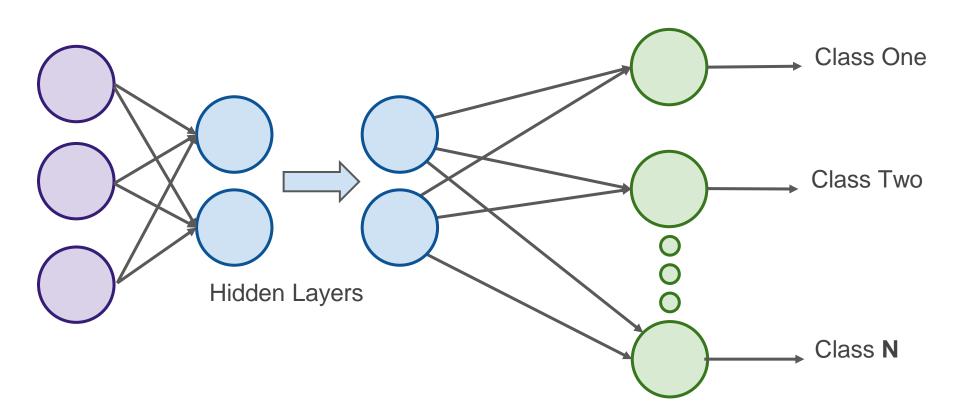
 Let's expand this output layer to work for the case of multi-classification.



Organizing for Multiple Classes



Organizing for Multiple Classes



- Organizing Multiple Classes
 - This means we will need to organize categories for this output layer.
 - We can't just have categories like "red",
 "blue", "green", etc...

- Organizing Multiple Classes
 - Instead we use one-hot encoding
 - Let's take a look at what this looks like for mutually exclusive classes.

Mutually Exclusive Classes

| Data Point 1 | RED | | |
|--------------|-------|--|--|
| Data Point 2 | GREEN | | |
| Data Point 3 | BLUE | | |
| ••• | | | |
| Data Point N | RED | | |

Mutually Exclusive Classes

| Data Point 1 | RED | | |
|--------------|-------|--|--|
| Data Point 2 | GREEN | | |
| Data Point 3 | BLUE | | |
| | ••• | | |
| Data Point N | RED | | |

| | RED | GREEN | BLUE |
|--------------|-----|-------|------|
| Data Point 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Data Point 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Data Point 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | ••• | | ••• |
| Data Point N | 1 | 0 | 0 |

Non-Exclusive Classes

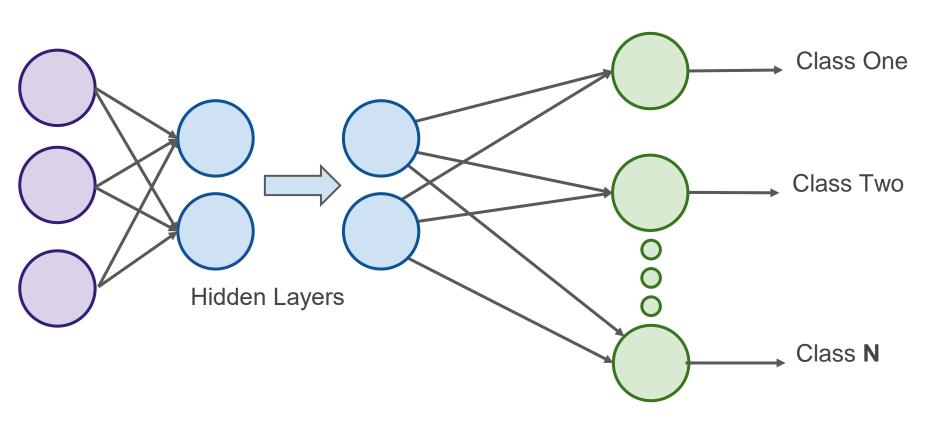
| Data Point 1 | A,B |
|--------------|-----|
| Data Point 2 | Α |
| Data Point 3 | C,B |
| ••• | ••• |
| Data Point N | В |

| | A | В | С |
|--------------|-----|---|---|
| Data Point 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Data Point 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Data Point 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | ••• | | |
| Data Point N | 0 | 1 | 0 |

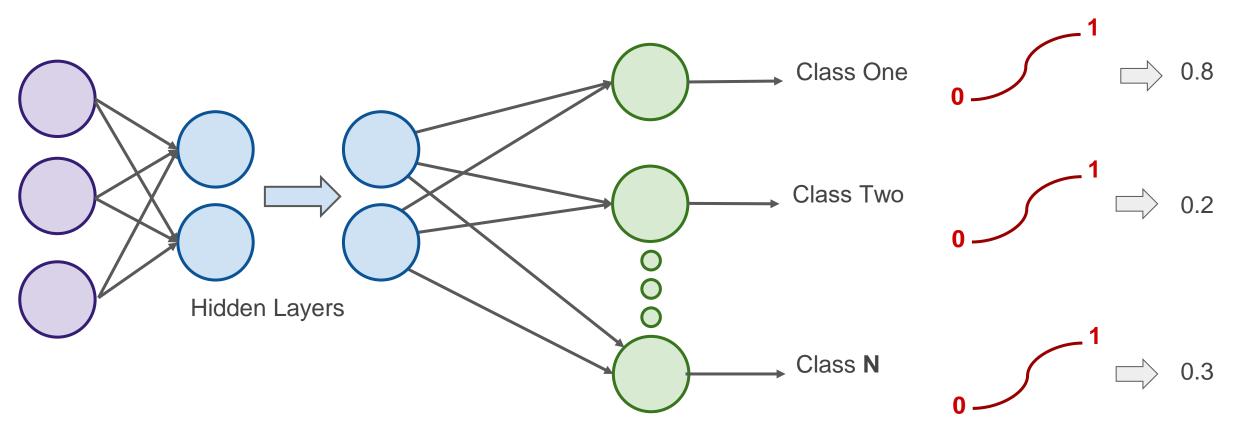
 Now that we have our data correctly organized, we just need to choose the correct classification activation function that the last output layer should have.

- Non-exclusive
 - Sigmoid function
 - Each neuron will output a value between 0 and 1, indicating the probability of having that class assigned to it.

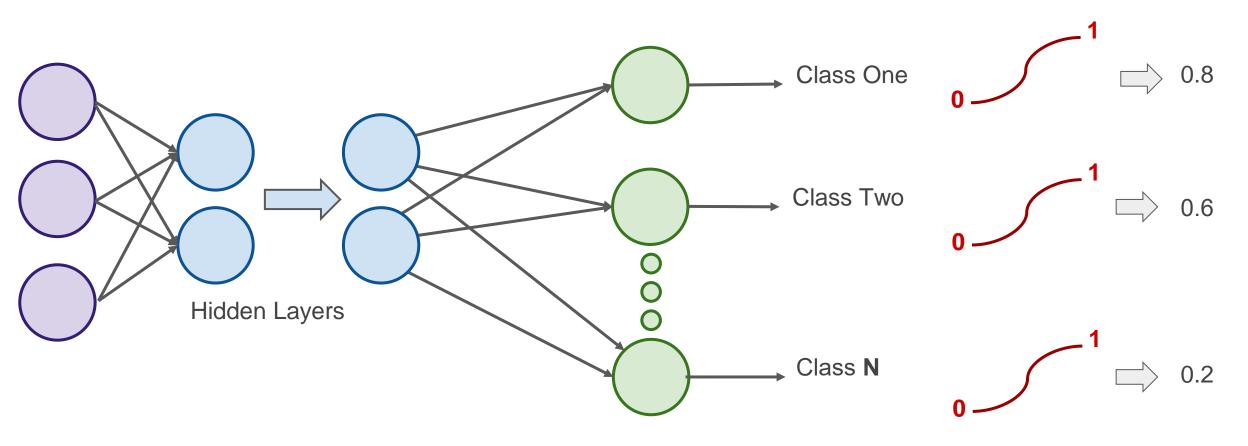
Sigmoid Function for Non-Exclusive Classes



Sigmoid Function for Non-Exclusive Classes



Sigmoid Function for Non-Exclusive Classes



- Non-exclusive
 - Sigmoid function
 - Keep in mind this allows each neuron to output independent of the other classes, allowing for a single data point fed into the function to have multiple classes assigned to it.

- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - But what do we do when each data point can only have a single class assigned to it?
 - We can use the softmax function for this!

Softmax Function

$$\sigma(\mathbf{z})_i = rac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{z_j}}$$
 for i = 1, ..., K

- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - Softmax function calculates the probabilities distribution of the event over K different events.
 - This function will calculate the probabilities of each target class over all possible target classes.

- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - The range will be 0 to 1, and the sum of all the probabilities will be equal to one.
 - The model returns the probabilities of each class and the target class chosen will have the highest probability.

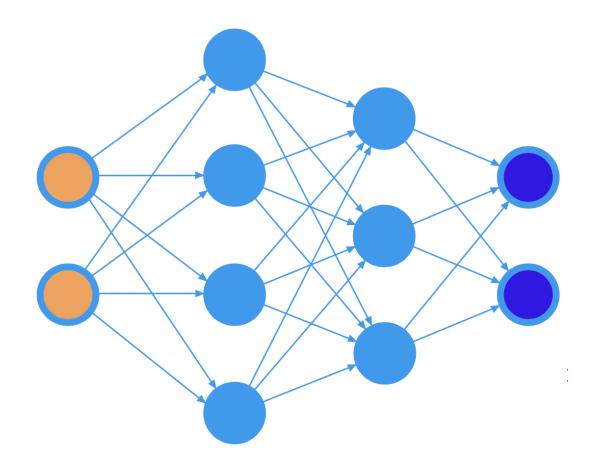
- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - The main thing to keep in mind is that if you use softmax for multi-class problems you get this sort of output:
 - [Red, Green, Blue]
 - **•** [0.1 , 0.6 , 0.3]

- Mutually Exclusive Classes
 - The probabilities for each class all sum up to
 1. We choose the highest probability as our assignment.
 - [Red, Green, Blue]
 - **•** [0.1 , 0.6 , 0.3]

- Review
 - Perceptrons expanded to neural network model
 - Weights and Biases
 - Activation Functions
 - Time to learn about Cost Functions!



Cross Functions and Gradient Descent



- We now understand that neural networks take in inputs, multiply them by weights, and add biases to them.
- Then this result is passed through an activation function which at the end of all the layers leads to some output.

- This output ŷ is the model's estimation of what it predicts the label to be.
- So after the network creates its prediction, how do we evaluate it?
- And after the evaluation how can we update the network's weights and biases?

- We need to take the estimated outputs of the network and then compare them to the real values of the label.
- Keep in mind this is using the training data set during the fitting/training of the model.

- The cost function (often referred to as a loss function) must be an average so it can output a single value.
- We can keep track of our loss/cost during training to monitor network performance.

- We'll use the following variables:
 - y to represent the true value
 - a to represent neuron's prediction
 - In terms of weights and bias:
 - \circ $w^*x + b = z$
 - Pass z into activation function $\sigma(z) = a$

One very common cost function is the quadratic cost function:

$$C = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{x} ||y(x) - a^{L}(x)||^{2}$$

 We simply calculate the difference between the real values y(x) against our predicted values a(x).

$$C = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{x} \|y(x) - a^{L}(x)\|^{2}$$

 Note: The notation shown here corresponds to vector inputs and outputs, since we will be dealing with a **batch** of training points and predictions.

$$C = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{x} ||y(x) - a^{L}(x)||^{2}$$

 Notice how squaring this does 2 useful things for us, keeps everything positive and punishes large errors!

$$C = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{x} \|y(x) - a^{L}(x)\|^{2}$$

We can think of the cost function as:

$$C(W, B, S^r, E^r)$$

 W is our neural network's weights, B is our neural network's biases, S^r is the input of a single training sample, and E^r is the desired output of that training sample.

$$C(W, B, S^r, E^r)$$

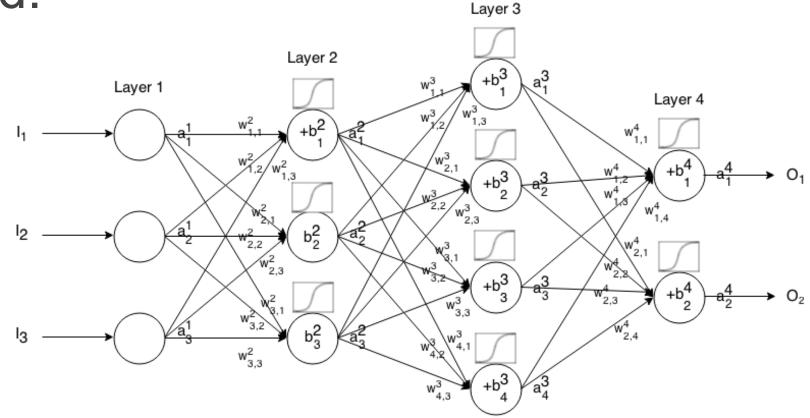
- Notice how that information was all encoded in our simplified notation.
- The a(x) holds information about weights and biases.

$$C = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{x} \|y(x) - a^{L}(x)\|^{2}$$

 This means that if we have a huge network, we can expect C to be quite complex, with huge vectors of weights and biases.

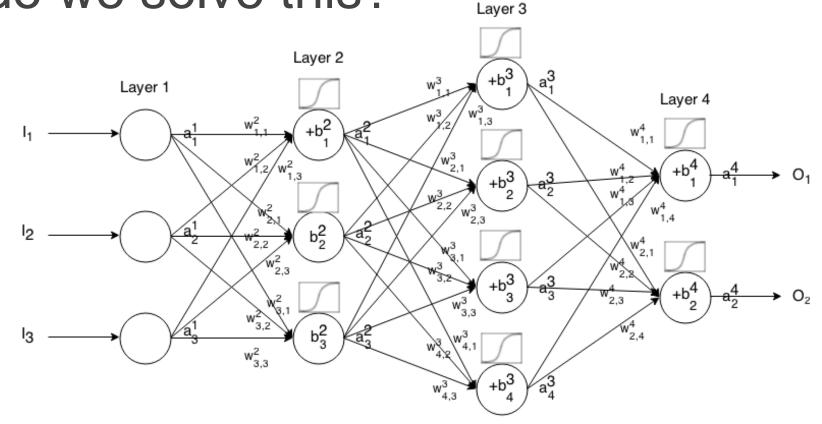
$$C(W, B, S^r, E^r)$$

 Here is a small network with all its parameters labeled:



That is a lot to calculate!

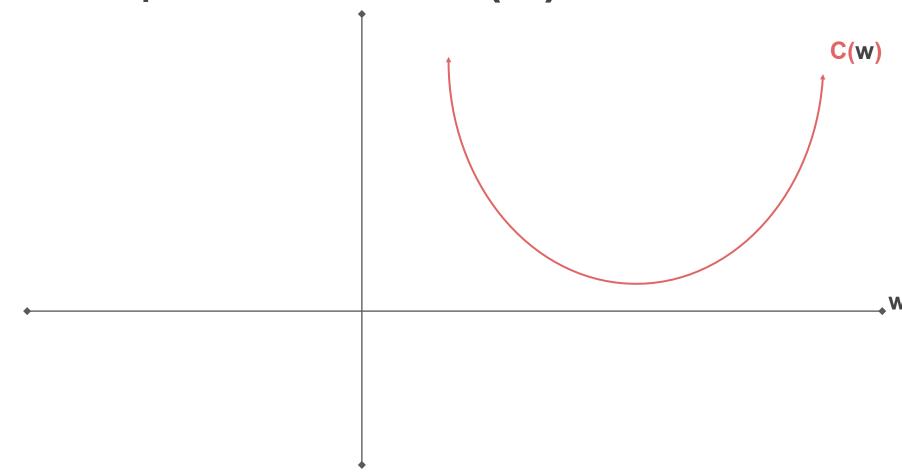
How do we solve this?



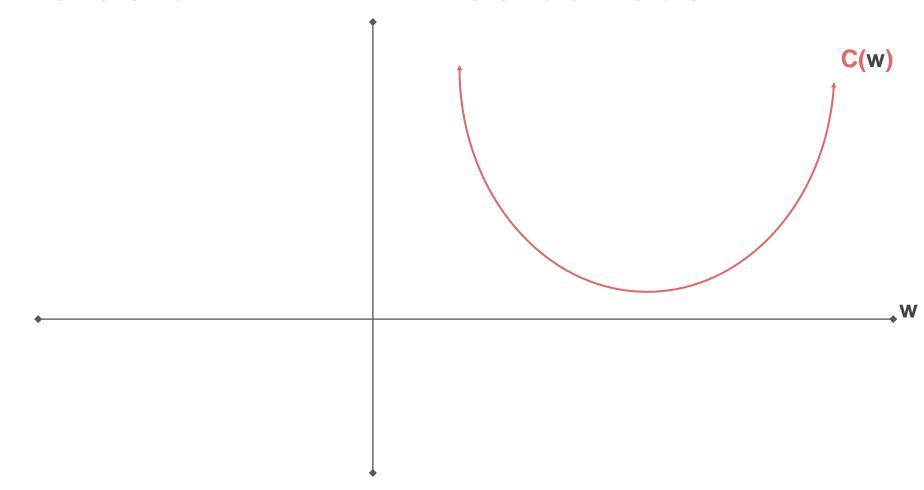
- In a real case, this means we have some cost function C dependent lots of weights!
 - C(w1,w2,w3,....wn)
 - How do we figure out which weights lead us to the lowest cost?

- For simplicity, let's imagine we only had one weight in our cost function w.
- We want to minimize our loss/cost (overall error).
- Which means we need to figure out what value of w results in the minimum of C(w)

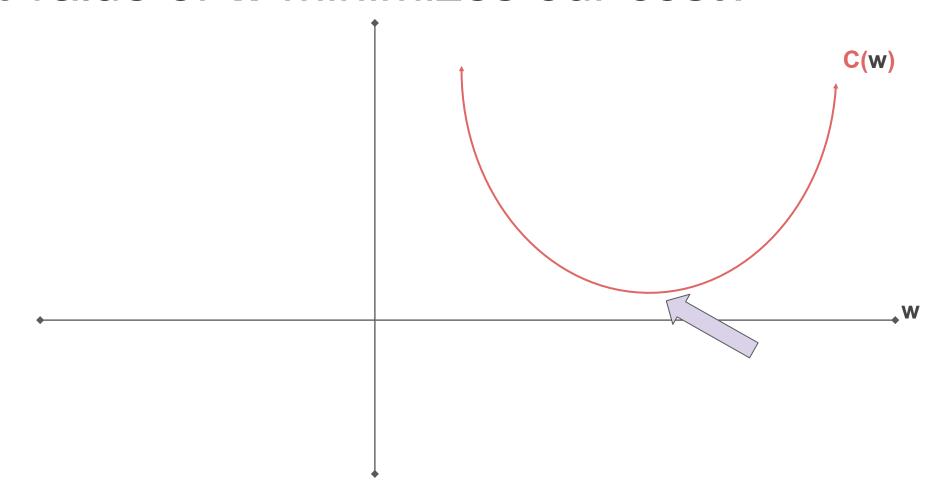
Our "simple" function C(w)



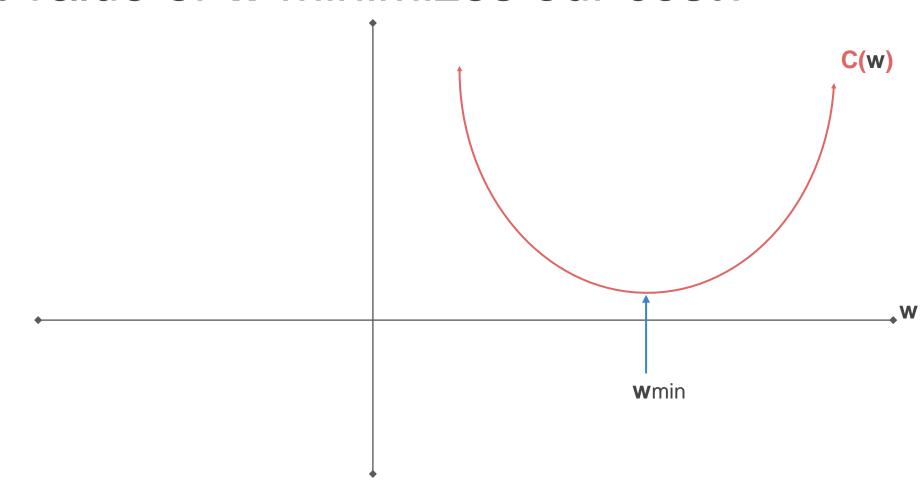
• What value of **w** minimizes our cost?



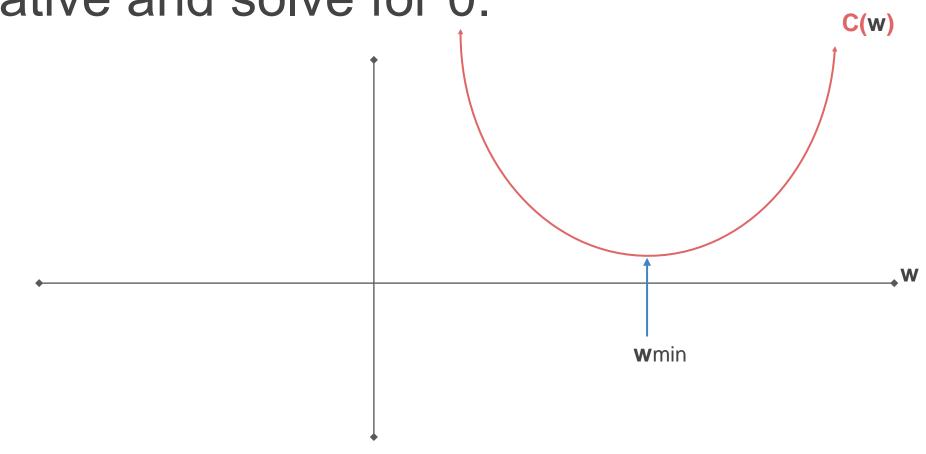
• What value of w minimizes our cost?



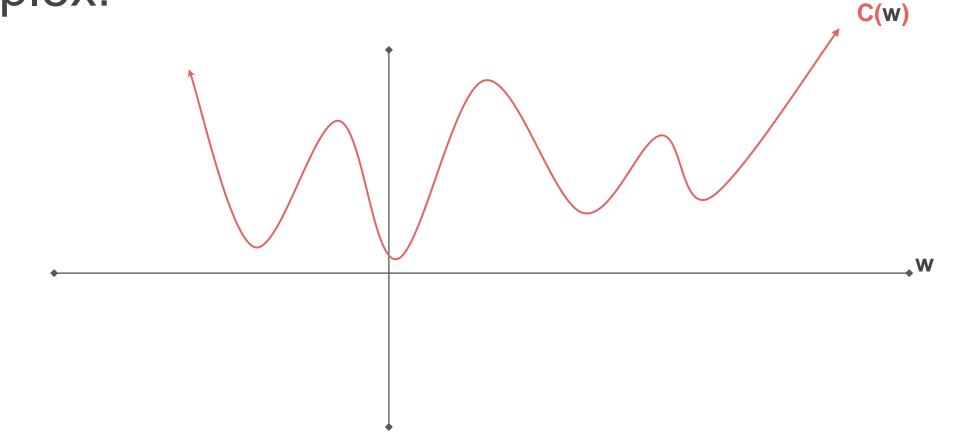
• What value of **w** minimizes our cost?



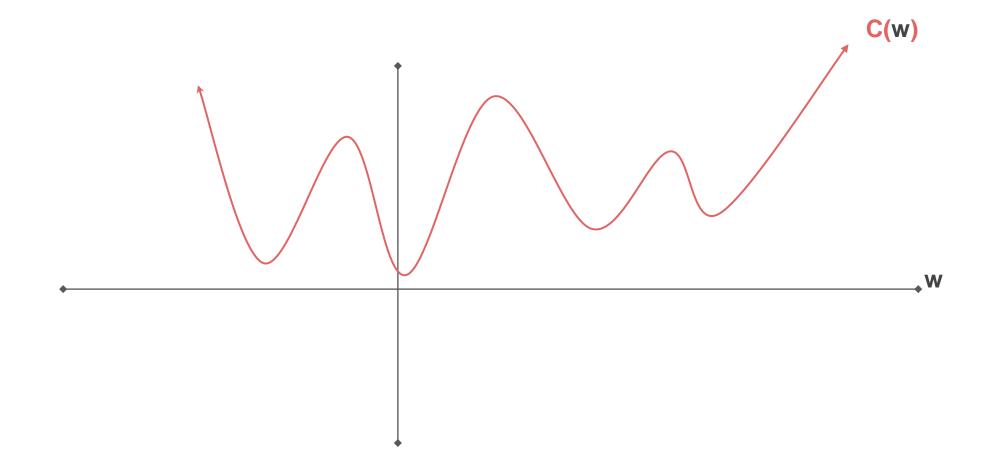
 Students of calculus know we could take a derivative and solve for 0.



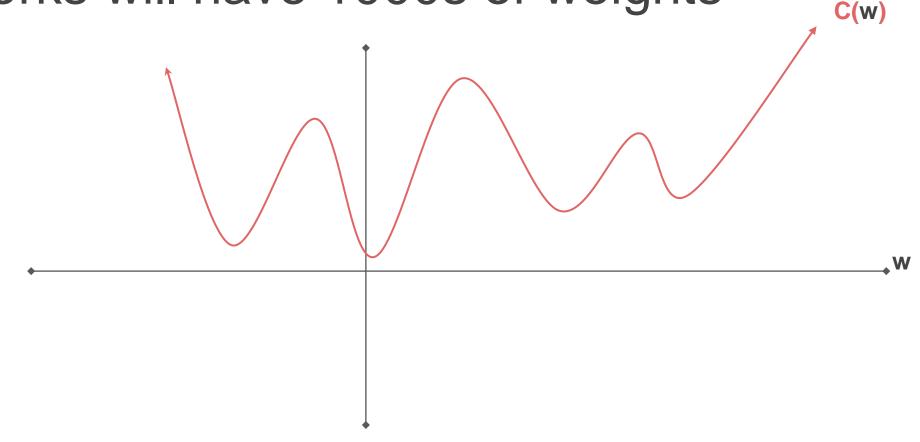
 But recall our real cost function will be very complex!



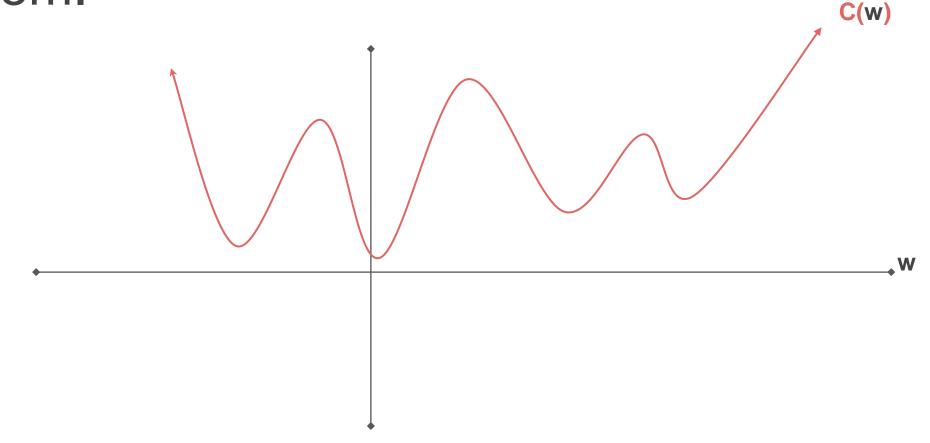
And it will be n-dimensional!



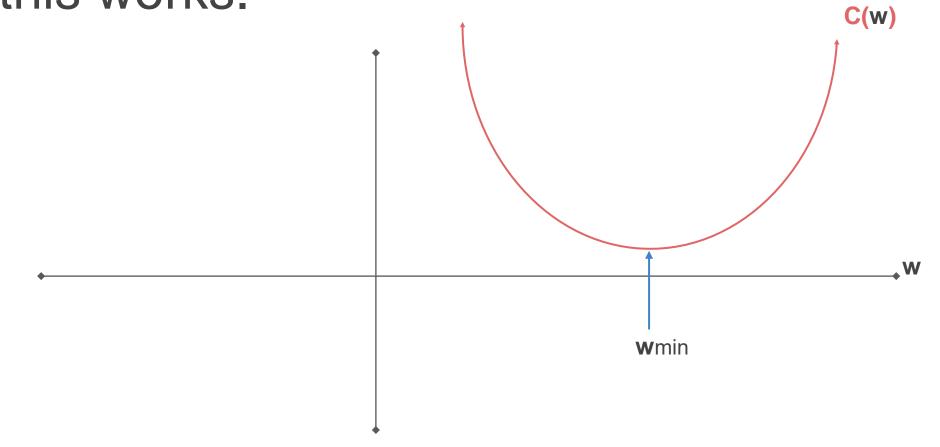
 And it will be n-dimensional since our networks will have 1000s of weights



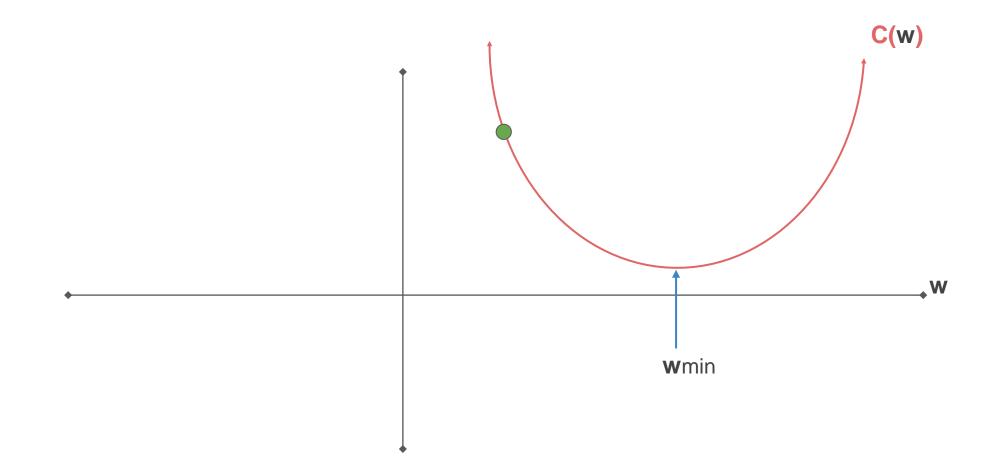
• We can use **gradient descent** to solve this problem.



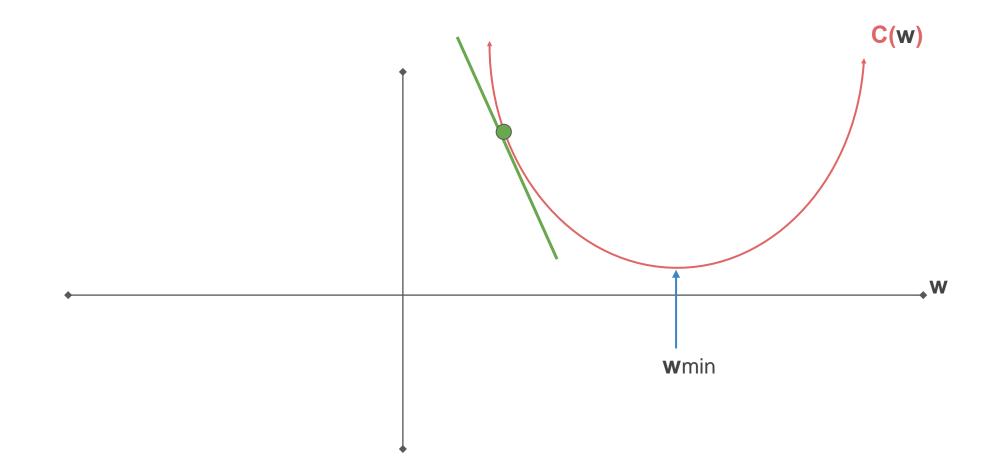
 Let's go back to our simplified version to see how this works.



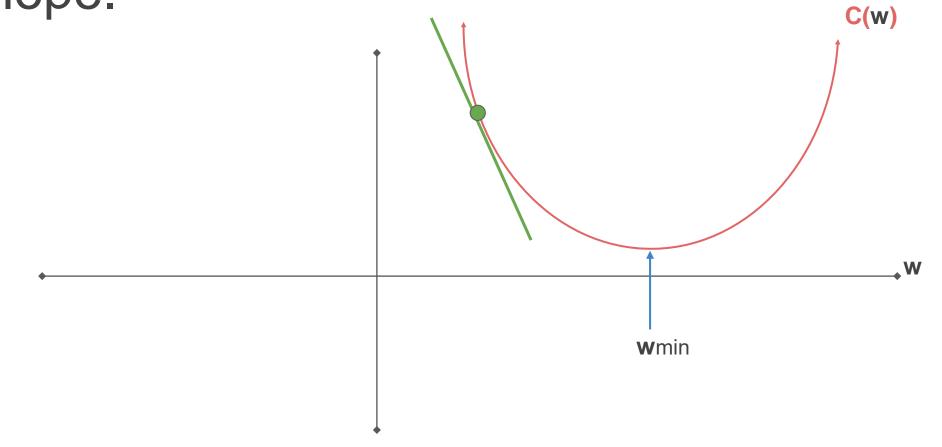
We can calculate the slope at a point



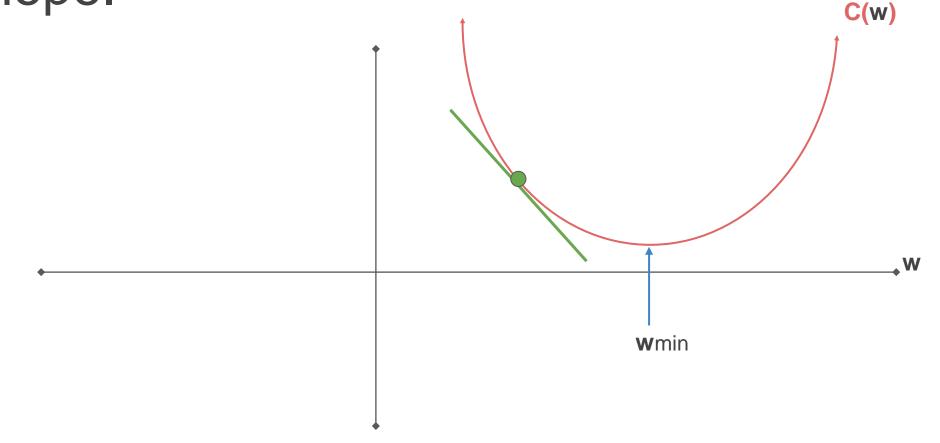
We can calculate the slope at a point



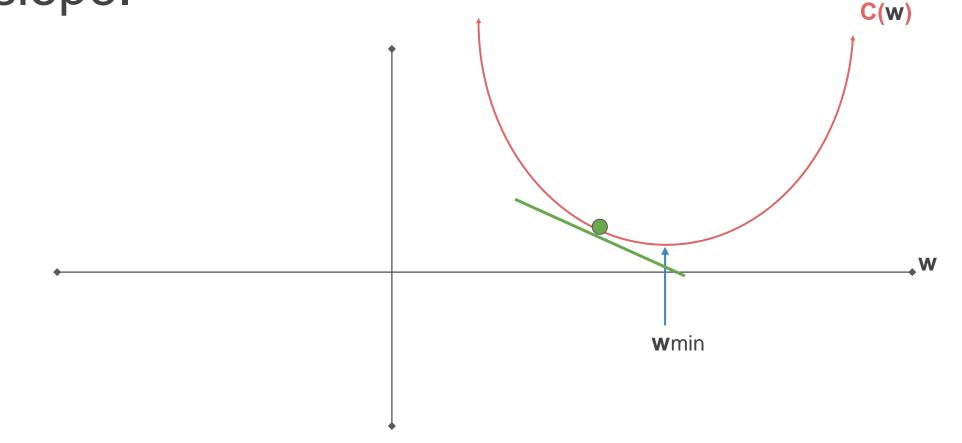
• Then we move in the downward direction of the slope.



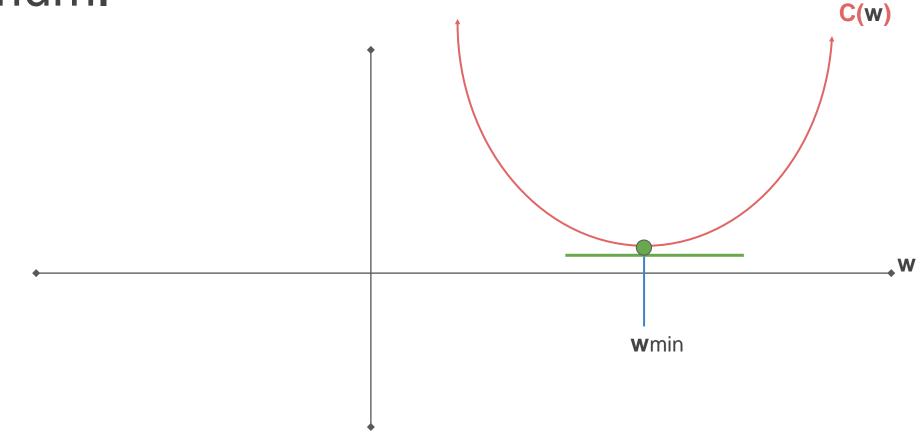
• Then we move in the downward direction of the slope.



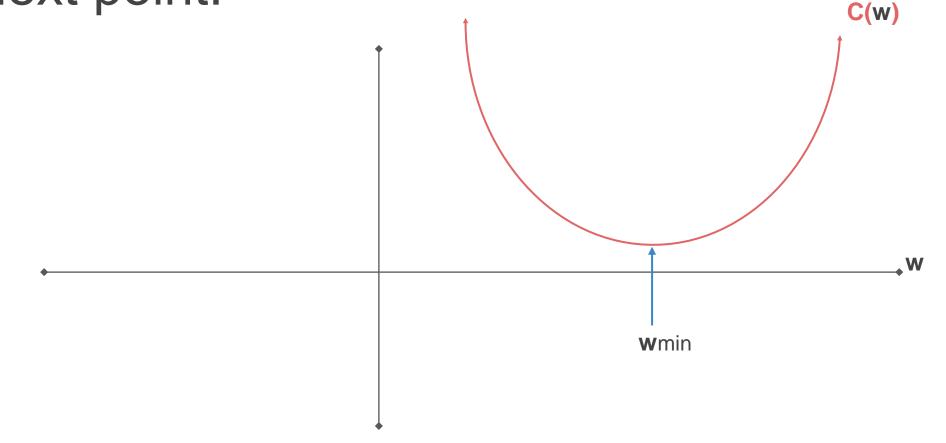
• Then we move in the downward direction of the slope.



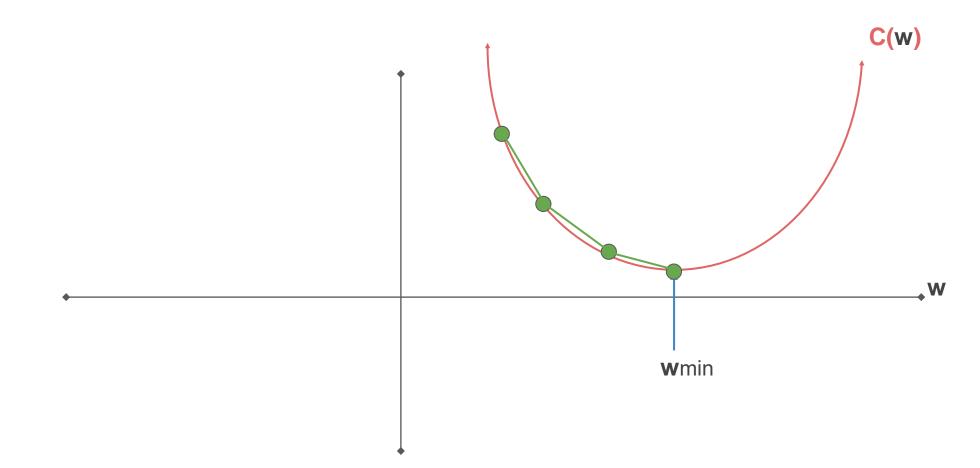
Until we converge to zero, indicating a minimum.



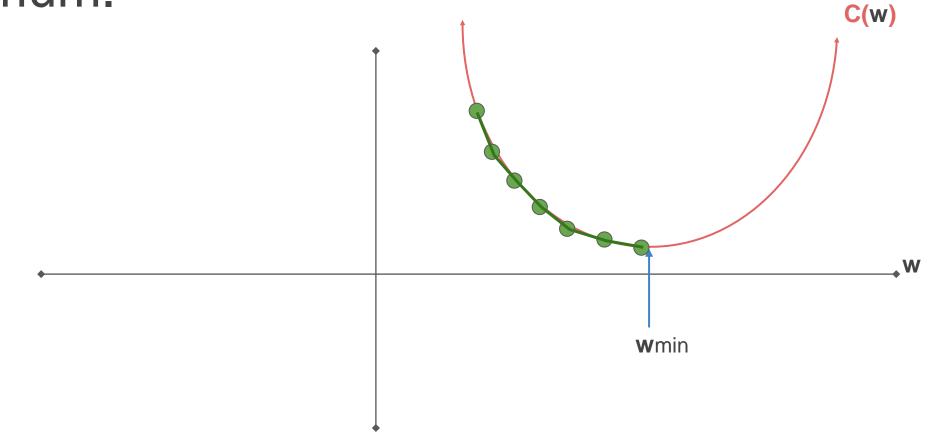
 We could have changed our step size to find the next point!



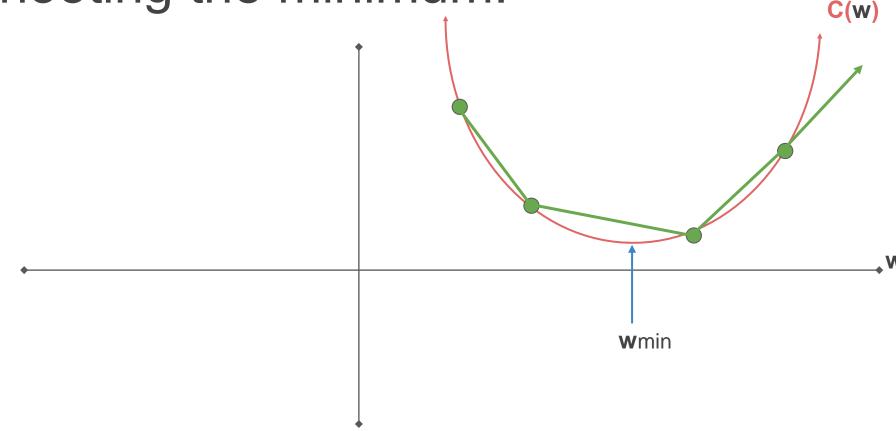
• Our steps:



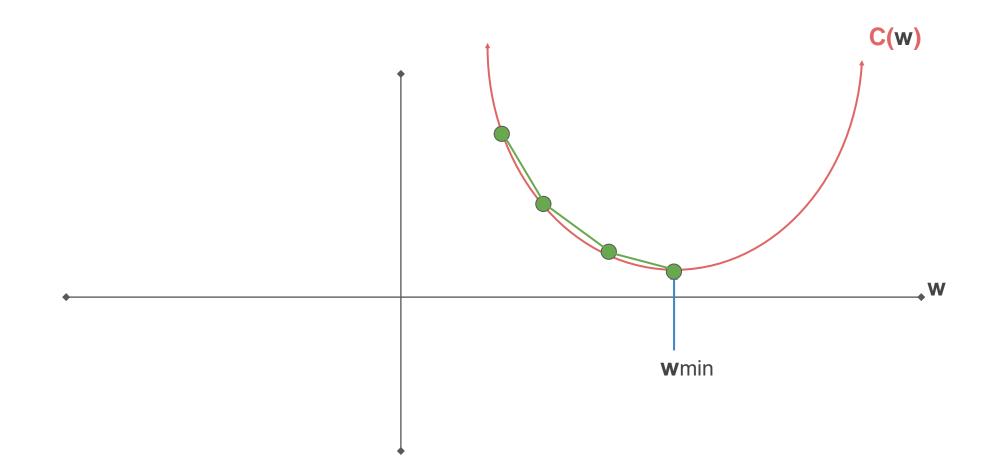
Smaller steps sizes take longer to find the minimum.



 Larger steps are faster, but we risk overshooting the minimum!



• This step size is known as the learning rate.

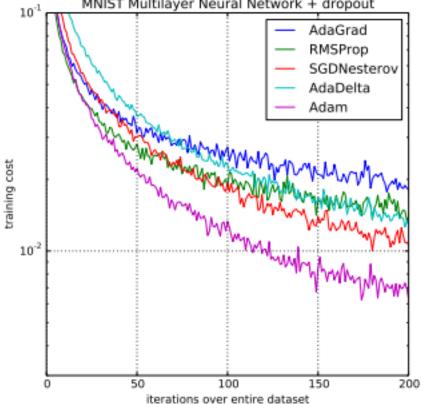


- The learning rate we showed in our illustrations was constant (each step size was equal)
- But we can be clever and adapt our step size as we go along.

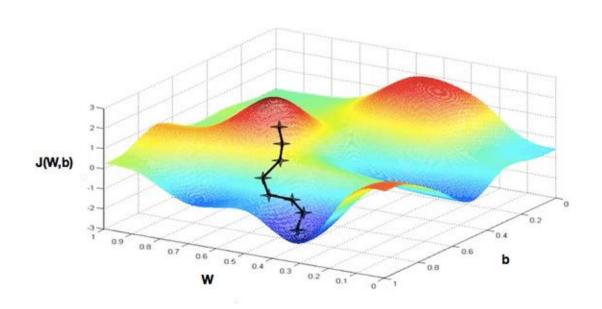
- We could start with larger steps, then go smaller as we realize the slope gets closer to zero.
- This is known as adaptive gradient descent.

- In 2015, Kingma and Ba published their paper:
 "Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization".
- Adam is a much more efficient way of searching for these minimums, so you will see us use it for our code!

 Adam versus other gradient descent algorithms:



 Realistically we're calculating this descent in an n-dimensional space for all our weights.



- When dealing with these N-dimensional vectors (tensors), the notation changes from derivative to gradient.
- This means we calculate $\nabla C(w1, w2, ..., wn)$

- For classification problems, we often use the cross entropy loss function.
- The assumption is that your model predicts a probability distribution p(y=i) for each class i=1,2,...,C.

For a binary classification this results in:

$$-(y\log(p)+(1-y)\log(1-p))$$

• For M number of classes > 2

$$-\sum_{c=1}^M y_{o,c} \log(p_{o,c})$$

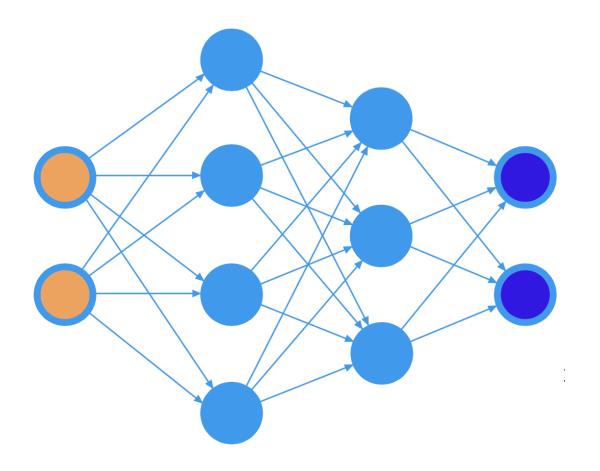
- Review:
 - Cost Functions
 - Gradient Descent
 - Adam Optimizer
 - Quadratic Cost and Cross-Entropy

- So far we understand how networks can take in input, effect that input with weights, biases, and activation functions to produce an estimated output.
- Then we learned how to evaluate that output.

- The last thing we need to learn about theory is:
 - Once we get our cost/loss value, how do we actually go back and adjust our weights and biases?
 - This is backpropagation, and it is what we are going to cover next!



Backpropagation



Neural Networks

- The last theory topic we will cover is backpropagation.
- We'll start by building an intuition behind backpropagation, and then we'll dive into the calculus and notation of backpropagation.

 Fundamentally, we want to know how the cost function results changes with respect to the weights in the network, so we can update the weights to minimize the cost function

 Let's begin with a very simple network, where each layer only has 1 neuron



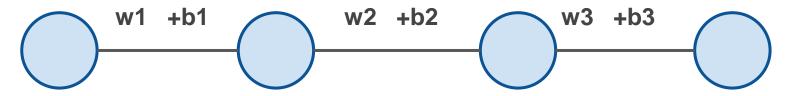
Each input will receive a weight and bias



- This means we have:
 - C(w1,b1,w2,b2,w3,b3)



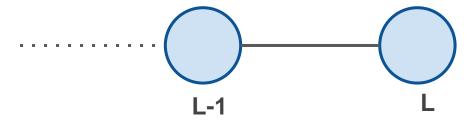
- We've already seen how this process propagates forward.
- Let's start at the end to see the backpropagation.



 Let's say we have L layers, then our notation becomes:

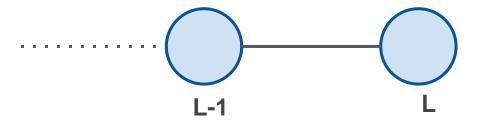


- Focusing on these last two layers, let's define
 z=wx+b
- Then applying an activation function we'll state: $\mathbf{a} = \sigma(\mathbf{z})$



This means we have:

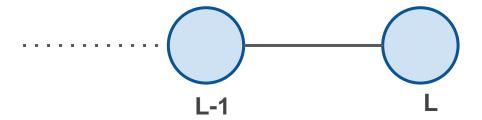
$$o$$
 $z^L = w^L a^{L-1} + b^L$



This means we have:

$$z^L = w^L a^{L-1} + b^L$$

$$\circ a^{L} = \sigma(z^{L})$$

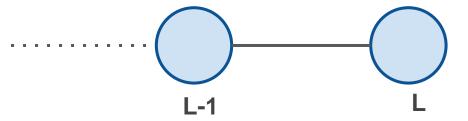


This means we have:

$$z^L = w^L a^{L-1} + b^L$$

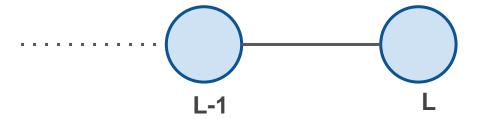
$$\circ a^L = \sigma(z^L)$$

$$\circ$$
 $C_0(...) = (a^L - y)^2$



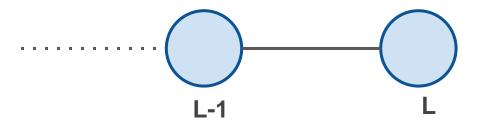
 We want to understand how sensitive is the cost function to changes in w:

$$\frac{\partial C_0}{\partial w^L}$$



 Using the relationships we already know along with the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial C_0}{\partial w^L} = \frac{\partial z^L}{\partial w^L} \frac{\partial a^L}{\partial z^L} \frac{\partial C_0}{\partial a^L}$$



We can calculate the same for the bias terms:

$$\frac{\partial C_0}{\partial b^L} = \frac{\partial z^L}{\partial b^L} \frac{\partial a^L}{\partial z^L} \frac{\partial C_0}{\partial a^L}$$

 The main idea here is that we can use the gradient to go back through the network and adjust our weights and biases to minimize the output of the error vector on the last output layer.

- Using some calculus notation, we can expand this idea to networks with multiple neurons per layer.
- Hadamard Product

$$egin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \end{bmatrix} \odot egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 4 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 1 * 3 \ 2 * 4 \end{bmatrix} = egin{bmatrix} 3 \ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Given this notation and backpropagation, we have a few main steps to training neural networks.
- Note! You do not need to fully understand these intricate details to continue with the coding portions.

- Step 1: Using input x set the activation function a for the input layer.
 - \circ z = wx + b
 - \circ a = $\sigma(z)$
- This resulting a then feeds into the next layer (and so on).

Step 2: For each layer, compute:

$$z^L = w^L a^{L-1} + b^L$$

$$\circ a^{L} = \sigma(z^{L})$$

- Step 3: We compute our error vector:
 - $\circ \quad \delta^{L} = \nabla_{a} \mathbf{C} \odot \sigma'(\mathbf{z}^{L})$

• Step 3: We compute our error vector:

$$\circ \quad \delta^{L} = \nabla_{a} \mathbf{C} \odot \sigma'(\mathbf{z}^{L})$$

- $\nabla_a \mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{a}^L \mathbf{y})$
- Expressing the rate of change of C
 with respect to the output activations

- Step 3: We compute our error vector:
 - ∘ $\delta^L = (a^L y) \odot \sigma'(z^L)$

- Step 3: We compute our error vector:
 - ∘ $\delta^L = (a^L y) \odot \sigma'(z^L)$
- Now let's write out our error term for a layer in terms of the error of the next layer (since we're moving backwards).
- Font Note: Iowercase L
- Font Note: Number 1

- Step 4: Backpropagate the error:
 - For each layer: L-1,L-2,... we compute (note the lowercase L (I)):

 - (w^{l+1})^T is the transpose of the weight matrix of l+1 layer

- Step 4: Backpropagate the error:
 - This is the generalized error for any layer I:

 - (w^{l+1})^T is the transpose of the weight matrix of L+1 layer

• Step 4: When we apply the transpose weight matrix, $(w^{l+1})^T$ we can think intuitively of this as moving the error backward through the network, giving us some sort of measure of the error at the output of the lth layer.

Step 4: We then take the Hadamard product
 Oσ'(z^I). This moves the error backward
 through the activation function in layer I, giving
 us the error δ^I in the weighted input to layer I.

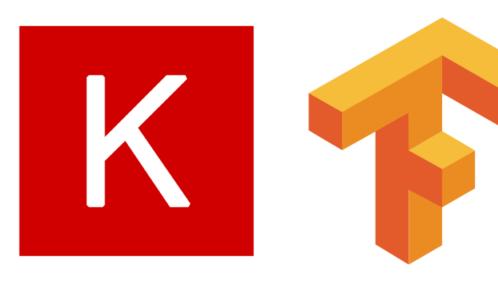
- The gradient of the cost function is given by:
 - ∘ For each layer: L−1,L−2,... we compute

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial w_{jk}^l} = a_k^{l-1} \delta_j^l \qquad \frac{\partial C}{\partial b_j^l} = \delta_j^l$$

- This then allows us to adjust the weights and biases to help minimize that cost function.
- Check out the external links for more details!



TensorFlow and Keras



 Before we begin learning how to code our own neural networks, let's quickly clarify the differences between TensorFlow and Keras!

 TensorFlow is an open-source deep learning library developed by Google, with TF 2.0 being officially released in late 2019.

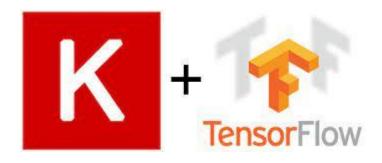


 TensorFlow has a large ecosystem of related components, including libraries like Tensorboard,
 Deployment and Production APIs, and support for various programming languages.

 Keras is a high-level python library that can use a variety of deep learning libraries underneath, such as: TensorFlow, CNTK, or Theano.

TensorFlow 1.x had a complex python class system for building models, and due to the huge popularity of Keras, when TF 2.0 was released, TF adopted Keras as the official API for TF.

 While Keras still also remains as a separate library from Tensorflow, it can also now officially be imported through TF, so there is now need to additionally install it.

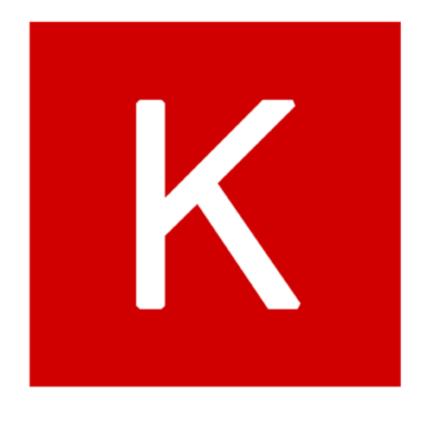


 The Keras API is easy to use and builds models by simply adding layers on top of each other through simple calls.

Let's now explore the basics of the Keras API for TensorFlow!



Keras Classification Code Along – Part 1



Keras

 This session will show how to perform a classification task with TensorFlow.

 We will also focus on how to identify and deal with overfitting through Early Stopping Callbacks and Dropout Layers.

- Early Stopping
 - Keras can automatically stop training based on a loss condition on the validation data passed during the model.fit() call.

- Dropout Layers
 - Dropout can be added to layers to "turn off" neurons during training to prevent overfitting.

- Dropout Layers
 - Each Dropout layer will "drop" a user-defined percentage of neuron units in the previous layer every batch.



Tensorboard



 Tensorboard is a visualization tool from Google designed to work in conjunction with TensorFlow to visualize various aspects of your model.

 Here we will simply understand how to view the Tensorboard dashboard in our browser and analyze an existing model.

 NOTE - This session requires that you understand file paths and the location of your notebook or .py file!

 Keep in mind, Tensorboard is a separate library from TensorFlow.

 Google Collab Users can follow with Google's official guide and pre-made notebook:

https://www.tensorflow.org/tensorboard/tensorboard_in_notebooks