Types of Learning

- Supervised
 - Structured/labeled data
 - Ex: picture \rightarrow label
 - Ex: picture \rightarrow digit number
- Unsupervised
 - Unstructured data
 - Dataset of pictures(not labeled)
- m denotes # of training examples

Binary Classification

- Classifies whether the input (is/has) or (isn't/doesnt have) a particular thing.
- Ex: Given an image, tell whether it has a cat in it or not 1(cat) vs 0(non-cat).
- In general, computers store images in 3 matrices(red, green, and blue) each of size width x height
- Images are stretched into a single column vector, usually starting with all the red pixels then all the green ones, then all the blue ones.
- n_x = the dimension of the input features
 - Ex: $64 \times 64 \times 3 = n_x = 12288$
- A single training example is denoted as:
 - -(x,y) where $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ and $y \in \{0,1\}$
- m training examples: $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$
 - Other common notation:
 - * $m = m_{train}$
 - * $m_{test} = \#$ test examples
- X is used to denote a matrix of all the inputs
 - $-X \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times m}$
 - $-X.\text{shape} = (n_x, m)$
- Y is used to denote a row vector of all the labels
 - $-Y = [y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(m)}]$ $-Y \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$

 - Y.shape = (1, m)

Logistic Regression

- Given x, we want $\hat{y} = P(y = 1 \mid x)$
- Parameters:
 - $-x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$
 - $-b \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output:
 - $-\sigma(w^Tx+b)$

- We use the sigmoid function to make sure that the output is between 0 and 1, and centered on 0.5

Logistic Regression Cost Function

- Given $\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$, we want $\hat{y}^{(i)} \approx y^{(i)}$
- Loss(error) function:
 - Computes the error for a single training example
 - $-L(\hat{y}, y) = -(y \log \hat{y} + (1 y) \log (1 \hat{y}))$

 - $\begin{array}{l} -\text{ If } y=1: \mathcal{L}(\hat{y},y)=-\text{ log } \hat{y} \leftarrow \text{ wants } \hat{y} \text{ to be large} \\ -\text{ If } y=0: \mathcal{L}(\hat{y},y)=-\text{ log } (1-y) \leftarrow \text{ wants } \hat{y} \text{ to be small} \end{array}$
- Cost function:
 - Averages the loss of the entire training set
 - $-J(w,b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) i_{\perp}$

Gradient Descent

- $\begin{array}{ll} \bullet & w := w \alpha \frac{dJ(w,b)}{dw} \\ \bullet & b := b \alpha \frac{dJ(w,b)}{db} \\ \bullet & \alpha \text{ is called the Learning Rate} \end{array}$

Neural Network Representation

- Each layer is denoted by $a^{[n]}$
 - a is a column vector representing activations of neurons
 - The superscript n represents the layer that we are looking at
- The input layer is denoted $a^{[0]}$

Activation Functions

- Activation functions are denoted $g^{[n]}$
 - q represents the function
 - -n represents the layer
- Previously, we used Sigmoid(σ)
 - Output is always between 0 and 1
 - Centered on 0.5
- Tanh is another alternative
 - Output is always between -1 and 1
 - Centered on 0
- Tanh is usually much better except for the output layer for binary activation
- ReLU = max(0, z)
 - Rectified Linear Unit
- Leaky ReLU is another option
- No activation function is called a linear Activation function.
 - Its very uncommon to use a linear activation function.

- Sometimes used for the output layer when $y \in \mathbb{R}$

L-layer Deep Neural Network

• Forward Pass

$$-\ Z^{[\ell]} = W^{[\ell]} \cdot A^{[\ell-1]} + b^{[\ell]}$$

$$-A^{[\ell]} = g^{[\ell]}(Z^{[\ell]})$$

• Backward Pass

$$-dZ^{[\ell]} = dA^{[\ell]} * q^{[\ell]} (Z^{[\ell]})$$

$$-dW^{[\ell]} = \frac{1}{m} dZ^{[\ell]} \cdot A^{[\ell-1]}$$

ackward Pass
$$-dZ^{[\ell]} = dA^{[\ell]} * g^{[\ell]} \cdot (Z^{[\ell]})$$

$$-dW^{[\ell]} = \frac{1}{m} dZ^{[\ell]} \cdot A^{[\ell-1]T}$$

$$-db^{[\ell]} = \frac{1}{m} \text{np.sum} (dZ^{[\ell]}, \text{axis=1})$$

$$-dA^{[\ell-1]} = W^{[\ell]T} \cdot dZ^{[\ell]}$$

$$- dA^{[\ell-1]} = W^{[\ell]T} \cdot dZ^{[\ell]}$$

Train/Dev/Test Sets

- For small datasets, you have to allocate a larger % of examples for testing and validation.
 - Ex: 70/30 train/test split
- For larger datasets, a much larger % of examples are used for testing.
 - Ex: 99/1/1 train/dev/test split
- Always make sure the dev and test sets come from the same distribution.

Bias/Variance

- High **Bias** means underfitting.
 - Ex: 15% training error and 16% dev error
- High Variance means overfitting.
 - Ex: 1% training error and 11% dev error.
- High bias and high variance can both be present.
 - Ex: 15% training error and 30 % dev error.
- In between high bias and high variance is just right
 - Ex: 0.5% training error and 1% dev error.

Basic Recipe for Machine Learning

- Issues with high bias?
 - Increase the size of your network
 - Train longer
- High variance?
 - Try to get more data
 - Regularization
 - More appropriate architecture

L2 Regularization

- L2 Regularization
 - Sum of all the weights squared

$$||w||_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n_x} w_j^2 = w^T w$$

Dropout Regularization

- keep prob = 0.8
- $d3 = np.random.randn(a3.shape[0], a3.shape[1]) < keep_prob$
- a3 = np.myltiply(a3, d3)
- $a3 /= keep_prob$
 - This is called *Inverted Dropout*
 - This line ensures that the values are bumped up for the next layer

Normalizing Inputs

- Normalizing Inputs allows us to use larger learning rates because we wont be oscilating back and forth in our loss function
- Subtract Mean

$$-\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x^{(i)} - x := x - \mu$$

• Normalize Variance
$$-\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x * 2$$
* element-wise squaring
$$-x/=\sigma^2$$

Gradient Check

- Compute the gradient, d/theta, then compute the limit of the gradient and compare the two in euclidean distance
- 10⁻{-7} is usually considered a fine margin of difference
- 10⁻{-5} is questionable but may be fine
- 10⁻{-3} is very likely that something is wrong