

In this chapter

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- What is a neural network, and what does it do?
- Making a prediction with multiple inputs
- Making a prediction with multiple outputs
- Making a prediction with multiple inputs and outputs
- Predicting on predictions

“ I try not to get involved in the business of prediction.
It's a quick way to look like an idiot. ”

—Warren Ellis comic-book writer,
novelist, and screenwriter

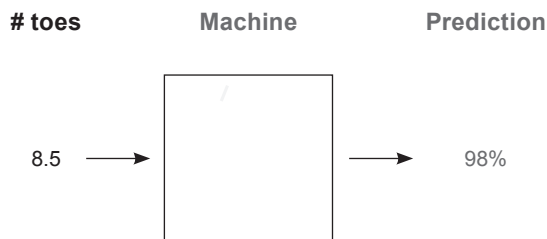
Step 1: Predict

This chapter is about prediction.

In the previous chapter, you learned about the paradigm *predict, compare, learn*. In this chapter, we'll dive deep into the first step: *predict*. You may remember that the predict step looks a lot like this:



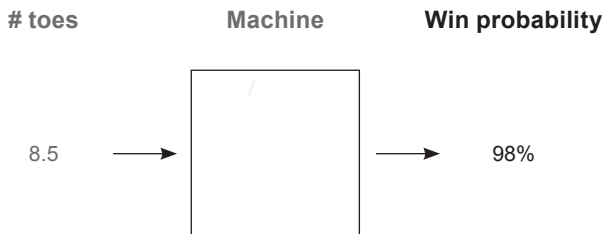
In this chapter, you'll learn more about what these three different parts of a neural network prediction look like under the hood. Let's start with the first one: the data. In your first neural network, you're going to predict one datapoint at a time, like so:



Later, you'll find that the number of datapoints you process at a time has a significant impact on what a network looks like. You might be wondering, "How do I choose how many datapoints to propagate at a time?" The answer is based on whether you think the neural network can be accurate with the data you give it.

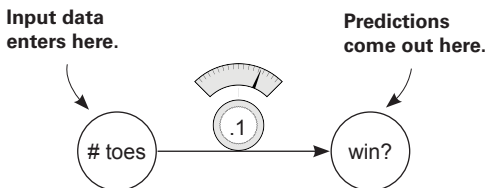
For example, if I'm trying to predict whether there's a cat in a photo, I definitely need to show my network all the pixels of an image at once. Why? Well, if I sent you only one pixel of an image, could you classify whether the image contained a cat? Me neither! (That's a general rule of thumb, by the way: always present enough information to the network, where "enough information" is defined loosely as how much a human might need to make the same prediction.)

Let's skip over the network for now. As it turns out, you can create a network only after you understand the shape of the input and output datasets (for now, *shape* means “number of columns” or “number of datapoints you’re processing at once”). Let’s stick with a single prediction of the likelihood that the baseball team will win:



Now that you know you want to take one input datapoint and output one prediction, you can create a neural network. Because you have only one input datapoint and one output datapoint, you’re going to build a network with a single knob mapping from the input point to the output. (Abstractly, these “knobs” are actually called *weights*, and I’ll refer to them as such from here on out.) So, without further ado, here’s your first neural network, with a single weight mapping from the input “# toes” to the output “win?”:

① An empty network



As you can see, with one weight, this network takes in one datapoint at a time (average number of toes per player on the baseball team) and outputs a single prediction (whether it thinks the team will win).

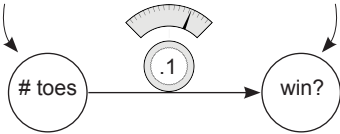
A simple neural network making a prediction

Let's start with the simplest neural network possible.

1 An empty network

Input data
enters here.

Predictions
come out here.

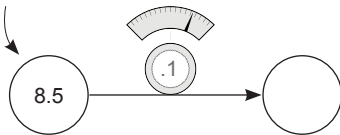


```
weight = 0.1
```

```
def neural_network(input, weight):  
    prediction = input * weight  
    return prediction
```

2 Inserting one input datapoint

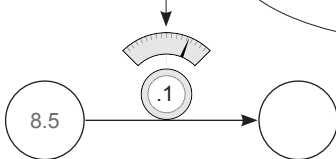
Input data
(# toes)



```
number_of_toes = [8.5, 9.5, 10, 9]  
input = number_of_toes[0]  
pred = neural_network(input, weight)  
print(pred)
```

3 Multiplying input by weight

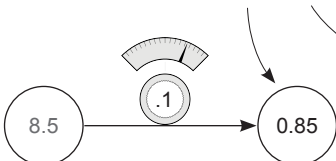
$(8.5 * 0.1 = 0.85)$



```
def neural_network(input, weight):  
    prediction = input * weight  
    return prediction
```

4 Depositing the prediction

Prediction



```
number_of_toes = [8.5, 9.5, 10, 9]  
input = number_of_toes[0]  
pred = neural_network(input, weight)
```

What is a neural network?

Here is your first neural network.

To start a neural network, open a Jupyter notebook and run this code:

```
weight = 0.1
```

```
def neural_network(input, weight):  
    prediction = input * weight  
    return prediction
```

The network

Now, run the following:

```
number_of_toes = [8.5, 9.5, 10, 9]  
input = number_of_toes[0]  
pred = neural_network(input, weight)  
print(pred)
```

How you use the
network to predict
something

You just made your first neural network and used it to predict! Congratulations! The last line prints the prediction (`pred`). It should be 0.85. So what is a neural network? For now, it's one or more *weights* that you can multiply by the *input* data to make a *prediction*.

What is input data?

It's a number that you recorded in the real world somewhere. It's usually something that is easily knowable, like today's temperature, a baseball player's batting average, or yesterday's stock price.

What is a prediction?

A *prediction* is what the neural network tells you, *given the input data*, such as "given the temperature, it is **0%** likely that people will wear sweatsuits today" or "given a baseball player's batting average, he is **30%** likely to hit a home run" or "given yesterday's stock price, today's stock price will be **101.52**."

Is this prediction always right?

No. Sometimes a neural network will make mistakes, but it can learn from them. For example, if it predicts too high, it will adjust its weight to predict lower next time, and vice versa.

How does the network learn?

Trial and error! First, it tries to make a prediction. Then, it sees whether the prediction was too high or too low. Finally, it changes the weight (up or down) to predict more accurately the next time it sees the same input.

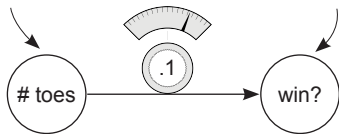
What does this neural network do?

It multiplies the input by a weight. It “scales” the input by a certain amount.

In the previous section, you made your first prediction with a neural network. A neural network, in its simplest form, uses the power of *multiplication*. It takes an input datapoint (in this case, 8.5) and *multiplies* it by the weight. If the weight is 2, then the neural network will *double the input*. If the weight is 0.01, then the network will *divide* the input by 100. As you can see, some weight values make the input *bigger*, and other values make it *smaller*.

1 An empty network

Input data
enters here.



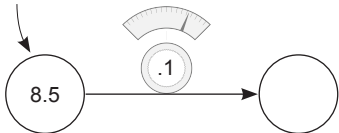
```
weight = 0.1
```

```
def neural_network(input, weight):  
    prediction = input * weight  
    return prediction
```

The interface for a neural network is simple. It accepts an input variable as *information* and a weight variable as *knowledge* and outputs a prediction. Every neural network you’ll ever see works this way. It uses the *knowledge* in the weights to interpret the *information* in the input data. Later neural networks will accept larger, more complicated input and weight values, but this same underlying premise will always ring true.

2 Inserting one input datapoint

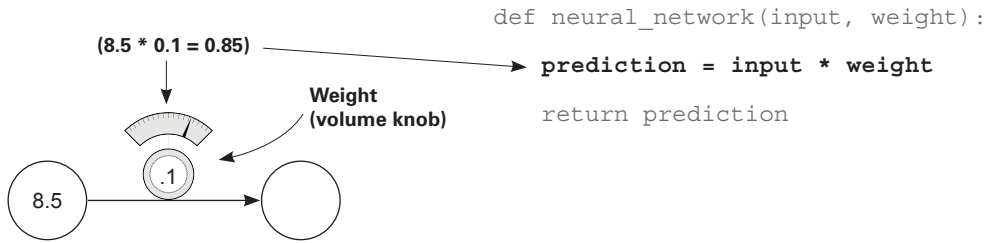
Input data
(# toes)



```
number_of_toes = [8.5, 9.5, 10, 9]  
input = number_of_toes[0]  
pred = neural_network(input, weight)
```

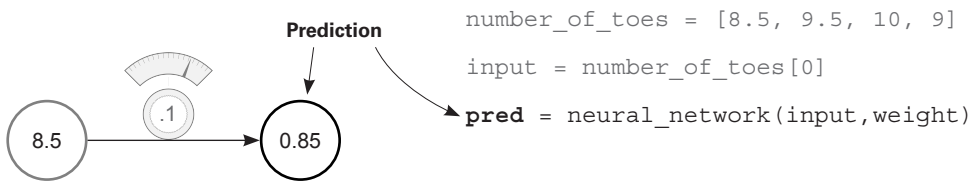
In this case, the information is the average number of toes on a baseball team before a game. Notice several things. First, the neural network does *not* have access to any information except one instance. If, after this prediction, you were to feed in `number_of_toes[1]`, the network wouldn’t remember the prediction it made in the last timestep. A neural network knows only what you feed it as input. It forgets everything else. Later, you’ll learn how to give a neural network a “short-term memory” by feeding in multiple inputs at once.

3 Multiplying input by weight



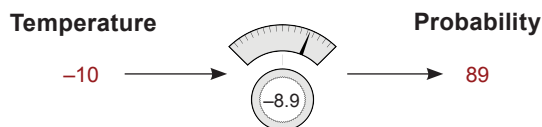
Another way to think about a neural network's weight value is as a measure of *sensitivity* between the input of the network and its prediction. If the weight is very high, then even the tiniest input can create a really large prediction! If the weight is very small, then even large inputs will make small predictions. This sensitivity is akin to *volume*. "Turning up the weight" amplifies the prediction relative to the input: weight is a volume knob!

4 Depositing the prediction



In this case, what the neural network is really doing is applying a *volume knob* to the `number_of_toes` variable. In theory, this volume knob can tell you the likelihood that the team will win, based on the average number of toes per player on the team. This may or may not work. Truthfully, if the team members had an average of 0 toes, they would probably play terribly. But baseball is much more complex than this. In the next section, you'll present multiple pieces of information at the same time so the neural network can make more-informed decisions.

Note that neural networks don't predict just positive numbers—they can also *predict negative numbers* and even take *negative numbers as input*. Perhaps you want to predict the probability that people will wear coats today. If the temperature is -10 degrees Celsius, then a negative weight will predict a high probability that people will wear their coats.

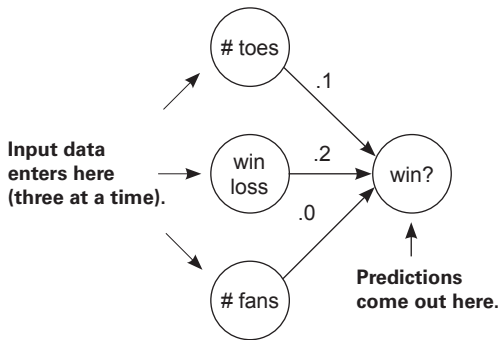


Making a prediction with multiple inputs

Neural networks can combine intelligence from multiple datapoints.

The previous neural network was able to take one datapoint as input and make one prediction based on that datapoint. Perhaps you've been wondering, "Is the average number of toes really a good predictor, all by itself?" If so, you're onto something. What if you could give the network more information (at one time) than just the average number of toes per player? In that case, the network should, in theory, be able to make more-accurate predictions. Well, as it turns out, a network can accept multiple input datapoints at a time. Take a look at the next prediction:

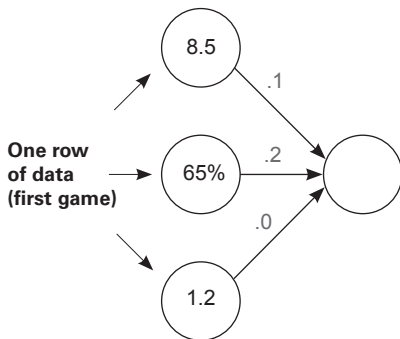
1 An empty network with multiple inputs



```
weights = [0.1, 0.2, 0]
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    pred = w_sum(input, weights)  
    return pred
```

2 Inserting one input datapoint



This dataset is the current status at the beginning of each game for the first four games in a season:

toes = current average number of toes per player
wlrec = current games won (percent)
nfans = fan count (in millions).

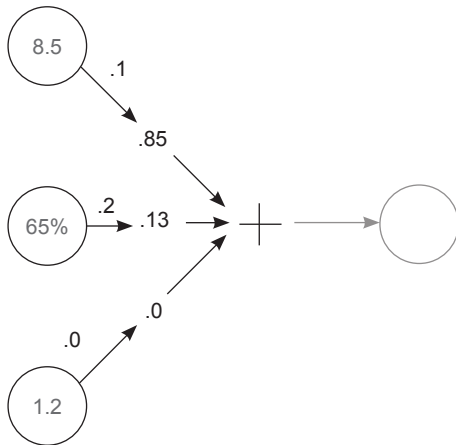
```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]  
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]  
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0], wlrec[0], nfans[0]]
```

```
pred = neural_network(input, weights)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.

3 Performing a weighted sum of inputs



```
def w_sum(a,b):
    assert(len(a) == len(b))
    output = 0
    for i in range(len(a)):
        output += (a[i] * b[i])
    return output
```

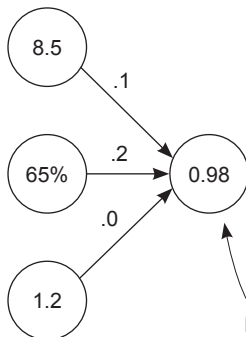
```
def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred = w_sum(input,weights)
    return pred
```

Inputs	Weights		Local predictions	
(8.50 * 0.1)	=	0.85	=	toes prediction
(0.65 * 0.2)	=	0.13	=	wlrec prediction
(1.20 * 0.0)	=	0.00	=	fans prediction

toes prediction + wlrec prediction + fans prediction = final prediction

0.85 + 0.13 + 0.00 = 0.98

4 Depositing the prediction



Input corresponds to every entry
for the first game of the season.

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]]
pred = neural_network(input,weights)
print(pred)
```

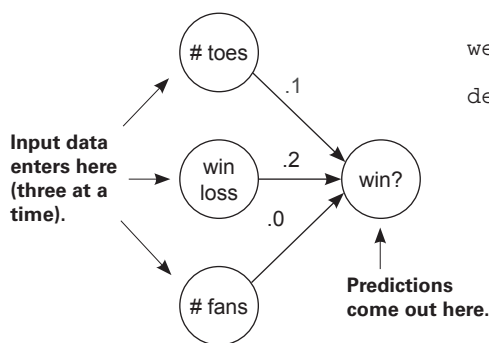
Prediction

Multiple inputs: What does this neural network do?

It multiplies three inputs by three knob weights and sums them. This is a weighted sum.

At the end of the previous section, you came to realize the limiting factor of your simple neural network: it was only a volume knob on one datapoint. In the example, that datapoint was a baseball team's average number of toes per player. You learned that in order to make accurate predictions, you need to build neural networks that can *combine multiple inputs at the same time*. Fortunately, neural networks are perfectly capable of doing so.

1 An empty network with multiple inputs



```
weights = [0.1, 0.2, 0]
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    pred = w_sum(input, weights)  
    return pred
```

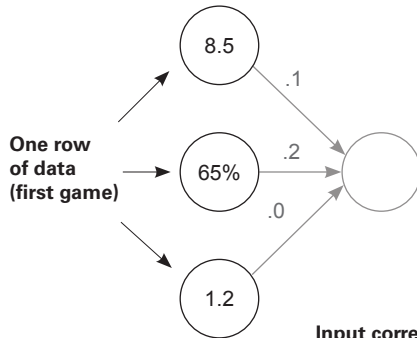
This new neural network can accept *multiple inputs at a time* per prediction. This allows the network to combine various forms of information to make better-informed decisions. But the fundamental mechanism for using weights hasn't changed. You still take each input and run it through its own volume knob. In other words, you multiply each input by its own weight.

The new property here is that, because you have multiple inputs, you have to sum their respective predictions. Thus, you multiply each input by its respective weight and then sum all the local predictions together. This is called a *weighted sum of the input*, or a *weighted sum* for short. Some also refer to the weighted sum as a *dot product*, as you'll see.

A relevant reminder

The interface for the neural network is simple: it accepts an `input` variable as information and a `weights` variable as knowledge, and it outputs a prediction.

2 Inserting one input datapoint



This dataset is the current status at the beginning of each game for the first four games in a season:
toes = current number of toes
wlrec = current games won (percent)
nfans = fan count (in millions)

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]  
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]  
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0], wlrec[0], nfans[0]]  
pred = neural_network(input, weights)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.

This new need to process multiple inputs at a time justifies the use of a new tool. It's called a *vector*, and if you've been following along in your Jupyter notebook, you've already been using it. A vector is nothing other than a *list of numbers*. In the example, `input` is a vector and `weights` is a vector. Can you spot any more vectors in the previous code? (There are three more.)

As it turns out, vectors are incredibly useful whenever you want to perform operations involving groups of numbers. In this case, you're performing a weighted sum between two vectors (a dot product). You're taking two vectors of equal length (`input` and `weights`), multiplying each number based on its position (the first position in `input` is multiplied by the first position in `weights`, and so on), and then summing the resulting output.

Anytime you perform a mathematical operation between two vectors of equal length where you pair up values according to their position in the vector (again: position 0 with 0, 1 with 1, and so on), it's called an *elementwise* operation. Thus *elementwise addition* sums two vectors, and *elementwise multiplication* multiplies two vectors.

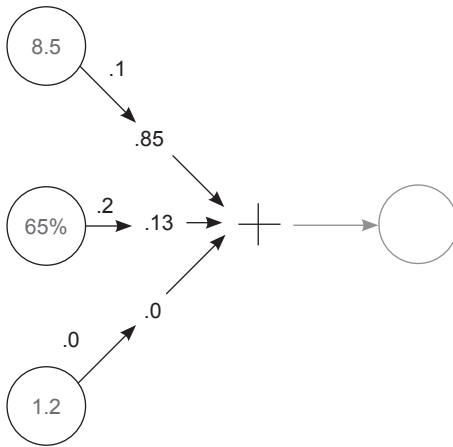
Challenge: Vector math

Being able to manipulate vectors is a cornerstone technique for deep learning. See if you can write functions that perform the following operations:

- `def elementwise_multiplication(vec_a, vec_b)`
- `def elementwise_addition(vec_a, vec_b)`
- `def vector_sum(vec_a)`
- `def vector_average(vec_a)`

Then, see if you can use two of these methods to perform a dot product!

3 Performing a weighted sum of inputs



```
def w_sum(a,b):  
    assert(len(a) == len(b))  
    output = 0  
    for i in range(len(a)):  
        output += (a[i] * b[i])  
    return output
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    pred = w_sum(input,weights)  
    return pred
```

Inputs	Weights	Local predictions
(8.50 * 0.1)	=	0.85 = toes prediction
(0.65 * 0.2)	=	0.13 = wlrec prediction
(1.20 * 0.0)	=	0.00 = fans prediction
toes prediction + wlrec prediction + fans prediction = final prediction		
0.85	+	0.13 + 0.00 = 0.98

The intuition behind how and why a dot product (weighted sum) works is easily one of the most important parts of truly understanding how neural networks make predictions. Loosely stated, a dot product gives you a *notion of similarity* between two vectors. Consider these examples:

```
a = [ 0, 1, 0, 1]  
b = [ 1, 0, 1, 0]  
c = [ 0, 1, 1, 0]  
d = [.5, 0, .5, 0]  
e = [ 0, 1, -1, 0]
```

```
w_sum(a,b) = 0  
w_sum(b,c) = 1  
w_sum(b,d) = 1  
w_sum(c,c) = 2  
w_sum(d,d) = .5  
w_sum(c,e) = 0
```

The highest weighted sum ($w_sum(c, c)$) is between vectors that are exactly identical. In contrast, because a and b have no overlapping weight, their dot product is zero. Perhaps the most interesting weighted sum is between c and e , because e has a negative weight. This negative weight canceled out the positive similarity between them. But a dot product between e and itself would yield the number 2, despite the negative weight (double negative turns positive). Let's become familiar with the various properties of the dot product operation.

Sometimes you can equate the properties of the dot product to a logical AND. Consider a and b:

```
a = [ 0, 1, 0, 1]
b = [ 1, 0, 1, 0]
```

If you ask whether both `a[0]` AND `b[0]` have value, the answer is no. If you ask whether both `a[1]` AND `b[1]` have value, the answer is again no. Because this is *always* true for all four values, the final score equals 0. Each value fails the logical AND.

```
b = [ 1, 0, 1, 0]
c = [ 0, 1, 1, 0]
```

b and c, however, have one column that shares value. It passes the logical AND because `b[2]` and `c[2]` have weight. This column (and only this column) causes the score to rise to 1.

```
c = [ 0, 1, 1, 0]
d = [.5, 0, .5, 0]
```

Fortunately, neural networks are also able to model partial ANDing. In this case, c and d share the same column as b and c, but because d has only 0.5 weight there, the final score is only 0.5. We exploit this property when modeling probabilities in neural networks.

```
d = [.5, 0, .5, 0]
e = [-1, 1, 0, 0]
```

In this analogy, negative weights tend to imply a logical NOT operator, given that any positive weight paired with a negative weight will cause the score to go down. Furthermore, if both vectors have negative weights (such as `w_sum(e, e)`), then the neural network will perform a *double negative* and add weight instead. Additionally, some might say it's an OR after the AND, because if any of the rows show weight, the score is affected. Thus, for `w_sum(a, b)`, if (`a[0]` AND `b[0]`) OR (`a[1]` AND `b[1]`), and so on, then `w_sum(a, b)` returns a positive score. Furthermore, if one value is negative, then that column gets a NOT.

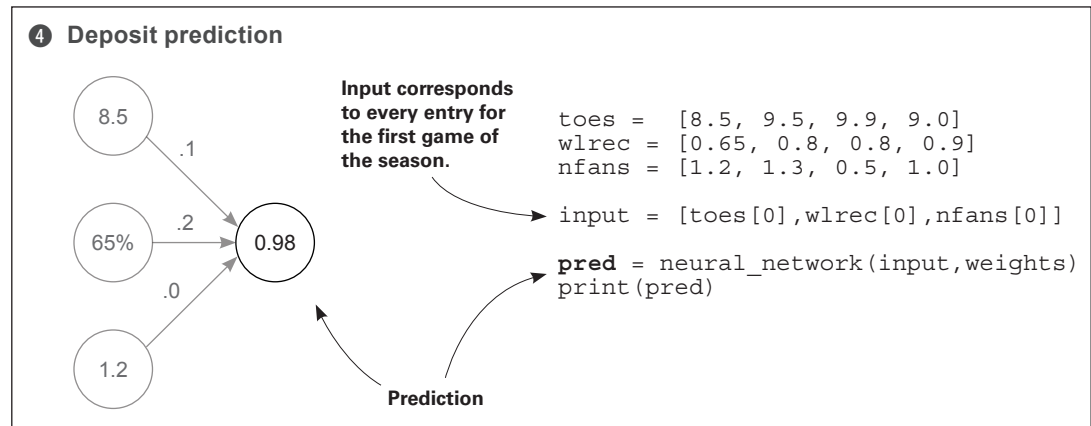
Amusingly, this gives us a kind of crude language for reading weights. Let's read a few examples, shall we? These assume you're performing `w_sum(input, weights)` and the "then" to these `if` statements is an abstract "then give high score":

```
weights = [ 1, 0, 1] => if input[0] OR input[2]
weights = [ 0, 0, 1] => if input[2]
weights = [ 1, 0, -1] => if input[0] OR NOT input[2]
weights = [-1, 0, -1] => if NOT input[0] OR NOT input[2]
weights = [ 0.5, 0, 1] => if BIG input[0] or input[2]
```

Notice in the last row that `weight[0] = 0.5` means the corresponding `input[0]` would have to be larger to compensate for the smaller weighting. And as I mentioned, this is a *very*

crude approximate language. But I find it immensely useful when trying to picture in my head what's going on under the hood. This will help you significantly in the future, especially when putting networks together in increasingly complex ways.

Given these intuitions, what does this mean when a neural network makes a prediction? Roughly speaking, it means the network gives a high score of the inputs based on *how similar they are to the weights*. Notice in the following example that `nfans` is completely ignored in the prediction because the weight associated with it is 0. The most sensitive predictor is `wlrec` because its weight is 0.2. But the dominant force in the high score is the number of toes (`ntoes`), not because the weight is the highest, but because the input combined with the weight is by far the highest.



Here are a few more points to note for further reference. You can't shuffle weights: they have specific positions they need to be in. Furthermore, both the value of the weight *and* the value of the input determine the overall impact on the final score. Finally, a negative weight will cause some inputs to reduce the final prediction (and vice versa).

Multiple inputs: Complete runnable code

The code snippets from this example come together in the following code, which creates and executes a neural network. For clarity, I've written everything out using basic properties of Python (lists and numbers). But a better way exists that we'll begin using in the future.

Previous code

```
def w_sum(a,b):
    assert(len(a) == len(b))
    output = 0
    for i in range(len(a)):
        output += (a[i] * b[i])
    return output


weights = [0.1, 0.2, 0]

def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred = w_sum(input,weights)
    return pred

toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]

input = [toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]]
pred = neural_network(input,weights)
print(pred)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.



There's a Python library called NumPy, which stands for "numerical Python." It has very efficient code for creating vectors and performing common functions (such as dot products). Without further ado, here's the same code in NumPy.

NumPy code

```
import numpy as np


weights = np.array([0.1, 0.2, 0])

def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred = input.dot(weights)
    return pred

toes = np.array([8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0])
wlrec = np.array([0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9])
nfans = np.array([1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0])

input = np.array([toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]])
pred = neural_network(input,weights)
print(pred)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.



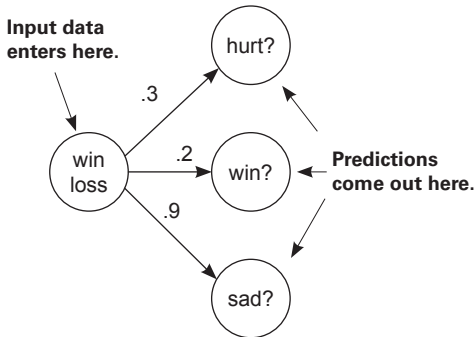
Both networks should print out 0.98. Notice that in the NumPy code, you don't have to create a `w_sum` function. Instead, NumPy has a `dot` function (short for "dot product") you can call. Many functions you'll use in the future have NumPy parallels.

Making a prediction with multiple outputs

Neural networks can also make multiple predictions using only a single input.

Perhaps a simpler augmentation than multiple inputs is multiple outputs. Prediction occurs the same as if there were three disconnected single-weight neural networks.

1 An empty network with multiple outputs



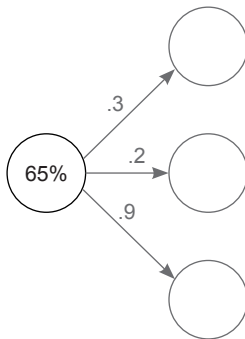
Instead of predicting just whether the team won or lost, you're also predicting whether the players are happy or sad and the percentage of team members who are hurt. You make this prediction using only the current win/loss record.

```
weights = [0.3, 0.2, 0.9]

def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred = ele_mul(input, weights)
    return pred
```

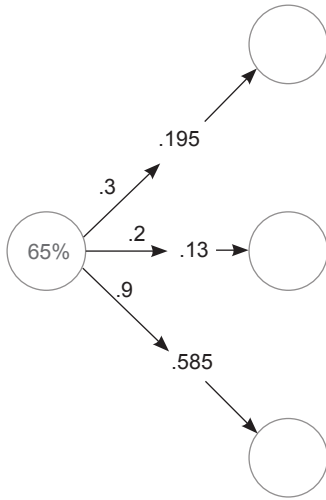
The most important comment in this setting is to notice that the three predictions are completely separate. Unlike neural networks with multiple inputs and a single output, where the prediction is undeniably connected, this network truly behaves as three independent components, each receiving the same input data. This makes the network simple to implement.

2 Inserting one input datapoint



```
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
input = wlrec[0]
pred = neural_network(input, weights)
```


3 Performing elementwise multiplication

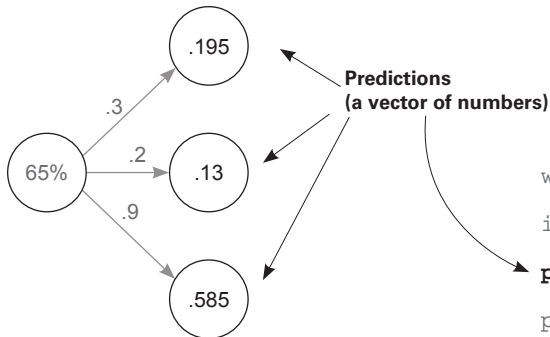


```
def ele_mul(number,vector):  
    output = [0,0,0]  
    assert(len(output) == len(vector))  
    for i in range(len(vector)):  
        output[i] = number * vector[i]  
    return output
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    pred = ele_mul(input,weights)  
    return pred
```

Inputs	Weights	Final predictions	
(0.65 * 0.3)	=	0.195	= hurt prediction
(0.65 * 0.2)	=	0.13	= win prediction
(0.65 * 0.9)	=	0.585	= sad prediction

4 Depositing predictions



```
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]  
input = wlrec[0]  
pred = neural_network(input,weight)  
print(pred)
```

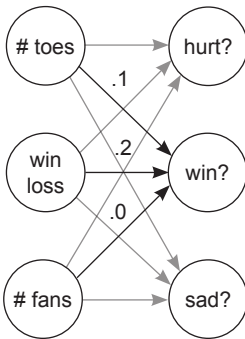
Predicting with multiple inputs and outputs

Neural networks can predict multiple outputs given multiple inputs.

Finally, the way you build a network with multiple inputs or outputs can be combined to build a network that has both multiple inputs *and* multiple outputs. As before, a weight connects each input node to each output node, and prediction occurs in the usual way.

1 An empty network with multiple inputs and outputs

Inputs Predictions

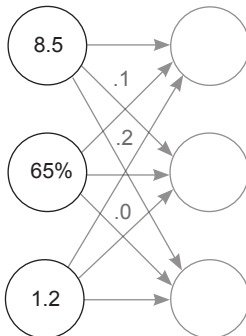


```
# toes % win # fans
weights = [ [0.1, 0.1, -0.3], # hurt?
            [0.1, 0.2, 0.0], # win?
            [0.0, 1.3, 0.1] ] # sad?
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred = vect_mat_mul(input, weights)
    return pred
```

2 Inserting one input datapoint

Inputs Predictions



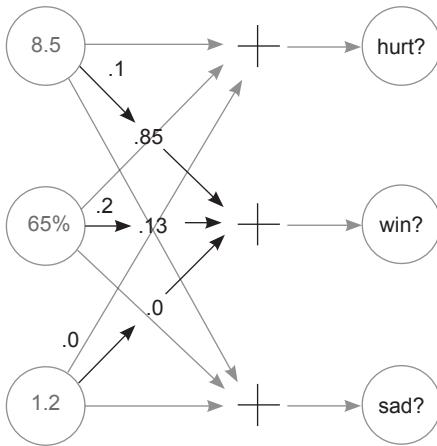
This dataset is the current status at the beginning of each game for the first four games in a season:
toes = current average number of toes per player
wlrec = current games won (percent)
fans = fan count (in millions)

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0], wlrec[0], nfans[0]]
pred = neural_network(input, weights)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.

3 For each output, performing a weighted sum of inputs



```
def w_sum(a,b):
    assert(len(a) == len(b))
    output = 0
    for i in range(len(a)):
        output += (a[i] * b[i])
    return output
```

```
def vect_mat_mul(vect,matrix):
    assert(len(vect) == len(matrix))
    output = [0,0,0]

    for i in range(len(vect)):
        output[i]=w_sum(vect,matrix[i])

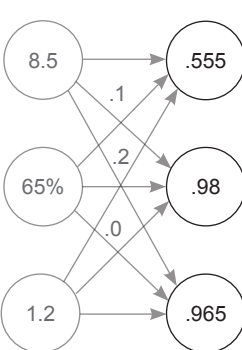
    return output
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred=vect_mat_mul(input,weights)
    return pred
```

# toes	% win	# fans						
(8.5 * 0.1)	+	(0.65 * 0.1)	+	(1.2 * -0.3)	=	0.555	=	hurt prediction
(8.5 * 0.1)	+	(0.65 * 0.2)	+	(1.2 * 0.0)	=	0.98	=	win prediction
(8.5 * 0.0)	+	(0.65 * 1.3)	+	(1.2 * 0.1)	=	0.965	=	sad prediction

4 Depositing predictions

Inputs Predictions



Input corresponds to every entry
for the first game of the season.

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]

input = [toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]]

pred = neural_network(input,weight)
```

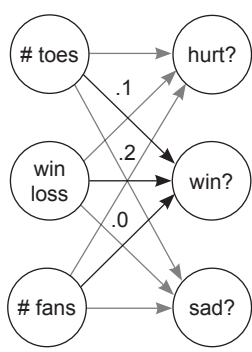
Multiple inputs and outputs: How does it work?

It performs three independent weighted sums of the input to make three predictions.

You can take two perspectives on this architecture: think of it as either three weights coming out of each input node, or three weights going into each output node. For now, I find the latter to be much more beneficial. Think about this neural network as three independent dot products: three independent weighted sums of the input. Each output node takes its own weighted sum of the input and makes a prediction.

1 An empty network with multiple inputs and outputs

Inputs Predictions

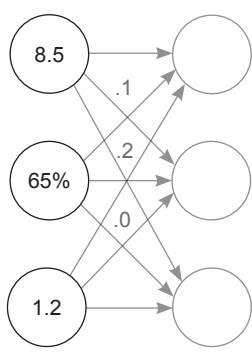


```
# toes % win # fans
weights = [ [0.1, 0.1, -0.3], # hurt?
            [0.1, 0.2, 0.0], # win?
            [0.0, 1.3, 0.1] ]# sad?
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):
    pred=vect_mat_mul(input,weights)
    return pred
```

2 Inserting one input datapoint

Inputs Predictions



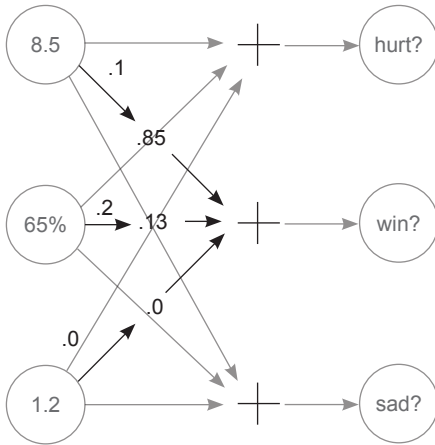
This dataset is the current status at the beginning of each game for the first four games in a season:
toes = current average number of toes per player
wlrec = current games won (percent)
fans = fan count (in millions)

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]]
pred = neural_network(input,weights)
```

Input corresponds to every entry for the first game of the season.

3 For each output, performing a weighted sum of inputs



```
def w_sum(a,b):  
    assert(len(a) == len(b))  
    output = 0  
    for i in range(len(a)):  
        output += (a[i] * b[i])  
    return output  
  
def vect_mat_mul(vect,matrix):  
    assert(len(vect) == len(matrix))  
    output = [0,0,0]  
  
    for i in range(len(vect)):  
        output[i]=w_sum(vect,matrix[i])  
  
    return output  
  
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    pred=vect_mat_mul(input,weights)  
    return pred
```

toes % win # fans
 $(8.5 * 0.1) + (0.65 * 0.1) + (1.2 * -0.3) = 0.555 = \text{hurt prediction}$
 $(8.5 * 0.1) + (0.65 * 0.2) + (1.2 * 0.0) = 0.98 = \text{win prediction}$
 $(8.5 * 0.0) + (0.65 * 1.3) + (1.2 * 0.1) = 0.965 = \text{sad prediction}$

As mentioned earlier, we're choosing to think about this network as a series of weighted sums. Thus, the previous code creates a new function called `vect_mat_mul`. This function iterates through each row of weights (each row is a vector) and makes a prediction using the `w_sum` function. It's literally performing three consecutive weighted sums and then storing their predictions in a vector called `output`. A lot more weights are flying around in this one, but it isn't that much more advanced than other networks you've seen.

I want to use this *list of vectors* and *series of weighted sums* logic to introduce two new concepts. See the `weights` variable in step 1? It's a list of vectors. A list of vectors is called a *matrix*. It's as simple as it sounds. Commonly used functions use matrices. One of these is called *vector-matrix multiplication*. The series of weighted sums is exactly that: you take a vector and perform a dot product with every row in a matrix.* As you'll find out in the next section, NumPy has special functions to help.

* If you're experienced with linear algebra, the more formal definition stores/processes weights as column vectors instead of row vectors. This will be rectified shortly.

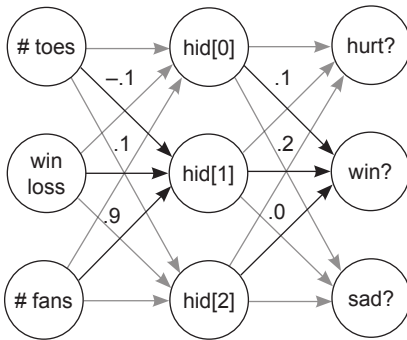
Predicting on predictions

Neural networks can be stacked!

As the following figures make clear, you can also take the output of one network and feed it as input to another network. This results in two consecutive vector-matrix multiplications. It may not yet be clear why you'd predict this way; but some datasets (such as image classification) contain patterns that are too complex for a single-weight matrix. Later, we'll discuss the nature of these patterns. For now, it's sufficient to know this is possible.

1 An empty network with multiple inputs and outputs

Inputs **Hiddens** **Predictions**



```
# toes % win # fans
ih_wgt = [ [0.1, 0.2, -0.1], # hid[0]
           [-0.1, 0.1, 0.9], # hid[1]
           [0.1, 0.4, 0.1] ] # hid[2]
```

```
#hid[0] hid[1] hid[2]
hp_wgt = [ [0.3, 1.1, -0.3], # hurt?
           [0.1, 0.2, 0.0], # win?
           [0.0, 1.3, 0.1] ] # sad?
```

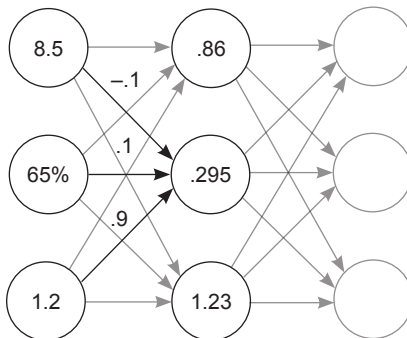
```
weights = [ih_wgt, hp_wgt]
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):
```

```
    hid = vect_mat_mul(input, weights[0])
    pred = vect_mat_mul(hid, weights[1])
    return pred
```

2 Predicting the hidden layer

Inputs **Hiddens** **Predictions**



**Input corresponds to every entry
for the first game of the season.**

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]
wlrec = [0.65, 0.8, 0.8, 0.9]
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0], wlrec[0], nfans[0]]
```

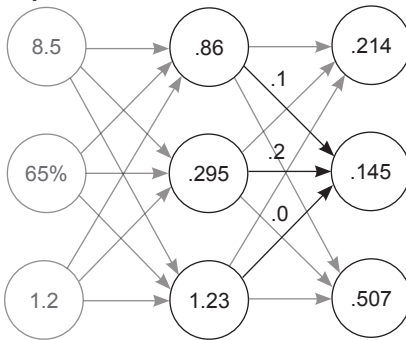
```
pred = neural_network(input, weights)
```

```
def neural_network(input, weights):
```

```
    hid = vect_mat_mul(input, weights[0])
    pred = vect_mat_mul(hid, weights[1])
    return pred
```

3 Predicting the output layer (and depositing the prediction)

Inputs **Hiddens** **Predictions**



```
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    hid=vect_mat_mul(input,weights[0])  
    pred = vect_mat_mul(hid,weights[1])  
    return pred
```

```
toes = [8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0]  
wlrec = [0.65,0.8, 0.8, 0.9]  
nfans = [1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0]
```

```
input = [toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]]  
  
pred = neural_network(input,weights)  
print(pred)
```

**Input corresponds to every entry
for the first game of the season.**

The following listing shows how you can do the same operations coded in the previous section using a convenient Python library called NumPy. Using libraries like NumPy makes your code faster and easier to read and write.

NumPy version

```
import numpy as np  
  
# toes % win # fans  
ih_wgt = np.array([  
    [0.1, 0.2, -0.1], # hid[0]  
    [-0.1,0.1, 0.9], # hid[1]  
    [0.1, 0.4, 0.1]]) .T # hid[2]  
  
# hid[0] hid[1] hid[2]  
hp_wgt = np.array([  
    [0.3, 1.1, -0.3], # hurt?  
    [0.1, 0.2, 0.0], # win?  
    [0.0, 1.3, 0.1] ] .T # sad?  
  
weights = [ih_wgt, hp_wgt]  
  
def neural_network(input, weights):  
    hid = input.dot(weights[0])  
    pred = hid.dot(weights[1])  
    return pred  
  
toes = np.array([8.5, 9.5, 9.9, 9.0])  
wlrec = np.array([0.65,0.8, 0.8, 0.9])  
nfans = np.array([1.2, 1.3, 0.5, 1.0])  
  
input = np.array([toes[0],wlrec[0],nfans[0]])  
  
pred = neural_network(input,weights)  
print(pred)
```

A quick primer on NumPy

NumPy does a few things for you. Let's reveal the magic.

So far in this chapter, we've discussed two new types of mathematical tools: vectors and matrices. You've also learned about different operations that occur on vectors and matrices, including dot products, elementwise multiplication and addition, and vector-matrix multiplication. For these operations, you've written Python functions that can operate on simple Python `list` objects.

In the short term, you'll keep writing and using these functions to be sure you fully understand what's going on inside them. But now that I've mentioned NumPy and several of the big operations, I'd like to give you a quick rundown of basic NumPy use so you'll be ready for the transition to NumPy-only chapters. Let's start with the basics again: vectors and matrices.

You can create vectors and matrices in multiple ways in NumPy. Most of the common techniques for neural networks are listed in the previous code. Note that the processes for creating a vector and a matrix are identical. If you create a matrix with only one row, you're creating a vector. And, as in mathematics in general, you create a matrix by listing (rows, columns). I say that only so you can remember the order: rows come first, columns come second. Let's see some operations you can perform on these vectors and matrices:

```
import numpy as np

a = np.array([0,1,2,3])
b = np.array([4,5,6,7])
c = np.array([[0,1,2,3],
              [4,5,6,7]])

d = np.zeros((2,4))
e = np.random.rand(2,5)

print(a)
print(b)
print(c)
print(d)
print(e)
```

← **A vector**

← **Another vector**

← **A matrix**

← **2 × 4 matrix of zeros**

← **Random 2 × 5 matrix of numbers between 0 and 1**

Output

```
[0 1 2 3]
[4 5 6 7]
[[0 1 2 3]
 [4 5 6 7]]
[[ 0.  0.  0.  0.]
 [ 0.  0.  0.  0.]]
[[ 0.22717119  0.39712632
 0.0627734    0.08431724
 0.53469141]
 [ 0.09675954  0.99012254
 0.45922775   0.3273326
 0.28617742]]
```

Multiplies every number in vector a by 0.1

Multiplies every number in matrix c by 0.2

Multiplies elementwise between a and b (columns paired)

Multiplies elementwise, then multiplies by 0.2

Because a and e don't have the same number of columns, this throws "Value Error: operands could not be broadcast together with..."

Performs elementwise multiplication on every row of matrix c, because c has the same number of columns as a

```
print(a * 0.1)
print(c * 0.2)
print(a * b)
print(a * b * 0.2)
print(a * c)

print(a * e)
```


Go ahead and run all of the previous code. The first bit of “at first confusing but eventually heavenly” magic should be visible. When you multiply two variables with the `*` function, NumPy automatically detects what kinds of variables you’re working with and tries to figure out the operation you’re talking about. This can be mega-convenient but sometimes makes NumPy code a bit hard to read. Make sure you keep track of each variable type as you go along.

The general rule of thumb for anything elementwise (`+`, `-`, `*`, `/`) is that either the two variables must have the *same* number of columns, or one of the variables must have only one column. For example, `print(a * 0.1)` multiplies a vector by a single number (`a` scalar). NumPy says, “Oh, I bet I’m supposed to do vector-scalar multiplication here,” and then multiplies the scalar (`0.1`) by every value in the vector. This looks exactly the same as `print(c * 0.2)`, except NumPy knows that `c` is a matrix. Thus, it performs scalar-matrix multiplication, multiplying every element in `c` by `0.2`. Because the scalar has only one column, you can multiply it by anything (or divide, add, or subtract).

Next up: `print(a * b)`. NumPy first identifies that they’re both vectors. Because neither vector has only one column, NumPy checks whether they have an identical number of columns. They do, so NumPy knows to multiply each element by each element, based on their positions in the vectors. The same is true with addition, subtraction, and division.

`print(a * c)` is perhaps the most elusive. `a` is a vector with four columns, and `c` is a (2×4) matrix. Neither has only one column, so NumPy checks whether they have the same number of columns. They do, so NumPy multiplies the vector `a` by each row of `c` (as if it were doing elementwise vector multiplication on each row).

Again, the most confusing part is that all of these operations look the same if you don’t know which variables are scalars, vectors, or matrices. When you “read NumPy,” you’re really doing two things: reading the operations and keeping track of the *shape* (number of rows and columns) of each operation. It will take some practice, but eventually it becomes second nature. Let’s look at a few examples of matrix multiplication in NumPy, noting the input and output shapes of each matrix.

```
a = np.zeros((1,4))
b = np.zeros((4,3))
```

```
c = a.dot(b)  ← Vector of length 4
print(c.shape) ←
```

Matrix with
4 rows and
3 columns

Output

```
(1, 3)
```

There’s one golden rule when using the `dot` function: if you put the `(rows, cols)` description of the two variables you’re “dotting” next to each other, neighboring numbers should always be the same. In this case, you’re dot-producting $(1,4)$ with $(4,3)$. It works fine and outputs $(1,3)$. In terms of variable shape, you can think of it as follows, regardless of whether you’re dotting

vectors or matrices: their *shape* (number of rows and columns) must line up. The columns of the left matrix must equal the rows on the right, such that $(a, b) \cdot \text{dot} (b, c) = (a, c)$.

```
a = np.zeros((2,4))
b = np.zeros((4,3))
c = a.dot(b)
print(c.shape)
```

← Matrix with 2 rows and 4 columns

← Matrix with 4 rows and 3 columns

← Outputs (2,3)

```
e = np.zeros((2,1))
f = np.zeros((1,3))
g = e.dot(f)
print(g.shape)
```

← Matrix with 2 rows and 1 column

← Matrix with 1 row and 3 columns

← Outputs (2,3)

```
h = np.zeros((5,4)).T
i = np.zeros((5,6))
j = h.dot(i)
print(j.shape)
```

← Throws an error; .T flips the rows and columns of a matrix.

← Matrix with 4 rows and 5 columns

← Matrix with 6 rows and 5 columns

← Outputs (4,6)

```
h = np.zeros((5,4))
i = np.zeros((5,6))
j = h.dot(i)
print(j.shape)
```

← Matrix with 5 rows and 4 columns

← Matrix with 5 rows and 6 columns

← Throws an error

Summary

To predict, neural networks perform repeated weighted sums of the input.

You’ve seen an increasingly complex variety of neural networks in this chapter. I hope it’s clear that a relatively small number of simple rules are used repeatedly to create larger, more advanced neural networks. The network’s intelligence depends on the weight values you give it.

Everything we’ve done in this chapter is a form of what’s called *forward propagation*, wherein a neural network takes input data and makes a prediction. It’s called this because you’re *propagating* activations *forward* through the network. In these examples, *activations* are all the numbers that are *not* weights and are unique for every prediction.

In the next chapter, you’ll learn how to set weights so your neural networks make accurate predictions. Just as prediction is based on several simple techniques that are repeated/stacked on top of each other, *weight learning* is also a series of simple techniques that are combined many times across an architecture. See you there!

In this chapter

- Do neural networks make accurate predictions?
- Why measure error?
- Hot and cold learning
- Calculating both direction and amount from error
- Gradient descent
- Learning is just reducing error
- Derivatives and how to use them to learn
- Divergence and alpha

“ The only relevant test of the validity of a hypothesis is comparison of its predictions with experience. ”

—Milton Friedman, *Essays in Positive Economics*
(University of Chicago Press, 1953)