

02. Neural Network Classification with TensorFlow

Okay, we've seen how to deal with a regression problem in TensorFlow, let's look at how we can approach a classification problem.

A <u>classification problem</u> involves predicting whether something is one thing or another.

For example, you might want to:

- Predict whether or not someone has heart disease based on their health parameters. This is called **binary** classification since there are only two options.
- Decide whether a photo of is of food, a person or a dog. This is called **multi-class classification** since there are more than two options.
- Predict what categories should be assigned to a Wikipedia article. This is called **multi-label classification** since a single article could have more than one category assigned.

In this notebook, we're going to work through a number of different classification problems with TensorFlow. In other words, taking a set of inputs and predicting what class those set of inputs belong to.

What we're going to cover

Specifically, we're going to go through doing the following with TensorFlow:

- · Architecture of a classification model
- Input shapes and output shapes
 - X: features/data (inputs)
 - y: labels (outputs)
 - "What class do the inputs belong to?"
- Creating custom data to view and fit
- Steps in modelling for binary and mutliclass classification
 - Creating a model
 - Compiling a model
 - Defining a loss function
 - Setting up an optimizer
 - Finding the best learning rate
 - Creating evaluation metrics
 - Fitting a model (getting it to find patterns in our data)
 - Improving a model
- The power of non-linearity
- Evaluating classification models
 - Visualizng the model ("visualize, visualize, visualize")
 - Looking at training curves
 - Compare predictions to ground truth (using our evaluation metrics)

How you can use this notebook

You can read through the descriptions and the code (it should all run, except for the cells which error on purpose), but there's a better option.

Write all of the code yourself.

Yes. I'm serious. Create a new notebook, and rewrite each line by yourself. Investigate it, see if you can break it, why does it break?

You don't have to write the text descriptions but writing the code yourself is a great way to get hands-on experience.

Don't worry if you make mistakes, we all do. The way to get better and make less mistakes is to write more code.

Typical architecture of a classification neural network

The word typical is on purpose.

Because the architecture of a classification neural network can widely vary depending on the problem you're working on.

However, there are some fundamentals all deep neural networks contain:

- An input layer.
- Some hidden layers.
- An output layer.

Much of the rest is up to the data analyst creating the model.

The following are some standard values you'll often use in your classification neural networks.

Multiclass classification	Binary Classification	Hyperparameter
Same as binary classification	Same as number of features (e.g. 5 for age, sex, height, weight, smoking status in heart disease prediction)	Input layer shape
Same as binary classification	Problem specific, minimum = 1, maximum = unlimited	Hidden layer(s)
Same as binary classification	Problem specific, generally 10 to 100	Neurons per hidden layer
1 per class (e.g. 3 for food, person or dog photo)	1 (one class or the other)	Output layer shape
Same as binary classification	Usually ReLU (rectified linear unit)	Hidden activation
Softmax	Sigmoid	Output activation
Cross entropy (tf.keras.losses.CategoricalCrossentropy in TensorFlow)	<u>Cross entropy</u> (<u>tf.keras.losses.BinaryCrossentropy</u> in TensorFlow)	Loss function
Same as binary classification	SGD (stochastic gradient descent), Adam	Optimizer

Table 1: Typical architecture of a classification network. **Source:** Adapted from page 295 of <u>Hands-On Machine</u> <u>Learning with Scikit-Learn, Keras & TensorFlow Book by Aurélien Géron</u>

Don't worry if not much of the above makes sense right now, we'll get plenty of experience as we go through this notebook.

Let's start by importing TensorFlow as the common alias tf. For this notebook, make sure you're using version 2.x+.

```
import tensorflow as tf
print(tf.__version__)
2.3.0
```

Creating data to view and fit

We could start by importing a classification dataset but let's practice making some of our own classification data.

☐ **Note:** It's a common practice to get you and model you build working on a toy (or simple) dataset before moving to your actual problem. Treat it as a rehersal experiment before the actual experiment(s).

Since classification is predicting whether something is one thing or another, let's make some data to reflect that

To do so, we'll use Scikit-Learn's make circles() function.

```
In [ ]:
```

Wonderful, now we've created some data, let's look at the features (\times) and labels (\times).

Okay, we've seen some of our data and labels, how about we move towards visualizing?

■ Note: One important step of starting any kind of machine learning project is to become one with the data. And one of the best ways to do this is to visualize the data you're working with as much as possible. The data explorer's motto is "visualize, visualize, visualize".

We'll start with a DataFrame.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Make dataframe of features and labels
import pandas as pd
circles = pd.DataFrame({"X0":X[:, 0], "X1":X[:, 1], "label":y})
circles.head()
```

```
Out[]:
```

	XO	X1	label
0	0.754246	0.231481	1
1	-0.756159	0.153259	1
2	-0.815392	0.173282	1
3	-0.393731	0.692883	1

X0 X1 label 4 0.442208 -0.896723 0

What kind of labels are we dealing with?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check out the different labels
circles.label.value_counts()
```

```
Out[]:
1   500
0   500
Name: label, dtype: int64
```

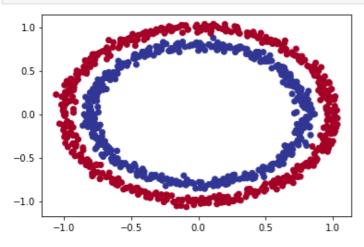
Alright, looks like we're dealing with a **binary classification** problem. It's binary because there are only two labels (0 or 1).

If there were more label options (e.g. 0, 1, 2, 3 or 4), it would be called multiclass classification.

Let's take our visualization a step further and plot our data.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Visualize with a plot
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y, cmap=plt.cm.RdYlBu);
```



Nice! From the plot, can you guess what kind of model we might want to build?

How about we try and build one to classify blue or red dots? As in, a model which is able to distinguish blue from red dots.

☐ **Practice:** Before pushing forward, you might want to spend 10 minutes playing around with the <u>TensorFlow Playground</u>. Try adjusting the different hyperparameters you see and click play to see a neural network train. I think you'll find the data very similar to what we've just created.

Input and output shapes

One of the most common issues you'll run into when building neural networks is shape mismatches.

More specifically, the shape of the input data and the shape of the output data.

In our case, we want to input X and get our model to predict Y.

So let's check out the shapes of X and Y.

In []:

```
# Check the shapes of our features and labels
X.shape, y.shape
Out[]:
((1000, 2), (1000,))
```

Hmm, where do these numbers come from?

```
In []:
# Check how many samples we have
len(X), len(y)
Out[]:
(1000, 1000)
```

So we've got as many X values as we do y values, that makes sense.

Let's check out one example of each.

```
In []:
# View the first example of features and labels
X[0], y[0]
Out[]:
(array([0.75424625, 0.23148074]), 1)
```

Alright, so we've got two X features which lead to one y value.

This means our neural network input shape will has to accept a tensor with at least one dimension being two and output a tensor with at least one value.

 \square Note: \upday having a shape of (1000,) can seem confusing. However, this is because all \upday values are actually scalars (single values) and therefore don't have a dimension. For now, think of your output shape as being at least the same value as one example of \upday (in our case, the output from our neural network has to be at least one value).

Steps in modelling

Now we know what data we have as well as the input and output shapes, let's see how we'd build a neural network to model it.

In TensorFlow, there are typically 3 fundamental steps to creating and training a model.

- 1. **Creating a model** piece together the layers of a neural network yourself (using the <u>functional</u> or <u>sequential</u> API) or import a previously built model (known as transfer learning).
- 2. Compiling a model defining how a model's performance should be measured (loss/metrics) as well as defining how it should improve (optimizer).
- 3. Fitting a model letting the model try to find patterns in the data (how does X get to y).

Let's see these in action using the Sequential API to build a model for our regression data. And then we'll step through each.

```
In []:

# Set random seed

tf.random.set_seed(42)

# 1. Create the model using the Sequential API

model_1 = tf.keras.Sequential([
```

```
tf.keras.layers.Dense(1)
# 2. Compile the model
model 1.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.BinaryCrossentropy(), # binary since we are working
with 2 clases (0 & 1)
          optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.SGD(),
          metrics=['accuracy'])
# 3. Fit the model
model 1.fit(X, y, epochs=5)
Epoch 1/5
Epoch 2/5
Epoch 3/5
Epoch 4/5
Epoch 5/5
Out[]:
<tensorflow.python.keras.callbacks.History at 0x7f42561c6fd0>
Looking at the accuracy metric, our model performs poorly (50% accuracy on a binary classification problem is
the equivalent of guessing), but what if we trained it for longer?
In [ ]:
# Train our model for longer (more chances to look at the data)
model 1.fit(X, y, epochs=200, verbose=0) # set verbose=0 to remove training updates
model_1.evaluate(X, y)
Out[]:
[0.6934829950332642, 0.5]
Even after 200 passes of the data, it's still performing as if it's guessing.
What if we added an extra layer and trained for a little longer?
In [ ]:
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
```

<tensorflow.python.keras.callbacks.History at 0x7f4255995f60>

Evaluate the model

In []:

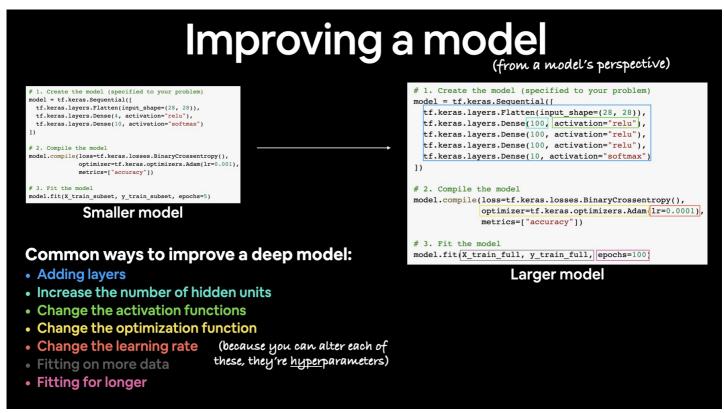
Still not even as good as guessing (~50% accuracy)... hmm...?

Let's remind ourselves of a couple more ways we can use to improve our models.

Improving a model

To improve our model, we can alter almost every part of the 3 steps we went through before.

- 1. **Creating a model** here you might want to add more layers, increase the number of hidden units (also called neurons) within each layer, change the activation functions of each layer.
- Compiling a model you might want to choose a different optimization function (such as the <u>Adam</u> optimizer, which is usually pretty good for many problems) or perhaps change the learning rate of the optimization function.
- 3. Fitting a model perhaps you could fit a model for more epochs (leave it training for longer).



There are many different ways to potentially improve a neural network. Some of the most common include: increasing the number of layers (making the network deeper), increasing the number of hidden units (making the network wider) and changing the learning rate. Because these values are all human-changeable, they're referred to as hyperparameters) and the practice of trying to find the best hyperparameters is referred to as hyperparameter tuning.

How about we try adding more neurons, an extra layer and our friend the Adam optimizer?

Surely doing this will result in predictions better than guessing...

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set_seed(42)

# 1. Create the model (this time 3 layers)
model_3 = tf.keras.Sequential([
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(100), # add 100 dense neurons
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(10), # add another layer with 10 neurons
```

Out[]:

<tensorflow.python.keras.callbacks.History at 0x7f4254f58ef0>

Still!

We've pulled out a few tricks but our model isn't even doing better than guessing.

Let's make some visualizations to see what's happening.

☐ **Note:** Whenever your model is performing strangely or there's something going on with your data you're not quite sure of, remember these three words: **visualize**, **visualize**, **visualize**. Inspect your data, inspect your model, inpsect your model's predictions.

To visualize our model's predictions we're going to create a function <code>plot_decision_boundary()</code> which:

- Takes in a trained model, features (X) and labels (Y).
- Creates a meshgrid of the different X values.
- Makes predictions across the meshgrid.
- Plots the predictions as well as a line between the different zones (where each unique class falls).

If this sounds confusing, let's see it in code and then see the output.

☐ **Note:** If you're ever unsure of what a function does, try unraveling it and writing it line by line for yourself to see what it does. Break it into small parts and see what each part outputs.

In []:

```
import numpy as np
def plot_decision_boundary(model, X, y):
  Plots the decision boundary created by a model predicting on X.
  This function has been adapted from two phenomenal resources:
   1. CS231n - https://cs231n.github.io/neural-networks-case-study/
   2. Made with ML basics - https://github.com/GokuMohandas/MadeWithML/blob/main/notebook
s/08 Neural Networks.ipynb
  # Define the axis boundaries of the plot and create a meshgrid
 x_{min}, x_{max} = X[:, 0].min() - 0.1, X[:, 0].max() + 0.1
  y \min, y \max = X[:, 1].\min() - 0.1, X[:, 1].\max() + 0.1
  xx, yy = np.meshgrid(np.linspace(x min, x max, 100),
                       np.linspace(y_min, y_max, 100))
  # Create X values (we're going to predict on all of these)
  x_in = np.c_[xx.ravel(), yy.ravel()] # stack 2D arrays together: https://numpy.org/dev
docs/reference/generated/numpy.c .html
  # Make predictions using the trained model
  y pred = model.predict(x in)
  # Check for multi-class
  if len(y pred[0]) > 1:
   print("doing multiclass classification...")
    # We have to reshape our predictions to get them ready for plotting
    y pred = np.argmax(y pred, axis=1).reshape(xx.shape)
```

```
else:
    print("doing binary classifcation...")
    y_pred = np.round(y_pred).reshape(xx.shape)

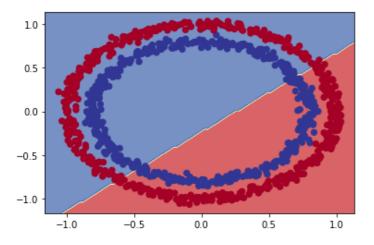
# Plot decision boundary
plt.contourf(xx, yy, y_pred, cmap=plt.cm.RdYlBu, alpha=0.7)
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y, s=40, cmap=plt.cm.RdYlBu)
plt.xlim(xx.min(), xx.max())
plt.ylim(yy.min(), yy.max())
```

Now we've got a function to plot our model's decision boundary (the cut off point its making between red and blue dots), let's try it out.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check out the predictions our model is making
plot_decision_boundary(model_3, X, y)
```

doing binary classification ...



Looks like our model is trying to draw a straight line through the data.

What's wrong with doing this?

The main issue is our data isn't separable by a straight line.

In a regression problem, our model might work. In fact, let's try it.

In []:

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set_seed(42)

# Create some regression data
X_regression = np.arange(0, 1000, 5)
y_regression = np.arange(100, 1100, 5)

# Split it into training and test sets
X_reg_train = X_regression[:150]
X_reg_test = X_regression[150:]
y_reg_train = y_regression[:150]
y_reg_test = y_regression[150:]

# Fit our model to the data
model_3.fit(X_reg_train, y_reg_train, epochs=100)
```

Epoch 1/100

```
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py in met
hod wrapper(self, *args, **kwargs)
      106
               def method wrapper(self, *args, **kwargs):
      107
                   if not self. in multi worker mode(): # pylint: disable=protected-access
--> 108
                      return method(self, *args, **kwargs)
      109
                   # Running inside `run_distribute_coordinator` already.
      110
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py in fit(
self, x, y, batch_size, epochs, verbose, callbacks, validation_split, validation_data, sh
uffle, class weight, sample weight, initial epoch, steps per epoch, validation steps, val
idation batch size, validation freq, max queue size, workers, use multiprocessing)
                                      batch size=batch size):
    1097
                                   callbacks.on train batch begin (step)
-> 1098
                                   tmp logs = train function(iterator)
    1099
                                   if data handler.should sync:
    1100
                                      context.async wait()
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/def function.py in call
_(self, *args, **kwds)
      778
                      else:
                         compiler = "nonXla"
      779
                         result = self. call(*args, **kwds)
--> 780
      781
                      new tracing_count = self._get_tracing_count()
      782
/usr/local/lib/python 3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/def \ function.py \ in \ call (s.e., the control of the cont
elf, *args, **kwds)
      805
                      # In this case we have created variables on the first call, so we run the
      806
                      # defunned version which is guaranteed to never create variables.
--> 807
                      return self. stateless fn(*args, **kwds) # pylint: disable=not-callable
      808
                   elif self. stateful fn is not None:
                      # Release the lock early so that multiple threads can perform the call
      809
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/function.py in call (se
lf, *args, **kwargs)
    2826
                  """Calls a graph function specialized to the inputs."""
                   with self. lock:
    2827
                     graph function, args, kwargs = self. maybe define function(args, kwargs)
-> 2828
                   return graph function. filtered call(args, kwargs) # pylint: disable=protect
    2829
ed-access
    2830
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/function.py in maybe defi
ne function(self, args, kwargs)
     3208
                            and self.input signature is None
                             and call_context_key in self. function cache.missed):
    3209
-> 3210
                         return self. define function with shape relaxation(args, kwargs)
     3211
     3212
                      self. function cache.missed.add(call context key)
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/function.py in define fun
ction with shape relaxation (self, args, kwargs)
     3140
                   graph function = self. create graph function(
    3141
-> 3142
                         args, kwargs, override flat arg shapes=relaxed arg shapes)
     3143
                   self. function cache.arg relaxed[rank only cache key] = graph function
     3144
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/function.py in create gra
ph_function(self, args, kwargs, override_flat_arg_shapes)
     3073
                                arg_names=arg_names,
     3074
                                override flat arg shapes=override flat arg shapes,
-> 3075
                                capture_by_value=self._capture_by_value),
     3076
                         self. function attributes,
     3077
                         function spec=self.function spec,
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/framework/func graph.py in func
graph from py func(name, python func, args, kwargs, signature, func graph, autograph, aut
ograph options, add control dependencies, arg names, op return value, collections, captur
e by value, override flat arg shapes)
      984
                          , original func = tf decorator.unwrap(python func)
```

```
985
--> 986
              func outputs = python func(*func args, **func kwargs)
    987
    988
              # invariant: `func outputs` contains only Tensors, CompositeTensors,
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/eager/def function.py in wrapped
_fn(*args, **kwds)
                   _wrapped__ allows AutoGraph to swap in a converted function. We give
    598
    599
                # the function a weak reference to itself to avoid a reference cycle.
--> 600
                return weak_wrapped_fn().__wrapped__(*args, **kwds)
    601
            weak wrapped fn = weakref.ref(wrapped fn)
    602
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/framework/func graph.py in wrapp
er(*args, **kwargs)
    971
                  except Exception as e: # pylint:disable=broad-except
    972
                    if hasattr(e, "ag error metadata"):
--> 973
                     raise e.ag error metadata.to exception(e)
    974
                    else:
    975
                      raise
ValueError: in user code:
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py:806
train function *
        return step_function(self, iterator)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py:796
step_function **
       outputs = model.distribute strategy.run(run step, args=(data,))
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/distribute/distribute lib.py
:1211 run
        return self. extended.call for each replica(fn, args=args, kwargs=kwargs)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/distribute/distribute lib.py
:2585 call for each replica
        return self. call for each replica(fn, args, kwargs)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/distribute/distribute lib.py
:2945 call for each replica
       return fn(*args, **kwargs)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py:789
run step **
       outputs = model.train step(data)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/training.py:747
train step
        y_pred = self(x, training=True)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/base layer.py:9
76 call
        self.name)
    /usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/tensorflow/python/keras/engine/input spec.py:2
16 assert input compatibility
        ' but received input with shape ' + str(shape))
    ValueError: Input 0 of layer sequential 2 is incompatible with the layer: expected ax
is -1 of input shape to have value 2 but received input with shape [None, 1]
```

Oh wait... we compiled our model for a binary classification problem.

No trouble, we can recreate it for a regression problem.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Setup random seed
tf.random.set_seed(42)

# Recreate the model
model_3 = tf.keras.Sequential([
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(100),
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(10),
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(1)]

# Change the loss and metrics of our compiled model
```

```
model 3.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.mae, # change the loss function to be regression-spe
cific
    optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(),
    metrics=['mae']) # change the metric to be regression-specific
# Fit the recompiled model
model 3.fit(X reg train, y reg train, epochs=100)
Epoch 1/100
Epoch 2/100
Epoch 3/100
Epoch 4/100
Epoch 5/100
Epoch 6/100
Epoch 7/100
Epoch 8/100
Epoch 9/100
Epoch 10/100
Epoch 11/100
Epoch 12/100
```

Epoch 13/100

Epoch 14/100

Epoch 15/100

Epoch 16/100

Epoch 17/100

Epoch 18/100

Epoch 19/100

Epoch 20/100

Epoch 22/100

Epoch 23/100

Epoch 25/100

Epoch 26/100

Epoch 27/100

Epoch 29/100

Epoch 30/100

Epoch 31/100

Epoch 32/100

Epoch 28/100

Epoch 21/100

Epoch 24/100

```
Epoch 33/100
Epoch 34/100
Epoch 35/100
Epoch 36/100
Epoch 37/100
Epoch 38/100
Epoch 39/100
Epoch 40/100
Epoch 41/100
Epoch 42/100
Epoch 43/100
Epoch 44/100
Epoch 45/100
Epoch 46/100
Epoch 47/100
Epoch 48/100
Epoch 49/100
Epoch 50/100
Epoch 51/100
Epoch 52/100
Epoch 53/100
Epoch 54/100
Epoch 55/100
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Epoch 57/100
Epoch 58/100
Epoch 59/100
Epoch 60/100
Epoch 61/100
Epoch 62/100
Epoch 63/100
Epoch 64/100
Epoch 65/100
Epoch 66/100
Epoch 67/100
Epoch 68/100
```

```
Epoch 69/100
Epoch 70/100
Epoch 71/100
Epoch 72/100
Epoch 73/100
Epoch 74/100
Epoch 75/100
Epoch 76/100
Epoch 77/100
Epoch 78/100
Epoch 79/100
Epoch 80/100
Epoch 81/100
Epoch 82/100
Epoch 83/100
Epoch 84/100
Epoch 85/100
Epoch 86/100
Epoch 87/100
Epoch 88/100
Epoch 89/100
Epoch 90/100
Epoch 91/100
Epoch 92/100
Epoch 93/100
Epoch 94/100
Epoch 95/100
Epoch 96/100
5/5 [============= ] - Os 2ms/step - loss: 38.5599 - mae: 38.5599
Epoch 97/100
Epoch 98/100
Epoch 99/100
Epoch 100/100
```

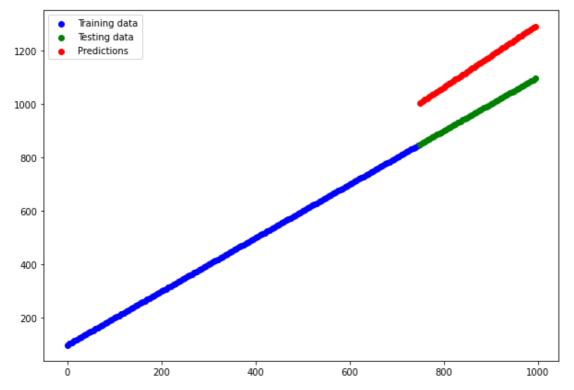
Out[]:

<tensorflow.python.keras.callbacks.History at 0x7f4254922f60>

Okay, it seems like our model is learning something (the mae value trends down with each epoch), let's plot its predictions.

```
# Make predictions with our trained model
y_reg_preds = model_3.predict(y_reg_test)

# Plot the model's predictions against our regression data
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 7))
plt.scatter(X_reg_train, y_reg_train, c='b', label='Training data')
plt.scatter(X_reg_test, y_reg_test, c='g', label='Testing data')
plt.scatter(X_reg_test, y_reg_preds.squeeze(), c='r', label='Predictions')
plt.legend();
```



Okay, the predictions aren't perfect (if the predictions were perfect, the red would line up with the green), but they look better than complete guessing.

So this means our model must be learning something...

There must be something we're missing out on for our classification problem.

The missing piece: Non-linearity

Okay, so we saw our neural network can model straight lines (with ability a little bit better than guessing).

What about non-straight (non-linear) lines?

If we're going to model our classification data (the red and clue circles), we're going to need some non-linear lines.

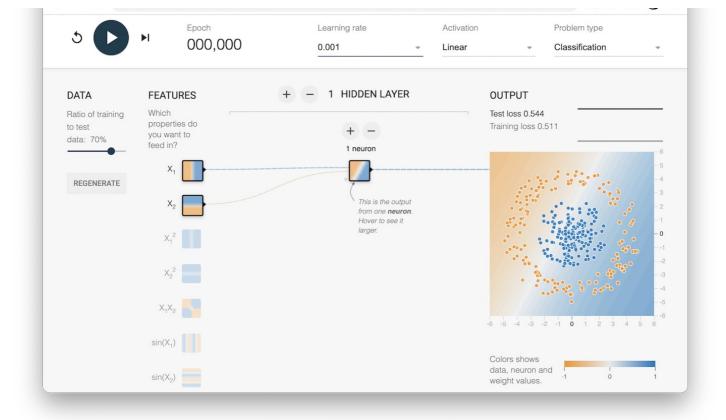
☐ **Practice:** Before we get to the next steps, I'd encourage you to play around with the <u>TensorFlow</u> Playground (check out what the data has in common with our own classification data) for 10-minutes. In particular the tab which says "activation". Once you're done, come back.

Did you try out the activation options? If so, what did you find?

If you didn't, don't worry, let's see it in code.

We're going to replicate the neural network you can see at this link: <u>TensorFlow Playground</u>.





The neural network we're going to recreate with TensorFlow code. See it live at TensorFlow Playground.

The main change we'll add to models we've built before is the use of the activation keyword.

```
In [ ]:
# Set the random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model
model 4 = tf.keras.Sequential([
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(1, activation=tf.keras.activations.linear), # 1 hidden layer wit
h linear activation
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(1) # output layer
])
# Compile the model
model 4.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.binary crossentropy,
            optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(lr=0.001), # "lr" is short for "learn
ing rate"
            metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model
history = model 4.fit(X, Y, epochs=100)
Epoch 1/100
Epoch 2/100
```

```
Epoch 3/100
Epoch 4/100
Epoch 5/100
Epoch 6/100
32/32 [=====
     =========] - 0s 924us/step - loss: 3.4960 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 7/100
Epoch 8/100
Epoch 9/100
Epoch 10/100
```

```
Epoch 11/100
Epoch 12/100
Epoch 13/100
Epoch 14/100
Epoch 15/100
Epoch 16/100
Epoch 17/100
Epoch 18/100
Epoch 19/100
Epoch 20/100
Epoch 21/100
Epoch 22/100
Epoch 23/100
Epoch 24/100
Epoch 25/100
Epoch 26/100
Epoch 27/100
Epoch 28/100
Epoch 29/100
Epoch 30/100
Epoch 31/100
Epoch 32/100
Epoch 33/100
Epoch 34/100
Epoch 35/100
Epoch 36/100
Epoch 37/100
Epoch 38/100
Epoch 39/100
Epoch 40/100
Epoch 41/100
Epoch 42/100
Epoch 43/100
Epoch 44/100
Epoch 45/100
```

Epoch 46/100

```
Epoch 47/100
Epoch 48/100
Epoch 49/100
Epoch 50/100
Epoch 51/100
Epoch 52/100
Epoch 53/100
Epoch 54/100
Epoch 55/100
Epoch 56/100
Epoch 57/100
Epoch 58/100
Epoch 59/100
Epoch 60/100
Epoch 61/100
32/32 [============] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.7654 - accuracy: 0.4560
Epoch 62/100
Epoch 63/100
Epoch 64/100
Epoch 65/100
Epoch 66/100
Epoch 67/100
Epoch 68/100
Epoch 69/100
Epoch 70/100
Epoch 71/100
Epoch 72/100
Epoch 73/100
Epoch 74/100
Epoch 75/100
Epoch 76/100
Epoch 77/100
Epoch 78/100
Epoch 79/100
Epoch 80/100
Epoch 81/100
```

Epoch 82/100

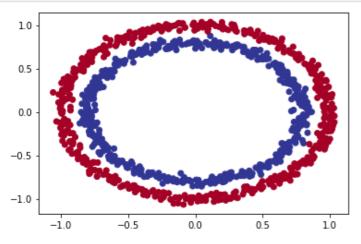
```
Epoch 83/100
Epoch 84/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.7309 - accuracy: 0.4790
Epoch 85/100
Epoch 86/100
Epoch 87/100
Epoch 88/100
Epoch 89/100
Epoch 90/100
Epoch 91/100
Epoch 92/100
Epoch 93/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.7230 - accuracy: 0.4890
Epoch 94/100
Epoch 95/100
Epoch 96/100
Epoch 97/100
Epoch 98/100
Epoch 99/100
Epoch 100/100
```

Okay, our model performs a little worse than guessing.

Let's remind ourselves what our data looks like.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check out our data
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y, cmap=plt.cm.RdYlBu);
```

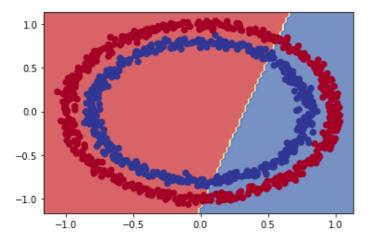


And let's see how our model is making predictions on it.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check the deicison boundary (blue is blue class, yellow is the crossover, red is red cl
ass)
plot_decision_boundary(model_4, X, y)
```

doing binary classifcation...



Well, it looks like we're getting a straight (linear) line prediction again.

But our data is non-linear (not a straight line)...

What we're going to have to do is add some non-linearity to our model.

To do so, we'll use the activation parameter in on of our layers.

In []:

Set random seed

```
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create a model with a non-linear activation
model 5 = tf.keras.Sequential([
tf.keras.layers.Dense(1, activation=tf.keras.activations.relu), # can also do activati
on='relu'
tf.keras.layers.Dense(1) # output layer
])
# Compile the model
model 5.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.binary_crossentropy,
     optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(),
     metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model
history = model 5.fit(X, y, epochs=100)
Epoch 1/100
Epoch 2/100
32/32 [============= ] - Os 920us/step - loss: 1.4449 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 3/100
Epoch 4/100
Epoch 5/100
Epoch 6/100
Epoch 7/100
Epoch 8/100
Epoch 9/100
Epoch 10/100
Epoch 11/100
Epoch 12/100
Epoch 13/100
```

```
Epoch 14/100
Epoch 15/100
Epoch 16/100
Epoch 17/100
Epoch 18/100
Epoch 19/100
Epoch 20/100
Epoch 21/100
Epoch 22/100
Epoch 23/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.7036 - accuracy: 0.4870
Epoch 24/100
Epoch 25/100
Epoch 26/100
Epoch 27/100
Epoch 28/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.6959 - accuracy: 0.4970
Epoch 29/100
Epoch 30/100
Epoch 31/100
Epoch 32/100
Epoch 33/100
Epoch 34/100
Epoch 35/100
Epoch 36/100
Epoch 37/100
Epoch 38/100
Epoch 39/100
Epoch 40/100
Epoch 41/100
32/32 [============ ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.6936 - accuracy: 0.5060
Epoch 42/100
Epoch 43/100
Epoch 44/100
Epoch 45/100
Epoch 46/100
Epoch 47/100
32/32 [============ ] - Os 997us/step - loss: 0.6935 - accuracy: 0.4870
Epoch 48/100
Epoch 49/100
```

```
Epoch 50/100
Epoch 51/100
Epoch 52/100
Epoch 53/100
Epoch 54/100
32/32 [============= ] - Os 993us/step - loss: 0.6933 - accuracy: 0.5530
Epoch 55/100
32/32 [============= ] - Os 972us/step - loss: 0.6935 - accuracy: 0.5060
Epoch 56/100
Epoch 57/100
Epoch 58/100
Epoch 59/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.6938 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 60/100
Epoch 61/100
Epoch 62/100
Epoch 63/100
Epoch 64/100
32/32 [============= ] - Os 1ms/step - loss: 0.6934 - accuracy: 0.4820
Epoch 65/100
Epoch 66/100
Epoch 67/100
Epoch 68/100
Epoch 69/100
Epoch 70/100
Epoch 71/100
Epoch 72/100
Epoch 73/100
Epoch 74/100
Epoch 75/100
Epoch 76/100
Epoch 77/100
Epoch 78/100
Epoch 79/100
Epoch 80/100
Epoch 81/100
Epoch 82/100
Epoch 83/100
32/32 [============] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.6936 - accuracy: 0.4840
Epoch 84/100
Epoch 85/100
```

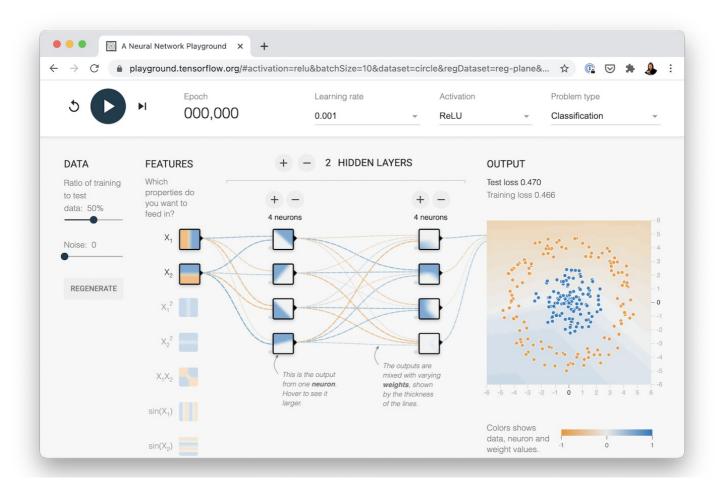
```
Epoch 86/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.6935 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 87/100
   ========= ] - Os 1ms/step - loss: 0.6933 - accuracy: 0.5000
32/32 [======
Epoch 88/100
Epoch 89/100
Epoch 90/100
Epoch 91/100
Epoch 92/100
Epoch 93/100
Epoch 94/100
Epoch 95/100
Epoch 96/100
Epoch 97/100
Epoch 98/100
Epoch 99/100
Epoch 100/100
```

Hmm... still not learning...

What we if increased the number of neurons and layers?

Say, 2 hidden layers, with <u>ReLU</u>, pronounced "rel-u", (short for <u>rectified linear unit</u>), activation on the first one, and 4 neurons each?

To see this network in action, check out the TensorFlow Playground demo.



The neural network we're going to recreate with TensorFlow code. See it live at TensorFlow Playground.

Let's try.

Epoch 22/100

```
In [ ]:
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create a model
model 6 = tf.keras.Sequential([
tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation=tf.keras.activations.relu), # hidden layer 1, 4 ne
urons, ReLU activation
tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation=tf.keras.activations.relu), # hidden layer 2, 4 ne
urons, ReLU activation
tf.keras.layers.Dense(1) # ouput layer
])
# Compile the model
model 6.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.binary crossentropy,
     optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(lr=0.001), # Adam's default learning
rate is 0.001
     metrics=['accuracy'])
# Fit the model
history = model 6.fit(X, y, epochs=100)
Epoch 1/100
Epoch 2/100
Epoch 3/100
Epoch 4/100
Epoch 5/100
Epoch 6/100
Epoch 7/100
Epoch 8/100
Epoch 9/100
Epoch 10/100
Epoch 11/100
Epoch 12/100
Epoch 13/100
Epoch 14/100
Epoch 15/100
Epoch 16/100
Epoch 17/100
Epoch 18/100
Epoch 19/100
Epoch 20/100
Epoch 21/100
```

```
Epoch 23/100
Epoch 24/100
Epoch 25/100
Epoch 26/100
Epoch 27/100
Epoch 28/100
Epoch 29/100
Epoch 30/100
32/32 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 7.7125 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 31/100
Epoch 32/100
Epoch 33/100
Epoch 34/100
Epoch 35/100
Epoch 36/100
Epoch 37/100
Epoch 38/100
Epoch 39/100
Epoch 40/100
Epoch 41/100
Epoch 42/100
Epoch 43/100
Epoch 44/100
Epoch 45/100
Epoch 46/100
Epoch 47/100
Epoch 48/100
Epoch 49/100
Epoch 50/100
Epoch 51/100
Epoch 52/100
Epoch 53/100
Epoch 54/100
Epoch 55/100
Epoch 56/100
Epoch 57/100
Epoch 58/100
```

```
Epoch 59/100
Epoch 60/100
Epoch 61/100
Epoch 62/100
Epoch 63/100
Epoch 64/100
Epoch 65/100
Epoch 66/100
Epoch 67/100
Epoch 68/100
Epoch 69/100
Epoch 70/100
Epoch 71/100
Epoch 72/100
Epoch 73/100
Epoch 74/100
Epoch 75/100
Epoch 76/100
Epoch 77/100
Epoch 78/100
Epoch 79/100
Epoch 80/100
Epoch 81/100
Epoch 82/100
Epoch 83/100
Epoch 84/100
Epoch 85/100
Epoch 86/100
Epoch 87/100
Epoch 88/100
Epoch 89/100
Epoch 90/100
Epoch 91/100
Epoch 92/100
Epoch 93/100
Epoch 94/100
```

```
=======] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 7.7125 - accuracy: 0.5000
Epoch 95/100
Epoch 96/100
Epoch 97/100
Epoch 98/100
Epoch 99/100
Epoch 100/100
In [ ]:
# Evaluate the model
model 6.evaluate(X, y)
Out[]:
```

We're still hitting 50% accuracy, our model is still practically as good as guessing.

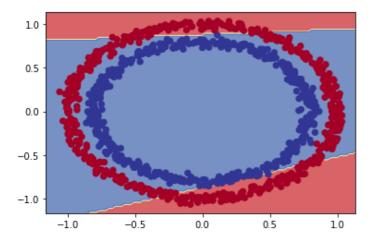
How do the predictions look?

[7.712474346160889, 0.5]

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check out the predictions using 2 hidden layers
plot_decision_boundary(model_6, X, y)
```

doing binary classifcation...



What gives?

It seems like our model is the same as the one in the <u>TensorFlow Playground</u> but model it's still drawing straight lines...

Ideally, the yellow lines go on the inside of the red circle and the blue circle.

Okay, okay, let's model this circle once and for all.

One more model (I promise... actually, I'm going to have to break that promise... we'll be building plenty more models).

This time we'll change the activation function on our output layer too. Remember the architecture of a classification model? For binary classification, the output layer activation is usually the <u>Sigmoid activation</u> function.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Set random seed
```

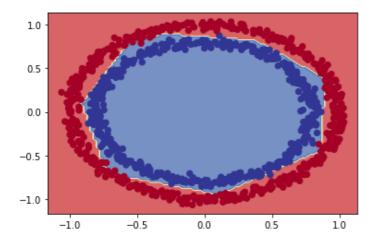
In []:

Woah! It looks like our model is getting some incredible results, let's check them out.

In []:

```
# View the predictions of the model with relu and sigmoid activations plot_decision_boundary(model_7, X, y)
```

doing binary classification ...



Nice! It looks like our model is almost perfectly (apart from a few examples) separating the two circles.

☐ Question: What's wrong with the predictions we've made? Are we really evaluating our model correctly here? Hint: what data did the model learn on and what did we predict on?

Before we answer that, it's important to recognize what we've just covered.

■ Note: The combination of linear (straight lines) and non-linear (non-straight lines) functions is one of the key fundamentals of neural networks.

Think of it like this:

If I gave you an unlimited amount of straight lines and non-straight lines, what kind of patterns could you draw?

That's essentially what neural networks do to find patterns in data.

Now you might be thinking, "but I haven't seen a linear function or a non-linear function before..."

Oh but you have.

We've been using them the whole time.

They're what power the layers in the models we just built.

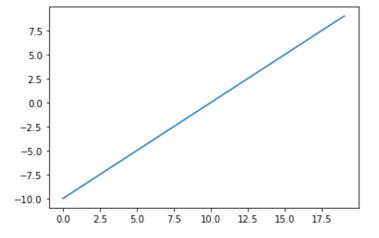
To get some intuition about the activation functions we've just used, let's create them and then try them on some toy data.

```
In [ ]:
```

How does this look?

In []:

```
# Visualize our toy tensor
plt.plot(A);
```



A straight (linear) line!

Nice, now let's recreate the <u>sigmoid function</u> and see what it does to our data. You can also find a pre-built <u>sigmoid function at tf.keras.activations.sigmoid</u>.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Sigmoid - https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/keras/activations/sigmoid
def sigmoid(x):
    return 1 / (1 + tf.exp(-x))
# Use the sigmoid function on our tensor
sigmoid(A)
```

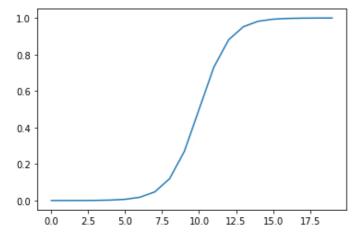
Out[]:

```
9.9752742e-01, 9.9908900e-01, 9.9966466e-01, 9.9987662e-01], dtype=float32)>
```

And how does it look?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot sigmoid modified tensor
plt.plot(sigmoid(A));
```



A non-straight (non-linear) line!

Okay, how about the ReLU function (ReLU turns all negatives to 0 and positive numbers stay the same)?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# ReLU - https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/keras/activations/relu
def relu(x):
    return tf.maximum(0, x)

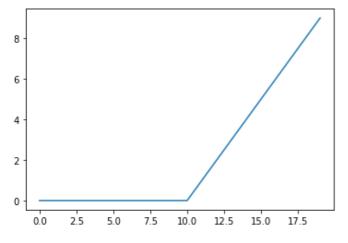
# Pass toy tensor through ReLU function
relu(A)
```

```
Out[]:
```

How does the ReLU-modified tensor look?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot ReLU-modified tensor
plt.plot(relu(A));
```



Another non-straight line!

Well, how about TensorFlow's linear activation function?

Hmm, it looks like our inputs are unmodified...

```
In []:

# Does the linear activation change anything?
A == tf.keras.activations.linear(A)

Out[]:

<tf.Tensor: shape=(20,), dtype=bool, numpy=
array([True, True, T
```

Okay, so it makes sense now the model doesn't really learn anything when using only linear activation functions, because the linear activation function doesn't change our input data in anyway.

Where as, with our non-linear functions, our data gets manipulated. A neural network uses these kind of transformations at a large scale to figure draw patterns between its inputs and outputs.

Now rather than dive into the guts of neural networks, we're going to keep coding applying what we've learned to different problems but if you want a more in-depth look at what's going on behind the scenes, check out the Extra Curriculum section below.

☐ Resource: For more on activation functions, check out the <u>machine learning cheatsheet page</u> on them.

Evaluating and improving our classification model

If you answered the question above, you might've picked up what we've been doing wrong.

We've been evaluating our model on the same data it was trained on.

A better approach would be to split our data into training, validation (optional) and test sets.

Once we've done that, we'll train our model on the training set (let it find patterns in the data) and then see how well it learned the patterns by using it to predict values on the test set.

Let's do it.

```
In []:
# How many examples are in the whole dataset?
len(X)
Out[]:
1000
In []:
# Split data into train and test sets
```

```
X train, y train = X[:800], y[:800] # 80% of the data for the training set
X test, y test = X[800:], y[800:] # 20% of the data for the test set
# Check the shapes of the data
X train.shape, X test.shape # 800 examples in the training set, 200 examples in the test
set
Out[]:
((800, 2), (200, 2))
```

Great, now we've got training and test sets, let's model the training data and evaluate what our model has

```
learned on the test set.
In [ ]:
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model (same as model 7)
model 8 = tf.keras.Sequential([
tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"), # hidden layer 1, using "relu" for activa
tion (same as tf.keras.activations.relu)
tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
tf.keras.layers.Dense(1, activation="sigmoid") # output layer, using 'sigmoid' for the
output
])
# Compile the model
model 8.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.binary crossentropy,
      optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(lr=0.01), # increase learning rate fr
om 0.001 to 0.01 for faster learning
      metrics=['accuracy'])
# Fit the model
history = model 8.fit(X train, y train, epochs=25)
Epoch 1/25
Epoch 2/25
Epoch 3/25
Epoch 4/25
Epoch 5/25
Epoch 6/25
Epoch 7/25
Epoch 8/25
Epoch 9/25
Epoch 10/25
Epoch 11/25
Epoch 12/25
Epoch 13/25
Epoch 14/25
Epoch 15/25
Epoch 16/25
Epoch 17/25
```

Enoch 18/25

```
110011 10/20
Epoch 19/25
Epoch 20/25
25/25 [============= ] - 0s 988us/step - loss: 0.2135 - accuracy: 0.9663
Epoch 21/25
Epoch 22/25
Epoch 23/25
Epoch 24/25
Epoch 25/25
In [ ]:
# Evaluate our model on the test set
loss, accuracy = model 8.evaluate(X test, y test)
print(f"Model loss on the test set: {loss}")
print(f"Model accuracy on the test set: {100*accuracy:.2f}%")
Model loss on the test set: 0.12468849867582321
```

100% accuracy? Nice!

Now, when we started to create <code>model_8</code> we said it was going to be the same as <code>model_7</code> but you might've found that to be a little lie.

That's because we changed a few things:

Model accuracy on the test set: 100.00%

- The activation parameter We used strings ("relu" & "sigmoid") instead of using library paths (tf.keras.activations.relu), in TensorFlow, they both offer the same functionality.
- The learning_rate (also 1r) parameter We increased the learning rate parameter in the Adam optimizer to 0.01 instead of 0.001 (an increase of 10x).
 - You can think of the learning rate as how quickly a model learns. The higher the learning rate, the faster the model's capacity to learn, however, there's such a thing as a too high learning rate, where a model tries to learn too fast and doesn't learn anything. We'll see a trick to find the ideal learning rate soon.
- The number of epochs We lowered the number of epochs (using the epochs parameter) from 100 to 25 but our model still got an incredible result on both the training and test sets.
 - One of the reasons our model performed well in even less epochs (remember a single epoch is the model trying to learn patterns in the data by looking at it once, so 25 epochs means the model gets 25 chances) than before is because we increased the learning rate.

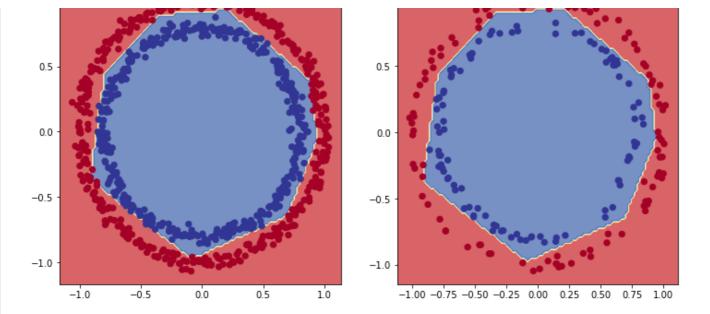
We know our model is performing well based on the evaluation metrics but let's see how it performs visually.

```
In []:

# Plot the decision boundaries for the training and test sets
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.title("Train")
plot_decision_boundary(model_8, X=X_train, y=y_train)
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.title("Test")
plot_decision_boundary(model_8, X=X_test, y=y_test)
plt.show()

doing binary classification...
doing binary classification...
```

Train Tes



Check that out! How cool. With a few tweaks, our model is now predicting the blue and red circles almost perfectly.

Plot the loss curves

Looking at the plots above, we can see the outputs of our model are very good.

But how did our model go whilst it was learning?

As in, how did the performance change everytime the model had a chance to look at the data (once every epoch)?

To figure this out, we can check the loss curves (also referred to as the learning curves).

You might've seen we've been using the variable history when calling the fit() function on a model ($\underline{\text{fit}}$ () returns a $\underline{\text{History}}$ object).

This is where we'll get the information for how our model is performing as it learns.

Let's see how we might use it.

In []:

You can access the information in the history variable using the .history attribute pd.DataFrame(history.history)

Out[]:

	loss	accuracy
0	0.684651	0.54250
1	0.677721	0.55250
2	0.673595	0.55125
3	0.668149	0.57750
4	0.663269	0.58500
5	0.654567	0.58375
6	0.641258	0.67500
7	0.626428	0.70125
8	0.603831	0.74875
9	0.571404	0.77375
10	0.540443	0.76500
11	0.501504	0.78375

12	0.468 332	асснуясу
13	0.411302	0.84500
14	0.362506	0.91250
15	0.320904	0.93125
16	0.284708	0.94875
17	0.259720	0.95250
18	0.237469	0.95625
19	0.213520	0.96625
20	0.193820	0.97750
21	0.175244	0.97375
22	0.161893	0.97875
23	0.154989	0.97750
24	0.148973	0.97625

Inspecting the outputs, we can see the loss values going down and the accuracy going up.

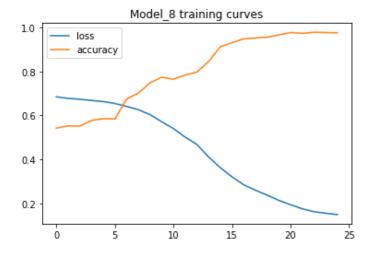
How's it look (visualize, visualize, visualize)?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot the loss curves
pd.DataFrame(history.history).plot()
plt.title("Model_8 training curves")
```

Out[]:

```
Text(0.5, 1.0, 'Model_8 training curves')
```



Beautiful. This is the ideal plot we'd be looking for when dealing with a classification problem, loss going down, accuracy going up.

☐ **Note:** For many problems, the loss function going down means the model is improving (the predictions it's making are getting closer to the ground truth labels).

Finding the best learning rate

Aside from the architecture itself (the layers, number of neurons, activations, etc), the most important hyperparameter you can tune for your neural network models is the **learning rate**.

In model_8 you saw we lowered the Adam optimizer's learning rate from the default of 0.001 (default) to 0.01.

And you might be wondering why we did this.

Put it this way, it was a lucky guess.

I just decided to try a lower learning rate and see how the model went.

Now you might be thinking, "Seriously? You can do that?"

And the answer is yes. You can change any of the hyperparamaters of your neural networks.

With practice, you'll start to see what kind of hyperparameters work and what don't.

That's an important thing to understand about machine learning and deep learning in general. It's very experimental. You build a model and evaluate it, build a model and evaluate it.

That being said, I want to introduce you a trick which will help you find the optimal learning rate (at least to begin training with) for your models going forward.

To do so, we're going to use the following:

- A <u>learning rate callback</u>.
 - You can think of a callback as an extra piece of functionality you can add to your model while its training.
- Another model (we could use the same ones as above, we we're practicing building models here).
- A modified loss curves plot.

We'll go through each with code, then explain what's going on.

☐ **Note:** The default hyperparameters of many neural network building blocks in TensorFlow are setup in a way which usually work right out of the box (e.g. the <u>Adam optimizer's</u> default settings can usually get good results on many datasets). So it's a good idea to try the defaults first, then adjust as needed.

In []:

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create a model (same as model 8)
model 9 = tf.keras.Sequential([
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(1, activation="sigmoid")
])
# Compile the model
model 9.compile(loss="binary crossentropy", # we can use strings here too
             optimizer="Adam", # same as tf.keras.optimizers.Adam() with default settin
gs
             metrics=["accuracy"])
# Create a learning rate scheduler callback
lr scheduler = tf.keras.callbacks.LearningRateScheduler(lambda epoch: 1e-4 * 10**(epoch/
20)) # traverse a set of learning rate values starting from 1e-4, increasing by 10**(epoc
h/20) every epoch
# Fit the model (passing the lr scheduler callback)
history = model 9.fit(X train,
                      y train,
                      epochs=100,
                      callbacks=[lr scheduler])
```

```
האחרוד בו דוחח
Epoch 5/100
Epoch 6/100
Epoch 7/100
Epoch 8/100
Epoch 9/100
Epoch 10/100
Epoch 11/100
Epoch 12/100
Epoch 13/100
Epoch 14/100
Epoch 15/100
Epoch 16/100
Epoch 17/100
Epoch 18/100
Epoch 19/100
Epoch 20/100
Epoch 21/100
Epoch 22/100
Epoch 23/100
Epoch 24/100
Epoch 25/100
Epoch 26/100
25/25 [============ ] - Os 981us/step - loss: 0.6778 - accuracy: 0.5387
Epoch 27/100
Epoch 28/100
Epoch 29/100
Epoch 30/100
Epoch 31/100
Epoch 32/100
Epoch 33/100
Epoch 34/100
Epoch 35/100
Epoch 36/100
Epoch 37/100
Epoch 38/100
Epoch 39/100
```

Froch /0/100

```
TOOCII TO/ TOO
Epoch 41/100
25/25 [============ ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.5904 - accuracy: 0.7487
Epoch 42/100
Epoch 43/100
Epoch 44/100
Epoch 45/100
Epoch 46/100
Epoch 47/100
Epoch 48/100
Epoch 49/100
Epoch 50/100
25/25 [============= ] - Os 936us/step - loss: 0.1002 - accuracy: 0.9700
Epoch 51/100
25/25 [============ ] - 0s 972us/step - loss: 0.1166 - accuracy: 0.9638
Epoch 52/100
Epoch 53/100
Epoch 54/100
Epoch 55/100
Epoch 56/100
Epoch 57/100
Epoch 58/100
Epoch 59/100
Epoch 60/100
Epoch 61/100
Epoch 62/100
Epoch 63/100
Epoch 64/100
Epoch 65/100
Epoch 66/100
Epoch 67/100
Epoch 68/100
Epoch 69/100
Epoch 70/100
Epoch 71/100
Epoch 72/100
Epoch 73/100
25/25 [============= ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.1096 - accuracy: 0.9600
Epoch 74/100
Epoch 75/100
```

Froch 76/100

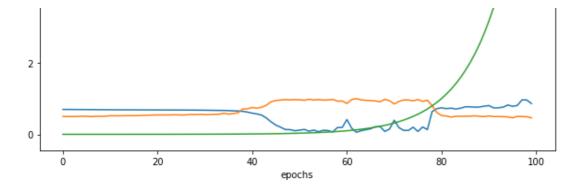
```
прост 10/100
Epoch 77/100
25/25 [============== ] - 0s 1ms/step - loss: 0.2043 - accuracy: 0.9187
Epoch 78/100
Epoch 79/100
25/25 [============= ] - Os 986us/step - loss: 0.6341 - accuracy: 0.8000
Epoch 80/100
Epoch 81/100
Epoch 82/100
Epoch 83/100
Epoch 84/100
Epoch 85/100
Epoch 86/100
Epoch 87/100
Epoch 88/100
Epoch 89/100
Epoch 90/100
Epoch 91/100
Epoch 92/100
Epoch 93/100
Epoch 94/100
Epoch 95/100
Epoch 96/100
Epoch 97/100
25/25 [============= ] - Os 961us/step - loss: 0.8059 - accuracy: 0.5013
Epoch 98/100
Epoch 99/100
Epoch 100/100
```

Now our model has finished training, let's have a look at the training history.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Checkout the history
pd.DataFrame(history.history).plot(figsize=(10,7), xlabel="epochs");
```





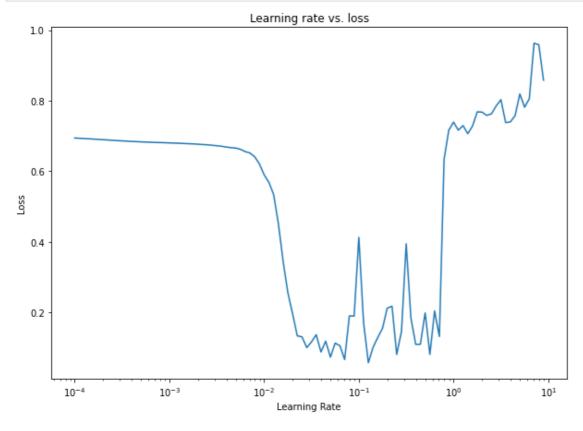
As you you see the learning rate exponentially increases as the number of epochs increases.

And you can see the model's accuracy goes up (and loss goes down) at a specific point when the learning rate slowly increases.

To figure out where this infliction point is, we can plot the loss versus the log-scale learning rate.

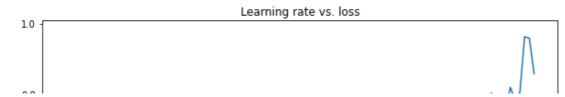
In []:

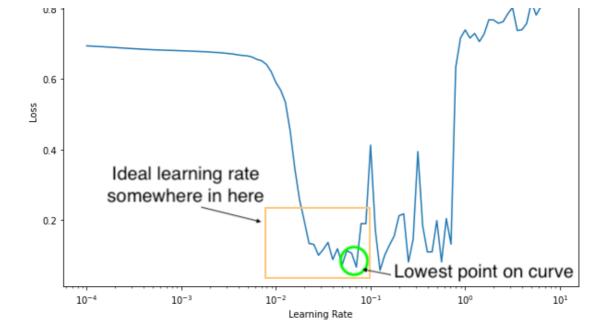
```
# Plot the learning rate versus the loss
lrs = 1e-4 * (10 ** (np.arange(100)/20))
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 7))
plt.semilogx(lrs, history.history["loss"]) # we want the x-axis (learning rate) to be log
scale
plt.xlabel("Learning Rate")
plt.ylabel("Loss")
plt.title("Learning rate vs. loss");
```



To figure out the ideal value of the learning rate (at least the ideal value to begin training our model), the rule of thumb is to take the learning rate value where the loss is still decreasing but not quite flattened out (usually about 10x smaller than the bottom of the curve).

In this case, our ideal learning rate ends up between [0.01] (10^{-2}) and [0.02].





The ideal learning rate at the start of model training is somewhere just before the loss curve bottoms out (a value where the loss is still decreasing).

```
In []:

# Example of other typical learning rate values
10**0, 10**-1, 10**-2, 10**-3, 1e-4

Out[]:
(1, 0.1, 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001)
```

Now we've estimated the ideal learning rate (we'll use 0.02) for our model, let's refit it.

25/25 [====

Epoch 6/20

Epoch 7/20

Epoch 8/20

```
In [ ]:
# Set the random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model
model 10 = tf.keras.Sequential([
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(1, activation="sigmoid")
1)
# Compile the model with the ideal learning rate
model 10.compile(loss="binary crossentropy",
           optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(lr=0.02), # to adjust the learning ra
te, you need to use tf.keras.optimizers.Adam (not "adam")
           metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model for 20 epochs (5 less than before)
history = model 10.fit(X train, y train, epochs=20)
Epoch 1/20
Epoch 2/20
Epoch 3/20
Epoch 4/20
25/25 [================== ] - Os 992us/step - loss: 0.6332 - accuracy: 0.6388
Epoch 5/20
```

```
Epoch 9/20
Epoch 10/20
Epoch 11/20
Epoch 12/20
Epoch 13/20
Epoch 14/20
Epoch 15/20
Epoch 16/20
Epoch 17/20
Epoch 18/20
Epoch 19/20
Epoch 20/20
```

Nice! With a little higher learning rate (0.02 instead of 0.01) we reach a higher accuracy than $model_8$ in less epochs (20 instead of 25).

☐ **Practice:** Now you've seen an example of what can happen when you change the learning rate, try changing the learning rate value in the <u>TensorFlow Playground</u> and see what happens. What happens if you increase it? What happens if you decrease it?

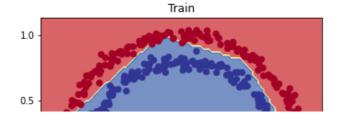
```
In [ ]:
```

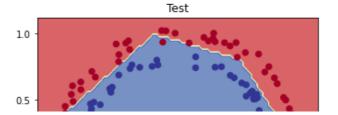
Let's see how the predictions look.

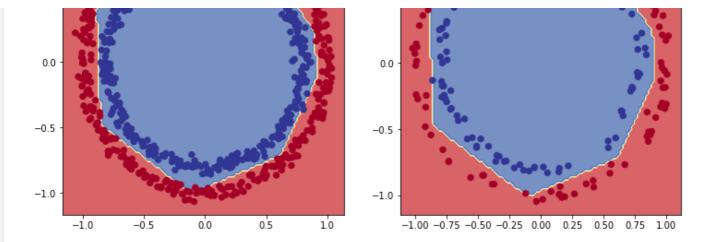
```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot the decision boundaries for the training and test sets
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.title("Train")
plot_decision_boundary(model_10, X=X_train, y=y_train)
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.title("Test")
plot_decision_boundary(model_10, X=X_test, y=y_test)
plt.show()
```

```
doing binary classification... doing binary classification...
```







And as we can see, almost perfect again.

These are the kind of experiments you'll be running often when building your own models.

Start with default settings and see how they perform on your data.

And if they don't perform as well as you'd like, improve them.

Let's look at a few more ways to evaluate our classification models.

More classification evaluation methods

Alongside the visualizations we've been making, there are a number of different evaluation metrics we can use to evaluate our classification models.

Defintion Co	tion Defintion	Metric name/Evaluation method
ut of 100 predictions, how many does your model get correct? E.g. 95% accuracy means it gets 95/100 predictions correct.		Accuracy
ortion of true positives over total number of samples. Higher precision leads to less false positives (model predicts 1 when it should've been 0). **Sklearn.metrics.precision_score()** tf.keras.metrics.Precision_score()** **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **Sklearn.metrics.precision_score()** **Indiana or a structure of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision of true positives over total number of samples. **The procision o	p (Precision
·	should've been 1). Higher recall leads to less false	Recall
nes precision and recall into one metric. 1 is best, 0 is worst.		F1-score
Custom function	tabular way, if 100% correct, all values in the matrix will be	Confusion matrix
ction of some of the main classification metrics such as precision, recall and f1-score.		Classification report

☐ **Note:** Every classification problem will require different kinds of evaluation methods. But you should be familiar with at least the ones above.

Let's start with accuracy.

Because we passed ["accuracy"] to the metrics parameter when we compiled our model, calling evaluate() on it will return the loss as well as accuracy.

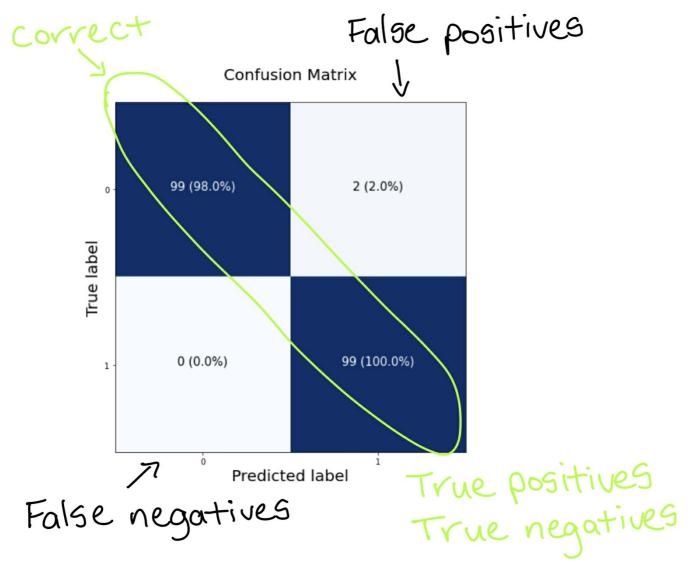
```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check the accuracy of our model
loss, accuracy = model_10.evaluate(X_test, y_test)
print(f"Model loss on test set: {loss}")
```

How about a confusion matrix?

Model loss on test set: 0.05740181356668472

Model accuracy on test set: 99.00%



Anatomy of a confusion matrix (what we're going to be creating). Correct predictions appear down the diagonal (from top left to bottom right).

We can make a confusion matrix using Scikit-Learn's confusion matrix method.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Create a confusion matrix
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix

# Make predictions
y_preds = model_10.predict(X_test)

# Create confusion matrix
confusion_matrix(y_test, y_preds)
```

/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sklearn/metrics/_classification.py in confusion_matrix(y_true, y_pred, labels, sample_weight, normalize) 266

```
11 11 11
    267
--> 268
             y_type, y_true, y_pred = _check_targets(y_true, y_pred)
if y_type not in ("binary", "multiclass"):
    269
                  raise ValueError("%s is not supported" % y type)
    270
/usr/local/lib/python3.6/dist-packages/sklearn/metrics/ classification.py in check targe
ts(y_true, y_pred)
             if len(y_type) > 1:
     88
                 raise ValueError("Classification metrics can't handle a mix of {0}"
     89
---> 90
                                     "and {1} targets".format(type_true, type_pred))
     91
     92
             # We can't have more than one value on y type => The set is no more needed
ValueError: Classification metrics can't handle a mix of binary and continuous targets
```

Ahh, it seems our predictions aren't in the format they need to be.

Let's check them out.

What about our test labels?

```
In []:
# View the first 10 test labels
y_test[:10]
Out[]:
array([1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0])
```

It looks like we need to get our predictions into the binary format (0 or 1).

But you might be wondering, what format are they currently in?

In their current format (9.8526537e-01), they're in a form called prediction probabilities.

You'll see this often with the outputs of neural networks. Often they won't be exact values but more a probability of how *likely* they are to be one value or another.

So one of the steps you'll often see after making predicitons with a neural network is converting the prediction probabilities into labels.

In our case, since our ground truth labels (y_test) are binary (0 or 1), we can convert the prediction probabilities using to their binary form using tf.round().

```
In []:
# Convert prediction probabilities to binary format and view the first 10
tf.round(y_preds)[:10]
Out[]:
```

Wonderful! Now we can use the confusion matrix function.

In []:

labels = classes

Label the axes

labels = np.arange(cm.shape[0])

xlabel="Predicted label",
ylabel="True label",

xticks=np.arange(n_classes),
yticks=np.arange(n_classes),

ax.set(title="Confusion Matrix",

xticklabels=labels,
yticklabels=labels)

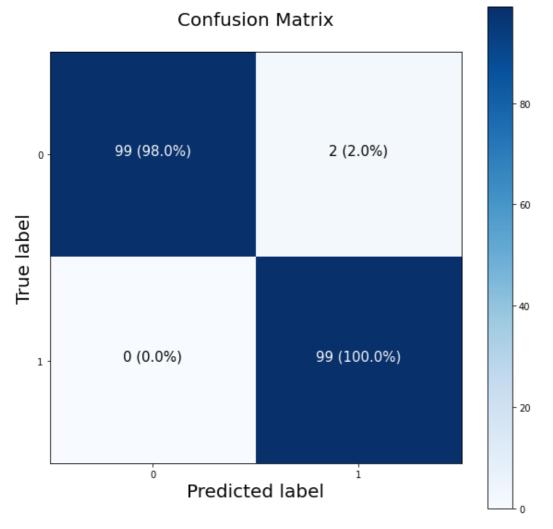
ax.xaxis.set label position("bottom")

Set x-axis labels to bottom

Alright, we can see the highest numbers are down the diagonal (from top left to bottom right) so this a good sign, but the rest of the matrix doesn't really tell us much.

How about we make a function to make our confusion matrix a little more visual?

```
# Note: The following confusion matrix code is a remix of Scikit-Learn's
# plot confusion matrix function - https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/skle
arn.metrics.plot confusion matrix.html
# and Made with ML's introductory notebook - https://github.com/GokuMohandas/MadeWithML/b
lob/main/notebooks/08 Neural Networks.ipynb
figsize = (10, 10)
# Create the confusion matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, tf.round(y_preds))
cm norm = cm.astype("float") / cm.sum(axis=1)[:, np.newaxis] # normalize it
n classes = cm.shape[0]
# Let's prettify it
fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=figsize)
# Create a matrix plot
cax = ax.matshow(cm, cmap=plt.cm.Blues) # https://matplotlib.org/3.2.0/api/ as gen/matpl
otlib.axes.Axes.matshow.html
fig.colorbar(cax)
# Create classes
classes = False
if classes:
```



That looks much better. It seems our model has made almost perfect predictions on the test set except for two false positives (top right corner).

```
In []:

# What does itertools.product do? Combines two things into each combination
import itertools
for i, j in itertools.product(range(cm.shape[0]), range(cm.shape[1])):
    print(i, j)
0 0
0 1
1 0
```

Working with a larger example (multiclass classification)

1 1

We've seen a binary classification example (predicting if a data point is part of a red circle or blue circle) but

what if you had multiple different classes of things?

For example, say you were a fashion company and you wanted to build a neural network to predict whether a piece of clothing was a shoe, a shirt or a jacket (3 different options).

When you have more than two classes as an option, this is known as multiclass classification.

The good news is, the things we've learned so far (with a few tweaks) can be applied to multiclass classification problems as well.

Let's see it in action.

To start, we'll need some data. The good thing for us is TensorFlow has a multiclass classication dataset known as <u>Fashion MNIST built-in</u>. Meaning we can get started straight away.

We can import it using the tf.keras.datasets module.

☐ Resource: The following multiclass classification problem has been adapted from the TensorFlow classification guide. A good exercise would be to once you've gone through the following example, replicate the TensorFlow guide.

In []:

```
import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras.datasets import fashion mnist
# The data has already been sorted into training and test sets for us
(train data, train labels), (test data, test labels) = fashion mnist.load data()
Downloading data from https://storage.googleapis.com/tensorflow/tf-keras-datasets/train-l
abels-idx1-ubyte.gz
32768/29515 [============== ] - Os Ous/step
Downloading data from https://storage.googleapis.com/tensorflow/tf-keras-datasets/train-i
mages-idx3-ubyte.gz
Downloading data from https://storage.googleapis.com/tensorflow/tf-keras-datasets/t10k-la
bels-idx1-ubyte.gz
8192/5148 [========] - Os Ous/step
Downloading data from https://storage.googleapis.com/tensorflow/tf-keras-datasets/t10k-im
ages-idx3-ubyte.gz
```

Now let's check out an example.

In []:

```
# Show the first training example
print(f"Training sample:\n{train_data[0]}\n")
print(f"Training label: {train labels[0]}")
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224 234 176 188 250 248 233 238 215
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255 255 221 234 221 211 220 232 246
                                       01
  3 202 228 224 221 211 211 214 205 205 205 220 240 80 150 255 229 221
188 154 191 210 204 209 222 228 225
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[ 98 233 198 210 222 229 229 234 249 220 194 215 217 241 65 73 106 117
168 219 221 215 217 223 223 224 229
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[ 75 204 212 204 193 205 211 225 216 185 197 206 198 213 240 195 227 245
 239 223 218 212 209 222 220 221 230
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[ 48 203 183 194 213 197 185 190 194 192 202 214 219 221 220 236 225 216
199 206 186 181 177 172 181 205 206 115]
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210 210 211 188 188 194 192 216 170
                                       0]
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182 182 181 176 166 168
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                                  61
                                      44
                                          72
                                               41
                                                   35
                                                        0
                                                            0
                                                                0
                                                                    0
                                                                        0
   0
       0
           0
               0
                   0
                       0
                         0
                              0
                                  0
                                       01
  0
       0
         0
               0
                   0
                       0
                         0
                               0
                                   0
                                       0
                                           0
                                                0
                                                    0
                                                            0
                                                                0
                                                                        0
           0
               0
                   0
                       0
                         0
                               0
                                   0
                                       01
   \Omega
                       0 0
                               0
                                           0
                                                0
                                                    0
                                                        0
                                                            0
                                                                0
                                                                    0
                                                                        0
  0
               0
                                  Ω
[
   0
                       0
                         0
                               0
                                       0]]
```

Training label: 9

Woah, we get a large list of numbers, followed (the data) by a single number (the class label).

What about the shapes?

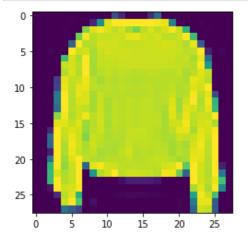
```
In [ ]:
# Check the shape of our data
train_data.shape, train_labels.shape, test_data.shape, test_labels.shape
Out[ ]:
((60000, 28, 28), (60000,), (10000, 28, 28), (10000,))
In [ ]:
# Check shape of a single example
train_data[0].shape, train_labels[0].shape
Out[ ]:
((28, 28), ())
```

Okay, 60,000 training examples each with shape (28, 28) and a label each as well as 10,000 test examples of shape (28, 28).

But these are just numbers, let's visualize.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot a single example
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.imshow(train_data[7]);
```



Hmm, but what about its label?

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check our samples label
train_labels[7]
```

```
Out[]:
```

2

It looks like our labels are in numerical form. And while this is fine for a neural network, you might want to have them in human readable form.

Let's create a small list of the class names (we can find them on the dataset's GitHub page).

☐ **Note:** Whilst this dataset has been prepared for us and ready to go, it's important to remember many datasets won't be ready to go like this one. Often you'll have to do a few preprocessing steps to have it ready to use with a neural network (we'll see more of this when we work with our own data later).

```
In [ ]:
```

```
Out[]:
```

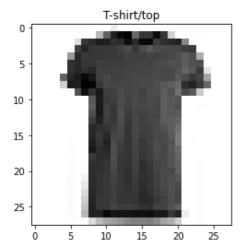
10

Now we have these, let's plot another example.

☐ Question: Pay particular attention to what the data we're working with *looks* like. Is it only straight lines? Or does it have non-straight lines as well? Do you think if we wanted to find patterns in the photos of clothes (which are actually collections of pixels), will our model need non-linearities (non-straight lines) or not?

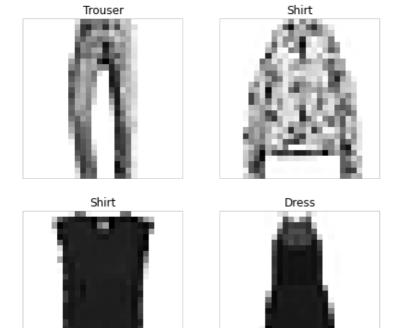
```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Plot an example image and its label
plt.imshow(train_data[17], cmap=plt.cm.binary) # change the colours to black & white
plt.title(class_names[train_labels[17]]);
```



In []:

```
# Plot multiple random images of fashion MNIST
import random
plt.figure(figsize=(7, 7))
for i in range(4):
    ax = plt.subplot(2, 2, i + 1)
    rand_index = random.choice(range(len(train_data)))
    plt.imshow(train_data[rand_index], cmap=plt.cm.binary)
    plt.title(class_names[train_labels[rand_index]])
    plt.axis(False)
```



Alright, let's build a model to figure out the relationship between the pixel values and their labels.

Since this is a multiclass classification problem, we'll need to make a few changes to our architecture (inline with Table 1 above):

- The input shape will have to deal with 28x28 tensors (the height and width of our images).
 - We're actually going to squash the input into a tensor (vector) of shape (784).
- The output shape will have to be 10 because we need our model to predict for 10 different classes.
 - We'll also change the activation parameter of our output layer to be "softmax" instead of 'sigmoid'. As we'll see the "softmax" activation function outputs a series of values between 0 & 1 (the same shape as output shape, which together add up to ~1. The index with the highest value is predicted by the model to be the most *likely* class.
- We'll need to change our loss function from a binary loss function to a multiclass loss function.
 - More specifically, since our labels are in integer form, we'll use <u>tf.keras.losses.SparseCategoricalCrossentropy()</u>, if our labels were one-hot encoded (e.g.

they looked something like [0, 0, 1, 0, 0...]), we'd use tf.keras.losses.CategoricalCrossentropy().

• We'll also use the validation_data parameter when calling the fit() function. This will give us an idea of how the model performs on the test set during training.

You ready? Let's go.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model
model 11 = tf.keras.Sequential([
 tf.keras.layers.Flatten(input shape=(28, 28)), # input layer (we had to reshape 28x28
to 784, the Flatten layer does this for us)
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(10, activation="softmax") # output shape is 10, activation is so
ftmax
])
# Compile the model
model 11.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.SparseCategoricalCrossentropy(), # different loss f
unction for multiclass classification
          optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(),
          metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model
non norm history = model 11.fit(train data,
                    train labels,
                    epochs=10,
                    validation data=(test data, test labels)) # see how the
model performs on the test set during training
Epoch 1/10
2 - val loss: 1.7951 - val accuracy: 0.2100
4 - val loss: 1.6439 - val accuracy: 0.3022
Epoch 3/10
7 - val loss: 1.6003 - val accuracy: 0.2818
Epoch 4/10
8 - val loss: 1.5964 - val accuracy: 0.2958
Epoch 5/10
0 - val loss: 1.5948 - val accuracy: 0.3005
Epoch 6/10
5 - val loss: 1.5678 - val accuracy: 0.3195
Epoch 7/10
5 - val_loss: 1.5695 - val_accuracy: 0.3161
Epoch 8/10
8 - val loss: 1.5526 - val accuracy: 0.3343
Epoch 9/10
9 - val loss: 1.5467 - val accuracy: 0.3373
Epoch 1\overline{0}/10
7 - val loss: 1.5339 - val accuracy: 0.3542
In [ ]:
# Check the shapes of our model
# Note: the "None" in (None, 784) is for batch size, we'll cover this in a later module
```

```
Model: "sequential 11"
Layer (type)
                    Output Shape
                                       Param #
______
flatten (Flatten)
                    (None, 784)
dense 28 (Dense)
                                       3140
                    (None, 4)
dense 29 (Dense)
                    (None, 4)
                                       20
dense 30 (Dense)
                                       50
                   (None, 10)
______
Total params: 3,210
Trainable params: 3,210
Non-trainable params: 0
```

Alright, our model gets to about ~35% accuracy after 10 epochs using a similar style model to what we used on our binary classification problem.

Which is better than guessing (guessing with 10 classes would result in about 10% accuracy) but we can do better.

Do you remember when we talked about neural networks preferring numbers between 0 and 1? (if not, treat this as a reminder)

Well, right now, the data we have isn't between 0 and 1, in other words, it's not normalized (hence why we used the non norm history variable when calling fit()). It's pixel values are between 0 and 255.

Let's see.

model 11.summary()

```
In []:
# Check the min and max values of the training data
train_data.min(), train_data.max()
Out[]:
(0, 255)
```

We can get these values between 0 and 1 by dividing the entire array by the maximum: 255.0 (dividing by a float also converts to a float).

Doing so will result in all of our data being between 0 and 1 (known as scaling or normalization).

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Divide train and test images by the maximum value (normalize it)
train_data = train_data / 255.0
test_data = test_data / 255.0

# Check the min and max values of the training data
train_data.min(), train_data.max()
Out[]:
```

```
Beautiful! Now our data is between 0 and 1. Let's see what happens when we model it.
```

We'll use the same model as before (model 11) except this time the data will be normalized.

```
In [ ]:
```

(0.0, 1.0)

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set_seed(42)
```

```
tf.keras.layers.Flatten(input shape=(28, 28)), # input layer (we had to reshape 28x28
to 784)
tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(10, activation="softmax") # output shape is 10, activation is so
])
# Compile the model
model 12.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.SparseCategoricalCrossentropy(),
         optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(),
         metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model (to the normalized data)
norm history = model 12.fit(train data,
               train labels,
               epochs=10,
               validation data=(test data, test labels))
Epoch 1/10
4 - val loss: 0.6937 - val accuracy: 0.7617
7 - val loss: 0.6400 - val accuracy: 0.7820
Epoch 3/10
4 - val loss: 0.6247 - val accuracy: 0.7783
Epoch 4/10
9 - val loss: 0.6078 - val accuracy: 0.7881
Epoch 5/10
6 - val loss: 0.6169 - val accuracy: 0.7881
Epoch 6/10
3 - val loss: 0.5855 - val accuracy: 0.7951
Epoch 7/10
3 - val loss: 0.6097 - val accuracy: 0.7836
Epoch 8/10
7 - val loss: 0.5787 - val_accuracy: 0.7971
Epoch 9/10
7 - val loss: 0.5698 - val accuracy: 0.7977
Epoch 10/10
4 - val loss: 0.5658 - val accuracy: 0.8014
```

Woah, we used the exact same model as before but we with normalized data we're now seeing a much higher accuracy value!

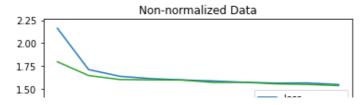
Let's plot each model's history (their loss curves).

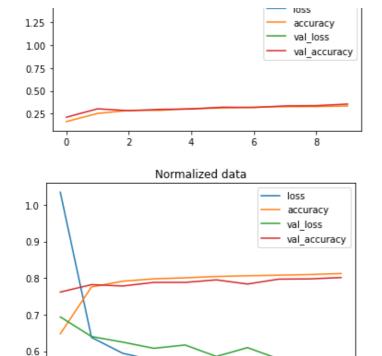
```
In [ ]:
```

Create the model

model 12 = tf.keras.Sequential([

```
import pandas as pd
# Plot non-normalized data loss curves
pd.DataFrame(non_norm_history.history).plot(title="Non-normalized Data")
# Plot normalized data loss curves
pd.DataFrame(norm_history.history).plot(title="Normalized data");
```





Wow. From these two plots, we can see how much quicker our model with the normalized data ($model_12$) improved than the model with the non-normalized data ($model_11$).

☐ Note: The same model with even *slightly* different data can produce *dramatically* different results. So when you're comparing models, it's important to make sure you're comparing them on the same criteria (e.g. same architecture but different data or same data but different architecture).

How about we find the ideal learning rate and see what happens?

6

8

We'll use the same architecture we've been using.

In []:

0

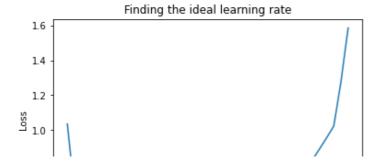
2

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model
model 13 = tf.keras.Sequential([
  tf.keras.layers.Flatten(input shape=(28, 28)), # input layer (we had to reshape 28x28
to 784)
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
  tf.keras.layers.Dense(10, activation="softmax") # output shape is 10, activation is so
ftmax
1)
# Compile the model
model 13.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.SparseCategoricalCrossentropy(),
                 optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(),
                 metrics=["accuracy"])
# Create the learning rate callback
lr scheduler = tf.keras.callbacks.LearningRateScheduler(lambda epoch: 1e-3 * 10**(epoch/
20))
# Fit the model
find lr history = model_13.fit(train_data,
                               train labels,
                               epochs=40, # model already doing pretty good with current
LR, probably don't need 100 epochs
                               validation data=(test data, test labels),
```

```
Epoch 1/40
4 - val loss: 0.6937 - val accuracy: 0.7617
Epoch 2/40
9 - val loss: 0.6400 - val accuracy: 0.7808
Epoch 3/40
1 - val loss: 0.6278 - val accuracy: 0.7770
Epoch 4/40
9 - val loss: 0.6122 - val accuracy: 0.7871
Epoch 5/40
7 - val loss: 0.6061 - val accuracy: 0.7913
Epoch 6/40
2 - val loss: 0.5917 - val accuracy: 0.7940
Epoch 7/40
6 - val loss: 0.5898 - val accuracy: 0.7896
Epoch 8/40
9 - val loss: 0.5829 - val accuracy: 0.7949
Epoch 9/40
7 - val loss: 0.6036 - val accuracy: 0.7833
Epoch 1\overline{0}/40
8 - val loss: 0.5736 - val accuracy: 0.7974
Epoch 11/40
9 - val loss: 0.5672 - val accuracy: 0.8016
Epoch 12/40
7 - val loss: 0.5773 - val accuracy: 0.7950
Epoch 13/40
6 - val loss: 0.5775 - val accuracy: 0.7992
Epoch 14/40
8 - val loss: 0.5616 - val accuracy: 0.8075
Epoch 15/40
2 - val_loss: 0.5773 - val_accuracy: 0.8039
Epoch 16/40
8 - val loss: 0.5682 - val accuracy: 0.8015
Epoch 17/40
5 - val loss: 0.5995 - val accuracy: 0.7964
Epoch 18/40
8 - val loss: 0.5544 - val accuracy: 0.8087
Epoch 19/40
2 - val loss: 0.6068 - val accuracy: 0.7864
Epoch 20/40
0 - val_loss: 0.5597 - val_accuracy: 0.8076
Epoch 21/40
6 - val_loss: 0.5998 - val_accuracy: 0.7934
Epoch 22/40
3 - val_loss: 0.5756 - val_accuracy: 0.8034
Epoch 23/40
7 - val loss: 0.6386 - val accuracy: 0.7668
```

Epoch 24/40

```
3 - val loss: 0.6356 - val accuracy: 0.7869
Epoch 2\overline{5}/40
7 - val loss: 0.6481 - val accuracy: 0.7865
Epoch 26/40
1 - val loss: 0.6997 - val accuracy: 0.7802
Epoch 27/40
0 - val loss: 0.6124 - val accuracy: 0.7917
Epoch 28/40
6 - val loss: 0.6137 - val accuracy: 0.7962
Epoch 29/40
1 - val loss: 0.6655 - val accuracy: 0.7621
Epoch 30/40
3 - val loss: 0.7274 - val accuracy: 0.7454
Epoch 31/40
1 - val loss: 0.6861 - val accuracy: 0.7527
Epoch 32/40
0 - val loss: 0.8097 - val accuracy: 0.7441
Epoch 33/40
7 - val loss: 0.8163 - val accuracy: 0.7702
Epoch 34/40
9 - val loss: 0.7519 - val accuracy: 0.7000
Epoch 35/40
9 - val loss: 0.8102 - val accuracy: 0.7342
Epoch 36/40
4 - val loss: 0.8824 - val accuracy: 0.6822
Epoch 3\overline{7}/40
1 - val loss: 1.0329 - val accuracy: 0.6430
Epoch 38/40
2 - val loss: 0.9631 - val accuracy: 0.6314
Epoch 39/40
0 - val_loss: 1.1771 - val_accuracy: 0.4974
Epoch 40/40
5 - val loss: 1.6092 - val accuracy: 0.3048
In [ ]:
# Plot the learning rate decay curve
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
lrs = 1e-3 * (10**(np.arange(40)/20))
plt.semilogx(lrs, find lr history.history["loss"]) # want the x-axis to be log-scale
plt.xlabel("Learning rate")
plt.ylabel("Loss")
plt.title("Finding the ideal learning rate");
```



```
0.8 - \frac{10^{-3}}{10^{-3}} \frac{10^{-2}}{10^{-1}} Learning rate
```

In this case, it looks like somewhere close to the default learning rate of the <u>Adam optimizer</u> (0.001) is the ideal learning rate.

Let's refit a model using the ideal learning rate.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Set random seed
tf.random.set seed(42)
# Create the model
model 14 = tf.keras.Sequential([
 tf.keras.layers.Flatten(input shape=(28, 28)), # input layer (we had to reshape 28x28
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation="relu"),
 tf.keras.layers.Dense(10, activation="softmax") # output shape is 10, activation is so
])
# Compile the model
model 14.compile(loss=tf.keras.losses.SparseCategoricalCrossentropy(),
          optimizer=tf.keras.optimizers.Adam(lr=0.001), # ideal learning rate (sa
me as default)
          metrics=["accuracy"])
# Fit the model
history = model 14.fit(train data,
             train labels,
             epochs=20,
             validation data=(test data, test labels))
Epoch 1/20
4 - val loss: 0.6937 - val accuracy: 0.7617
Epoch 2/20
7 - val loss: 0.6400 - val accuracy: 0.7820
Epoch 3/20
4 - val loss: 0.6247 - val accuracy: 0.7783
Epoch 4/20
9 - val loss: 0.6078 - val accuracy: 0.7881
Epoch 5/20
6 - val loss: 0.6169 - val accuracy: 0.7881
Epoch 6/20
3 - val loss: 0.5855 - val accuracy: 0.7951
Epoch 7/20
3 - val loss: 0.6097 - val accuracy: 0.7836
Epoch 8/20
7 - val_loss: 0.5787 - val_accuracy: 0.7971
Epoch 9/20
7 - val loss: 0.5698 - val accuracy: 0.7977
Epoch 10/20
4 - val loss: 0.5658 - val accuracy: 0.8014
Epoch 11/20
1075/1075 [-
                 ----1 = 20 1mg/g+on = 1000. 0 5211 =
```

```
0 - val loss: 0.5714 - val accuracy: 0.8002
Epoch 12/20
2 - val loss: 0.5626 - val accuracy: 0.8027
Epoch 13/20
8 - val loss: 0.5619 - val accuracy: 0.8041
Epoch 14/20
3 - val loss: 0.5718 - val accuracy: 0.7991
Epoch 15/20
8 - val loss: 0.5706 - val accuracy: 0.8024
Epoch 16/20
2 - val loss: 0.5731 - val accuracy: 0.8023
Epoch 17/20
6 - val loss: 0.5594 - val accuracy: 0.8030
Epoch 18/20
7 - val loss: 0.5582 - val accuracy: 0.8053
Epoch 19/20
9 - val loss: 0.5644 - val accuracy: 0.8007
Epoch 20/20
7 - val loss: 0.5660 - val accuracy: 0.8075
```

Now we've got a model trained with a close-to-ideal learning rate and performing pretty well, we've got a couple of options.

We could:

- Evaluate its performance using other classification metrics (such as a <u>confusion matrix</u> or <u>classification</u> report).
- Assess some of its predictions (through visualizations).
- Improve its accuracy (by training it for longer or changing the architecture).
- Save and export it for use in an application.

Let's go through the first two options.

First we'll create a classification matrix to visualize its predictions across the different classes.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Note: The following confusion matrix code is a remix of Scikit-Learn's
# plot confusion matrix function - https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/skle
arn.metrics.plot confusion matrix.html
# and Made with ML's introductory notebook - https://github.com/GokuMohandas/MadeWithML/b
lob/main/notebooks/08 Neural Networks.ipynb
import itertools
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
# Our function needs a different name to sklearn's plot confusion matrix
def make confusion matrix(y true, y pred, classes=None, figsize=(10, 10), text size=15):
  """Makes a labelled confusion matrix comparing predictions and ground truth labels.
 If classes is passed, confusion matrix will be labelled, if not, integer class values
 will be used.
   y true: Array of truth labels (must be same shape as y pred).
   y pred: Array of predicted labels (must be same shape as y true).
   classes: Array of class labels (e.g. string form). If `None`, integer labels are used
   figsize: Size of output figure (default=(10, 10)).
   text size: Size of output figure text (default=15).
```

```
Returns:
   A labelled confusion matrix plot comparing y true and y pred.
 Example usage:
   make confusion matrix(y true=test labels, # ground truth test labels
                          y pred=y preds, # predicted labels
                          classes=class names, # array of class label names
                           figsize=(15, 15),
                           text size=10)
  11 11 11
  # Create the confustion matrix
 cm = confusion_matrix(y_true, y_pred)
cm_norm = cm.astype("float") / cm.sum(axis=1)[:, np.newaxis] # normalize it
 n classes = cm.shape[0] # find the number of classes we're dealing with
  # Plot the figure and make it pretty
 fig, ax = plt.subplots(figsize=figsize)
 cax = ax.matshow(cm, cmap=plt.cm.Blues) # colors will represent how 'correct' a class
is, darker == better
 fig.colorbar(cax)
  # Are there a list of classes?
 if classes:
   labels = classes
 else:
   labels = np.arange(cm.shape[0])
  # Label the axes
 ax.set(title="Confusion Matrix",
        xlabel="Predicted label",
         ylabel="True label",
         xticks=np.arange(n_classes), # create enough axis slots for each class
         yticks=np.arange(n classes),
         xticklabels=labels, # axes will labeled with class names (if they exist) or int
S
         yticklabels=labels)
  # Make x-axis labels appear on bottom
 ax.xaxis.set label position("bottom")
 ax.xaxis.tick bottom()
  # Set the threshold for different colors
 threshold = (cm.max() + cm.min()) / 2.
  # Plot the text on each cell
 for i, j in itertools.product(range(cm.shape[0]), range(cm.shape[1])):
   plt.text(j, i, f"{cm[i, j]} ({cm norm[i, j]*100:.1f}%)",
             horizontalalignment="center",
             color="white" if cm[i, j] > threshold else "black",
             size=text size)
```

Since a confusion matrix compares the truth labels (test_labels) to the predicted labels, we have to make some predictions with our model.

```
[6.10631/60-05, 9.965/6/30-01, 4.386/0610-08, 3.34059940-03,
1.3249499e-05, 1.4383491e-21, 8.2790693e-06, 7.3237471e-18,
5.4811817e-08, 4.9225428e-14],
[7.5031145e-05, 9.9053687e-01, 4.2528288e-07, 9.2231687e-03,
1.3623090e-04, 1.8276231e-18, 2.6808115e-05, 4.8124743e-14,
1.4521548e-06, 2.2211462e-11],
[7.2190031e-02, 1.5495797e-06, 2.5566885e-01, 1.0363121e-02,
 4.3541368e-02, 1.1069260e-13, 6.1693019e-01, 6.7543135e-23,
1.3049162e-03, 1.2140360e-09]], dtype=float32)
```

Our model outputs a list of prediction probabilities, meaning, it outputs a number for how likely it thinks a particular class is to be the label.

The higher the number in the prediction probabilities list, the more likely the model believes that is the right class.

To find the highest value we can use the argmax() method.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# See the predicted class number and label for the first example
y probs[0].argmax(), class names[y probs[0].argmax()]
Out[]:
(9, 'Ankle boot')
```

Now let's do the same for all of the predictions.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Convert all of the predictions from probabilities to labels
y preds = y probs.argmax(axis=1)
# View the first 10 prediction labels
y preds[:10]
Out[]:
array([9, 2, 1, 1, 6, 1, 4, 6, 5, 7])
```

Wonderful, now we've got our model's predictions in label form, let's create a confusion matrix to view them against the truth labels.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Check out the non-prettified confusion matrix
from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix
confusion matrix(y true=test labels,
                y pred=y preds)
Out[]:
              8, 25,
                                  5, 160,
array([[696,
                       87,
                             9,
                                           0, 10,
                                                     0],
      [ 2, 939,
                  2,
                       35,
                             9,
                                  0, 13,
                                           Ο,
                                                0,
                                                     0],
                       10, 188,
                                  0, 110,
             2, 656,
       [ 19,
                                           Ο,
                                               15,
                                                     0],
                           55,
      [ 39,
             10,
                 10, 819,
                                 Ο,
                                     47,
                                           1,
                                               19,
                                                     0],
                                     73,
              0, 95, 23, 800,
       [ 0,
                                 0,
                                           0,
                                                7,
                                                     21,
              Ο,
                  1,
                       0, 0, 894,
                                      Ο,
                                                7,
      [ 0,
                                          60,
                                                   381,
                                           Ο,
                                              16,
      [106,
              4, 158, 57, 159,
                                                     0],
                                1, 499,
                                               0,
             0, 0,
                       0, 0,
                                31, 0, 936,
                                                    33],
      [ 0,
              1, 38, 15, 8, 12,
                                     9,
                                         5, 906,
```

2],

1, 930]])

That confusion matrix is hard to comprehend, let's make it prettier using the function we created before.

Ο,

15,

2,

```
In [ ]:
```

[4,

[0,

Ο,

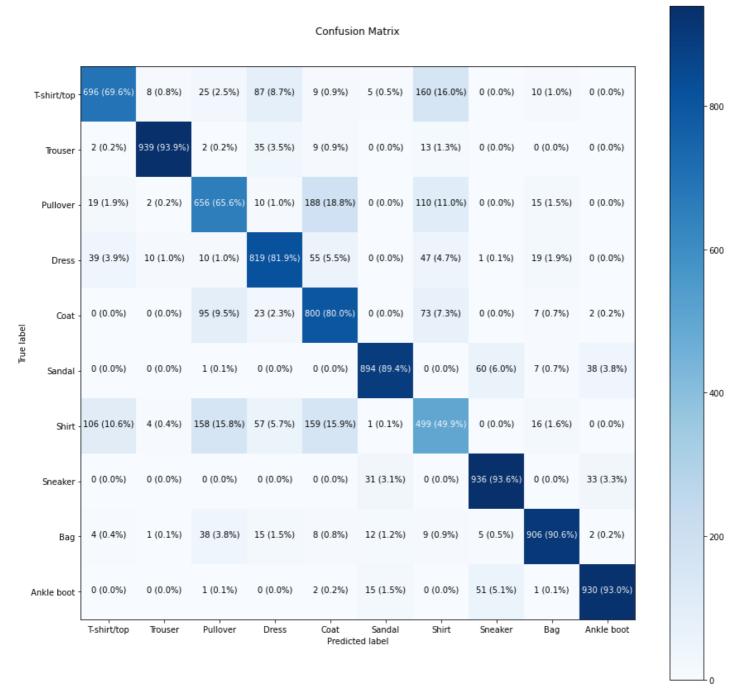
1,

Ο,

```
# Make a prettier confusion matrix
```

51,





That looks much better! (one of my favourites sights in the world is a confusion matrix with dark squares down the diagonal)

Except the results aren't as good as they could be...

It looks like our model is getting confused between the Shirt and T-shirt/top classes (e.g. predicting Shirt when it's actually a T-shirt/top).

☐ Question: Does it make sense that our model is getting confused between the Shirt and T-shirt/top classes? Why do you think this might be? What's one way you could investigate?

We've seen how our models predictions line up to the truth labels using a confusion matrix, but how about we visualize some?

Let's create a function to plot a random image along with its prediction.

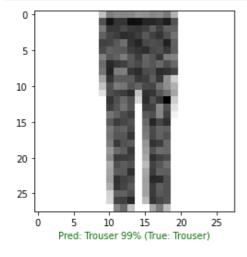
■ Note: Often when working with images and other forms of visual data, it's a good idea to

visualize as much as possible to develop a further understanding of the data and the outputs of your model.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
import random
# Create a function for plotting a random image along with its prediction
def plot random image(model, images, true labels, classes):
  """Picks a random image, plots it and labels it with a predicted and truth label.
 Args:
   model: a trained model (trained on data similar to what's in images).
   images: a set of random images (in tensor form).
   true labels: array of ground truth labels for images.
   classes: array of class names for images.
 Returns:
   A plot of a random image from `images` with a predicted class label from `model`
   as well as the truth class label from `true labels`.
  # Setup random integer
 i = random.randint(0, len(images))
  # Create predictions and targets
 target image = images[i]
 pred probs = model.predict(target image.reshape(1, 28, 28)) # have to reshape to get i
nto right size for model
 pred label = classes[pred probs.argmax()]
 true label = classes[true labels[i]]
  # Plot the target image
 plt.imshow(target image, cmap=plt.cm.binary)
  # Change the color of the titles depending on if the prediction is right or wrong
 if pred label == true label:
   color = "green"
 else:
   color = "red"
  # Add xlabel information (prediction/true label)
 plt.xlabel("Pred: {} {:2.0f}% (True: {})".format(pred label,
                                                   100*tf.reduce max(pred probs),
                                                   true label),
             color=color) # set the color to green or red
```

In []:



After running the cell above a few times you'll start to get a visual understanding of the relationship between the model's predictions and the true labels.

Did you figure out which predictions the model gets confused on?

It seems to mix up classes which are similar, for example, Sneaker with Ankle boot.

Looking at the images, you can see how this might be the case.

The overall shape of a Sneaker and an Ankle Boot are similar.

The overall shape might be one of the patterns the model has learned and so therefore when two images have a similar shape, their predictions get mixed up.

What patterns is our model learning?

We've been talking a lot about how a neural network finds patterns in numbers, but what exactly do these patterns look like?

Let's crack open one of our models and find out.

First, we'll get a list of layers in our most recent model (model 14) using the layers attribute.

<tensorflow.python.keras.layers.core.Dense at 0x7f4254285c50>,
<tensorflow.python.keras.layers.core.Dense at 0x7f425428ecc0>]

We can access a target layer using indexing.

```
In []:
# Extract a particular layer
model_14.layers[1]
Out[]:
<tensorflow.python.keras.layers.core.Dense at 0x7f42542856a0>
```

And we can find the patterns learned by a particular layer using the get weights() method.

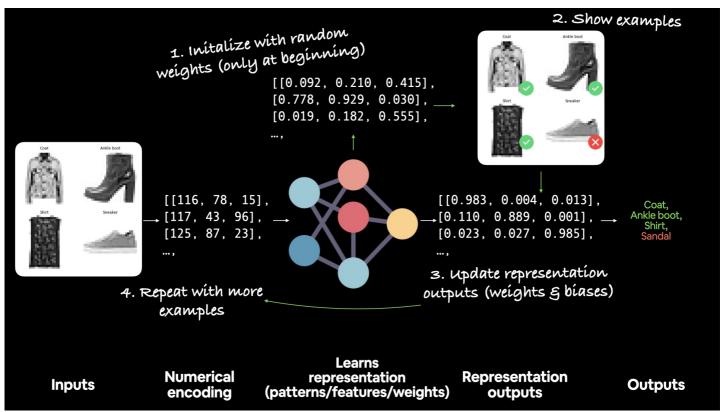
The <code>get_weights()</code> method returns the weights (also known as a weights matrix) and biases (also known as a bias vector) of a particular layer.

```
dtype=float32), (784, 4))
```

The weights matrix is the same shape as the input data, which in our case is 784 (28x28 pixels). And there's a copy of the weights matrix for each neuron the in the selected layer (our selected layer has 4 neurons).

Each value in the weights matrix corresponds to how a particular value in the input data influences the network's decisions.

These values start out as random numbers (they're set by the <u>kernel_initializer_parameter</u> when creating a layer, the default is <u>"glorot_uniform"</u>) and are then updated to better representative values of the data (non-random) by the neural network during training.



Example workflow of how a supervised neural network starts with random weights and updates them to better represent the data by looking at examples of ideal outputs.

Now let's check out the bias vector.

```
In [ ]:
```

Every neuron has a bias vector. Each of these is paired with a weight matrix.

The bias values get initialized as zeroes by default (using the bias initializer parameter).

The bias vector dictates how much the patterns within the corresponding weights matrix should influence the next layer.

```
In [ ]:
```

```
# Can now calculate the number of paramters in our model
model_14.summary()

Model: "sequential_14"

Layer (type) Output Shape Param #
```

flatten_3 (Flatten)	(None, 784)	0
dense_37 (Dense)	(None, 4)	3140
dense_38 (Dense)	(None, 4)	20
dense_39 (Dense)	(None, 10)	50
Total params: 3,210 Trainable params: 3,210		

Non-trainable params: 0

Now we've built a few deep learning models, it's a good time to point out the whole concept of inputs and outputs not only relates to a model as a whole but to every layer within a model.

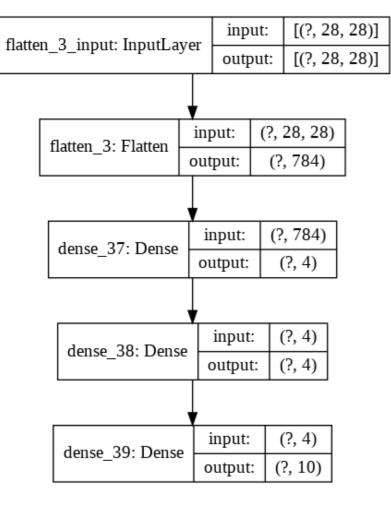
You might've already guessed this, but starting from the input layer, each subsequent layer's input is the output of the previous layer.

We can see this clearly using the utility plot model().

In []:

```
from tensorflow.keras.utils import plot model
# See the inputs and outputs of each layer
plot model(model 14, show shapes=True)
```

Out[]:



How a model learns (in brief)

Alright, we've trained a bunch of models, but we've never really discussed what's going on under the hood. So how exactly does a model learn?

A model learns by updating and improving its weight matrices and biases values every epoch (in our case, when we call the fit() fucntion).

It does so by comparing the patterns its learned between the data and labels to the actual labels.

If the current patterns (weight matrices and bias values) don't result in a desirable decrease in the loss function (higher loss means worse predictions), the optimizer tries to steer the model to update its patterns in the right way (using the real labels as a reference).

This process of using the real labels as a reference to improve the model's predictions is called backpropagation.

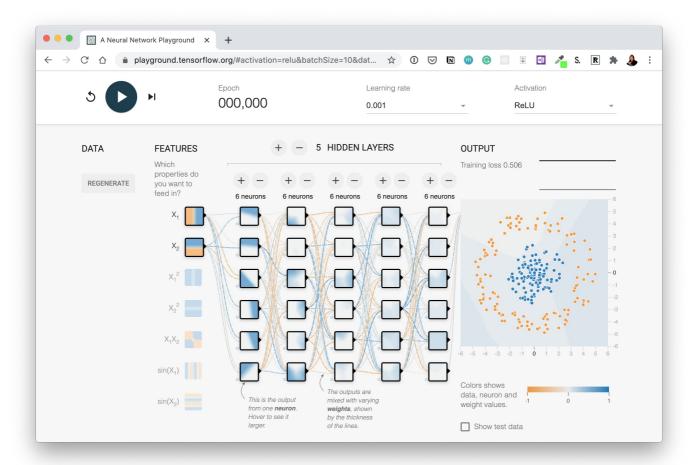
In other words, data and labels pass through a model (forward pass) and it attempts to learn the relationship between the data and labels.

And if this learned relationship isn't close to the actual relationship or it could be improved, the model does so by going back through itself (backward pass) and tweaking its weights matrices and bias values to better represent the data.

If all of this sounds confusing (and it's fine if it does, the above is a very succinct description), check out the resources in the extra-curriculum section for more.

Exercises

- 1. Play with neural networks in the <u>TensorFlow Playground</u> for 10-minutes. Especially try different values of the learning, what happens when you decrease it? What happens when you increase it?
- 2. Replicate the model pictured in the <u>TensorFlow Playground diagram</u> below using TensorFlow code. Compile it using the Adam optimizer, binary crossentropy loss and accuracy metric. Once it's compiled check a summary of the model.



Try this network out for yourself on the <u>TensorFlow Playground website</u>. Hint: there are 5 hidden layers but the output layer isn't pictured, you'll have to decide what the output layer should be based on the input data.

- 3. Create a classification dataset using Scikit-Learn's make_moons() function, visualize it and then build a model to fit it at over 85% accuracy.
- 4. Create a function (or write code) to visualize multiple image predictions for the fashion MNIST at the same time. Plot at least three different images and their prediction labels at the same time. Hint: see the classification tutorial in the TensorFlow documentation for ideas.
- 5. Recreate TensorFlow's softmax activation function in your own code. Make sure it can accept a tensor and

return that tensor after having the softmax function applied to it.

- 6. Train a model to get 88%+ accuracy on the fashion MNIST test set. Plot a confusion matrix to see the results after.
- 7. Make a function to show an image of a certain class of the fashion MNIST dataset and make a prediction on it. For example, plot 3 images of the T-shirt class with their predictions.

Extra curriculum []

- Watch 3Blue1Brown's neural networks video 2: <u>Gradient descent, how neural networks learn</u>. After you're done, write 100 words about what you've learned.
 - If you haven't already, watch video 1: <u>But what is a Neural Network?</u>. Note the activation function they talk about at the end.
- Watch <u>MIT's introduction to deep learning lecture 1</u> (if you haven't already) to get an idea of the concepts behind using linear and non-linear functions.
- Spend 1-hour reading Michael Nielsen's Neural Networks and Deep Learning book.
- Read the ML-Glossary documentation on activation functions. Which one is your favourite?
 - After you've read the ML-Glossary, see which activation functions are available in TensorFlow by searching "tensorflow activation functions".