Introduction to TensorFlow

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

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

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

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

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1 - Packages

```
In [1]: import h5py
    import numpy as np
    import tensorflow as tf
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    from tensorflow.python.framework.ops import EagerTensor
    from tensorflow.python.ops.resource_variable_ops import ResourceVariable
    import time
```

1.1 - Checking TensorFlow Version

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

```
In [2]: tf._version__
Out[2]: '2.3.0'
```

2 - Basic Optimization with GradientTape

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

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

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

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

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

```
In [3]: train_dataset = h5py.File('datasets/train_signs.h5', "r")
    test_dataset = h5py.File('datasets/test_signs.h5', "r")

In [4]: x_train = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(train_dataset['train_set_x'])
    y_train = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(train_dataset['train_set_y'])
    x_test = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(test_dataset['test_set_x'])
    y_test = tf.data.Dataset.from_tensor_slices(test_dataset['test_set_y'])
In [5]: type(x_train)
```

Out[5]: tensorflow.python.data.ops.dataset ops.TensorSliceDataset

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

```
In [6]: print(y_train.element_spec)
TensorSpec(shape=(), dtype=tf.int64, name=None)
```

```
In [7]: print(next(iter(x_train)))
        tf.Tensor(
        [[[227 220 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [227 222 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 222]
          [230 229 221]]
         [[227 221 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [228 221 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 222]
          [231 229 221]]
         [[227 221 214]
          [227 221 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 223]
          [230 229 221]]
         [[119 81 51]
          [124 85
                    55]
          [127 87
                   58]
          [210 211 211]
          [211 212 210]
          [210 211 210]]
         [[119 79 51]
          [124 84 55]
          [126 85 56]
          [210 211 210]
          [210 211 210]
          [209 210 209]]
         [[119 81 51]
          [123 83 55]
          [122 82 54]
          [209 210 210]
          [209 210 209]
```

[208 209 209]]], shape=(64, 64, 3), dtype=uint8)

```
In [8]: for element in x train:
            print(element)
            break
        tf.Tensor(
        [[[227 220 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [227 222 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 222]
          [230 229 221]]
         [[227 221 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [228 221 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 222]
          [231 229 221]]
         [[227 221 214]
          [227 221 214]
          [227 221 215]
          [232 230 224]
          [231 229 223]
          [230 229 221]]
         . . .
         [[119 81 51]
          [124 85 55]
          [127
               87 581
          [210 211 211]
          [211 212 210]
          [210 211 210]]
         [[119 79 51]
          [124
                84
                    55]
          [126
               85 561
          [210 211 210]
          [210 211 210]
          [209 210 209]]
         [[119 81 51]
          [123 83 55]
          [122 82 54]
          [209 210 210]
          [209 210 209]
          [208 209 209]]], shape=(64, 64, 3), dtype=uint8)
```

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

```
In [9]: def normalize(image):
    """
    Transform an image into a tensor of shape (64 * 64 * 3, 1)
    and normalize its components.

Arguments
    image - Tensor.

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

```
In [10]: new_train = x_train.map(normalize)
new_test = x_test.map(normalize)
```

2.1 - Linear Function

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

Exercise 1 - linear function

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

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

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

You might find the following functions helpful:

- tf.matmul(..., ...) to do a matrix multiplication
- tf.add(..., ...) to do an addition
- np.random.randn(...) to initialize randomly

```
In [13]: # GRADED FUNCTION: linear_function
         def linear_function():
             Implements a linear function:
                     Initializes X to be a random tensor of shape (3,1)
                     Initializes W to be a random tensor of shape (4,3)
                     Initializes b to be a random tensor of shape (4,1)
             Returns:
             result -- Y = WX + b
             np.random.seed(1)
             Note, to ensure that the "random" numbers generated match the expected results,
             please create the variables in the order given in the starting code below.
             (Do not re-arrange the order).
             # (approx. 4 lines)
             \# X = \dots
             # W = ...
             \# b = ...
             # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
             X = np.random.randn(3,1)
             W = np.random.randn(4,3)
             b = np.random.randn(4,1)
             Y = tf.add(tf.matmul(W, X), b)
             # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
             return Y
```

```
In [14]: result = linear_function()
print(result)

assert type(result) == EagerTensor, "Use the TensorFlow API"
assert np.allclose(result, [[-2.15657382], [ 2.95891446], [-1.08926781], [-0.84538042]]), "Error"
print("\033[92mAll test passed")
```

```
tf.Tensor(
[[-2.15657382]
  [ 2.95891446]
  [-1.08926781]
  [-0.84538042]], shape=(4, 1), dtype=float64)
All test passed
```

Expected Output:

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

2.2 - Computing the Sigmoid

Amazing! You just implemented a linear function. TensorFlow offers a variety of commonly used neural network functions like tf.sigmoid and tf.softmax.

For this exercise, compute the sigmoid of z.

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

Exercise 2 - sigmoid

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

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

```
In [15]: # GRADED FUNCTION: sigmoid

def sigmoid(z):
    """
    Computes the sigmoid of z

Arguments:
    z -- input value, scalar or vector

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

# (approx. 2 lines)
    # z = ...
    # result = ...
    # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
    z = tf.cast(z, tf.float32)
    a = tf.keras.activations.sigmoid(z)
    # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
    return a
```

```
In [16]: result = sigmoid(-1)
    print ("type: " + str(type(result)))
    print ("dtype: " + str(result.dtype))
    print ("sigmoid(-1) = " + str(result))
    print ("sigmoid(0) = " + str(sigmoid(0.0)))
    print ("sigmoid(12) = " + str(sigmoid(12)))

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

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

sigmoid_test(sigmoid)
```

```
type: <class 'tensorflow.python.framework.ops.EagerTensor'>
dtype: <dtype: 'float32'>
sigmoid(-1) = tf.Tensor(0.26894143, shape=(), dtype=float32)
sigmoid(0) = tf.Tensor(0.5, shape=(), dtype=float32)
sigmoid(12) = tf.Tensor(0.9999939, shape=(), dtype=float32)
All test passed
```

Expected Output:

class 'tensorflow.python.framework.ops.EagerTensor'	type
"dtype: 'float32'	dtype
0.2689414	Sigmoid(-1)
0.5	Sigmoid(0)
0.999994	Sigmoid(12)

2.3 - Using One Hot Encodings

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



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

• tf.one hot(labels, depth, axis=0) (https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/one_hot)

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

Exercise 3 - one_hot_matrix

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

• tf.reshape(tensor, shape)

```
In [17]: # GRADED FUNCTION: one hot matrix
         def one_hot_matrix(label, depth=6):
             Computes the one hot encoding for a single label
                 label -- (int) Categorical labels
                 depth -- (int) Number of different classes that label can take
                  one hot -- tf.Tensor A single-column matrix with the one hot encoding.
             # (approx. 1 line)
             # one_hot = ...
             # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
             one_hot = tf.reshape(tf.one_hot(label, depth, axis = 0), (depth, 1))
             # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
             return one_hot
In [18]: def one hot matrix test(target):
             label = tf.constant(1)
             depth = 4
             result = target(label, depth)
             print(result)
             assert result.shape[0] == depth, "Use the parameter depth"
             assert result.shape[1] == 1, f"Reshape to have only 1 column"
             assert np.allclose(result, [[0.], [1.], [0.], [0.]] ), "Wrong output. Use tf.one_hot"
             result = target(3, depth)
             assert np.allclose(result, [[0.], [0.], [0.], [1.]] ), "Wrong output. Use tf.one_hot"
             print("\033[92mAll test passed")
         one_hot_matrix_test(one_hot_matrix)
         tf.Tensor(
         [[0.]]
          [1.]
          [0.]
          [0.]], shape=(4, 1), dtype=float32)
         All test passed
         Expected output
            tf.Tensor(
            [[0.]
             [1.]
             [0.]
             [0.]], shape=(4, 1), dtype=float32)
```

```
In [19]: new_y_test = y_test.map(one_hot_matrix)
new_y_train = y_train.map(one_hot_matrix)
```

```
In [20]: print(next(iter(new_y_test)))

tf.Tensor(
    [[1.]
     [0.]
     [0.]
     [0.]
     [0.]
     [0.]
     [0.]
     [0.], shape=(6, 1), dtype=float32)
```

2.4 - Initialize the Parameters

Now you'll initialize a vector of numbers between zero and one. The function you'll be calling is $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$, which draws samples from a truncated normal distribution centered on 0, with $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$, where $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$, which draws samples from a truncated normal distribution centered on 0, with studies $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$, which draws samples from a truncated normal distribution centered on 0, with studies $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$, where $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$ is the number of input units and $f.\ensinetializers.GlorotNormal$ is the number of output units, both in the weight tensor.

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

Exercise 4 - initialize_parameters

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

```
In [23]: # GRADED FUNCTION: initialize parameters
         def initialize_parameters():
             Initializes parameters to build a neural network with TensorFlow. The shapes are:
                                 W1 : [25, 12288]
                                 b1 : [25, 1]
                                 W2 : [12, 25]
                                 b2 : [12, 1]
                                 W3 : [6, 12]
                                 b3 : [6, 1]
             Returns:
             parameters -- a dictionary of tensors containing W1, b1, W2, b2, W3, b3
             initializer = tf.keras.initializers.GlorotNormal(seed=1)
             #(approx. 6 lines of code)
             # W1 = ...
             # b1 = ...
             # W2 = ...
             # b2 = ...
             # W3 = ...
             # b3 = ...
             # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
             W1 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(25, 12288)))
             b1 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(25, 1)))
             W2 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(12, 25)))
             b2 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(12, 1)))
             W3 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(6, 12)))
             b3 = tf.Variable(initializer(shape=(6, 1)))
             # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
             parameters = {"W1": W1,
                            "b1": b1,
                           "W2": W2,
                           "b2": b2,
                           "W3": W3,
                           "b3": b3}
             return parameters
```

```
In [24]: def initialize_parameters_test(target):
             parameters = target()
             values = {"W1": (25, 12288),}
                        "b1": (25, 1),
                        "W2": (12, 25),
                        "b2": (12, 1),
                        "W3": (6, 12),
                        "b3": (6, 1)}
             for key in parameters:
                 print(f"{key} shape: {tuple(parameters[key].shape)}")
                 assert type(parameters[key]) == ResourceVariable, "All parameter must be created using tf.Var
                 assert tuple(parameters[key].shape) == values[key], f"{key}: wrong shape"
                 assert np.abs(np.mean(parameters[key].numpy())) < 0.5, f"{key}: Use the GlorotNormal initial</pre>
                 assert np.std(parameters[key].numpy()) > 0 and np.std(parameters[key].numpy()) < 1, f"{key}:</pre>
             print("\033[92mAll test passed")
         initialize_parameters_test(initialize_parameters)
         W1 shape: (25, 12288)
         b1 shape: (25, 1)
         W2 shape: (12, 25)
         b2 shape: (12, 1)
         W3 shape: (6, 12)
         b3 shape: (6, 1)
         All test passed
```

Expected output

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

```
In [25]: parameters = initialize_parameters()
```

3 - Building Your First Neural Network in TensorFlow

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

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

Let's get into it!

3.1 - Implement Forward Propagation

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

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

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

Exercise 5 - forward_propagation

Implement the forward_propagation function.

Note Use only the TF API.

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

```
In [26]: # GRADED FUNCTION: forward propagation
         @tf.function
         def forward_propagation(X, parameters):
             Implements the forward propagation for the model: LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR -> RELU -> LINEAR
             X -- input dataset placeholder, of shape (input size, number of examples)
             parameters -- python dictionary containing your parameters "W1", "b1", "W2", "b2", "W3", "b3"
                           the shapes are given in initialize parameters
             Z3 -- the output of the last LINEAR unit
             # Retrieve the parameters from the dictionary "parameters"
             W1 = parameters['W1']
             b1 = parameters['b1']
             W2 = parameters['W2']
             b2 = parameters['b2']
             W3 = parameters['W3']
             b3 = parameters['b3']
                                                   # Numpy Equivalents:
             #(approx. 5 lines)
                                                   \# Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
             \# Z1 = ...
             \# A1 = ...
                                                   \# A1 = relu(Z1)
             # Z2 = ...
                                                   \# Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2
             \# A2 = ...
                                                   \# A2 = relu(Z2)
             # Z3 = ...
                                                   \# Z3 = np.dot(W3, A2) + b3
             # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
             Z1 = tf.math.add(tf.linalg.matmul(W1, X) , b1)
                                                                             \# Z1 = np.dot(W1, X) + b1
                                                                            \# A1 = relu(Z1)
             A1 = tf.keras.activations.relu(Z1)
             Z2 = tf.math.add(tf.linalg.matmul(W2, A1) , b2)
                                                                            \# Z2 = np.dot(W2, A1) + b2
             A2 = tf.keras.activations.relu(Z2)
                                                                            \# A2 = relu(Z2)
                                                                            \# Z3 = np.dot(W3, A2) + b3
             Z3 = tf.math.add(tf.linalg.matmul(W3, A2) , b3)
             # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
             return Z3
```

```
In [27]: def forward propagation test(target, examples):
               for batch in examples:
                   forward pass = target(batch, parameters)
                    assert type(forward_pass) == EagerTensor, "Your output is not a tensor"
                   assert forward_pass.shape == (6, 1), "Last layer must use W3 and b3"
assert np.any(forward_pass < 0), "Don't use a ReLu layer at end of your network"</pre>
                    assert np.allclose(forward_pass,
                                         [[-0.13082162],
                                          [ 0.21228778],
                                          [ 0.7050022 ],
                                          [-1.1224034],
                                          [-0.20386729],
                                          [ 0.9526217 ]]), "Output does not match"
                    print(forward_pass)
                    break
               print("\033[92mAll test passed")
          forward_propagation_test(forward_propagation, new_train)
```

```
tf.Tensor(
[[-0.13082162]
  [ 0.21228778]
  [ 0.7050022 ]
  [-1.1224034 ]
  [-0.20386729]
  [ 0.9526217 ]], shape=(6, 1), dtype=float32)
All test passed
```

Expected output

```
tf.Tensor(
[-0.130821621
[ 0.21228778]
[ 0.7050022 ]
 [-1.1224034]
 [-0.20386732]
 [ 0.9526217 ]], shape=(6, 1), dtype=float32)
```

3.2 Compute the Cost

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

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

Exercise 6 - compute cost

Implement the cost function below.

• It's important to note that the "y pred" and "y true" inputs of tf.keras.losses.binary crossentropy (https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/keras/losses/binary_crossentropy) are expected to be of shape (number of examples, num classes). Since both the transpose and the original tensors have the same values, just in different order, the result of calculating the binary crossentropy should be the same if you transpose or not the logits and labels. Just for reference here is how the Binary Cross entropy is calculated in TensorFlow:

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

• tf.reduce mean basically does the summation over the examples.

```
In [28]: # GRADED FUNCTION: compute cost
         @tf.function
         def compute_cost(logits, labels):
             Computes the cost
             logits -- output of forward propagation (output of the last LINEAR unit), of shape (6, number of
             labels -- "true" labels vector, same shape as Z3
             Returns:
             cost - Tensor of the cost function
             #(1 line of code)
             # YOUR CODE STARTS HERE
             cost = tf.reduce_mean(tf.keras.losses.binary_crossentropy(y_true = labels, y pred = logits, from
             # YOUR CODE ENDS HERE
             return cost
```

```
In [29]: | def compute_cost_test(target):
             labels = np.array([[0., 1.], [0., 0.], [1., 0.]])
             logits = np.array([[0.6, 0.4], [0.4, 0.6], [0.4, 0.6]])
             result = compute_cost(logits, labels)
             print(result)
             assert(type(result) == EagerTensor), "Use the TensorFlow API"
             assert (np.abs(result - (0.7752516 + 0.9752516 + 0.7752516) / 3.0) < 1e-7), "Test does not match
             print("\033[92mAll test passed")
         compute_cost_test(compute_cost)
```

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

Expected output

```
tf.Tensor(0.87525165, shape=(), dtype=float32)
```

3.3 - Train the Model

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

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

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

• tf.Data.dataset = dataset.prefetch(8)

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

```
In [30]: def model(X_train, Y_train, X_test, Y_test, learning_rate = 0.0001,
                   num epochs = 1500, minibatch size = 32, print cost = True):
             Implements a three-layer tensorflow neural network: LINEAR->RELU->LINEAR->RELU->LINEAR->SOFTMAX.
             X_train -- training set, of shape (input size = 12288, number of training examples = 1080)
             Y train -- test set, of shape (output size = 6, number of training examples = 1080)
             X test -- training set, of shape (input size = 12288, number of training examples = 120)
             Y test -- test set, of shape (output size = 6, number of test examples = 120)
             learning_rate -- learning rate of the optimization
             num_epochs -- number of epochs of the optimization loop
             minibatch size -- size of a minibatch
             print_cost -- True to print the cost every 100 epochs
             Returns:
             parameters -- parameters learnt by the model. They can then be used to predict.
             costs = []
                                                                # To keep track of the cost
             # Initialize your parameters
             #(1 line)
             parameters = initialize parameters()
             W1 = parameters['W1']
             b1 = parameters['b1']
             W2 = parameters['W2']
             b2 = parameters['b2']
             W3 = parameters['W3']
             b3 = parameters['b3']
             optimizer = tf.keras.optimizers.SGD(learning rate)
             X_train = X_train.batch(minibatch_size, drop_remainder=True).prefetch(8)# <<< extra step</pre>
             Y train = Y train.batch(minibatch size, drop remainder=True).prefetch(8) # loads memory faster
             # Do the training loop
             for epoch in range(num_epochs):
                 epoch cost = 0.
                 for (minibatch_X, minibatch_Y) in zip(X_train, Y_train):
                     # Select a minibatch
                     with tf.GradientTape() as tape:
                          # 1. predict
                         Z3 = forward_propagation(minibatch_X, parameters)
                         # 2. loss
                         minibatch cost = compute cost(Z3, minibatch Y)
                     trainable_variables = [W1, b1, W2, b2, W3, b3]
                     grads = tape.gradient(minibatch_cost, trainable_variables)
                     optimizer.apply gradients(zip(grads, trainable variables))
                     epoch cost += minibatch cost / minibatch size
                 # Print the cost every epoch
                 if print cost == True and epoch % 10 == 0:
                     print ("Cost after epoch %i: %f" % (epoch, epoch_cost))
                 if print cost == True and epoch % 5 == 0:
                     costs.append(epoch_cost)
             # Plot the cost
             plt.plot(np.squeeze(costs))
             plt.ylabel('cost')
             plt.xlabel('iterations (per fives)')
             plt.title("Learning rate =" + str(learning_rate))
             plt.show()
             # Save the parameters in a variable
             print ("Parameters have been trained!")
             return parameters
```

```
In [31]: model(new train, new y train, new test, new y test, num epochs=200)
         Cost after epoch 0: 0.742591
         Cost after epoch 10: 0.614557
         Cost after epoch 20: 0.598900
         Cost after epoch 30: 0.588907
         Cost after epoch 40: 0.579898
         Cost after epoch 50: 0.570628
         Cost after epoch 60: 0.560898
         Cost after epoch 70: 0.550808
         Cost after epoch 80: 0.540497
         Cost after epoch 90: 0.488142
         Cost after epoch 100: 0.478271
         Cost after epoch 110: 0.472863
         Cost after epoch 120: 0.468990
         Cost after epoch 130: 0.466014
         Cost after epoch 140: 0.463661
         Cost after epoch 150: 0.461677
         Cost after epoch 160: 0.459951
         Cost after epoch 170: 0.458391
         Cost after epoch 180: 0.456969
```

Expected output

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

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

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

- Used tf.Variable to modify your variables
- · Applied TensorFlow decorators and observed how they sped up your code
- · Trained a Neural Network on a TensorFlow dataset
- Applied batch normalization for a more robust network

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

4 - Bibliography

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

Introduction to Gradients and Automatic Differentiation: https://www.tensorflow.org/guide/autodiff (https://www.tensorflow.org/guide/autodiff)

 $\label{lem:gradientTape} GradientTape \ docs/python/tf/GradientTape \ \underline{(https://www.tensorflow.org/api_docs/python/tf/GradientTape)}$

```
In [ ]:
```