

#### Model Performance And Fit - 3

One should look for what is and not what he thinks should be. (Albert Einstein)

/opt/conda/envs/python-r-course-test/bin/python:1: DeprecationWarning: `import kerastuner`is deprecated, please use `import keras\_tuner`.

Model Performance And Fit - 3

**DATASOCIETY:** © 2022

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### Warm up

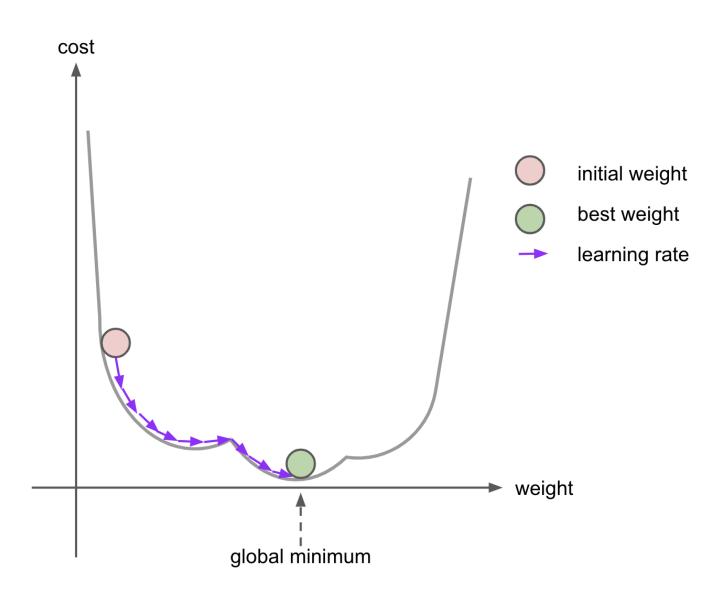
- Check out this blog with a list of Neural Network projects you can try: Link
- What was the most interesting? Do you plan to try any of these projects? Can you think of other projects you want to work on?

# Module completion checklist

Objective	Complete
Introduce loss functions in TensorFlow	
Backpropagation and gradient descent using TensorFlow	

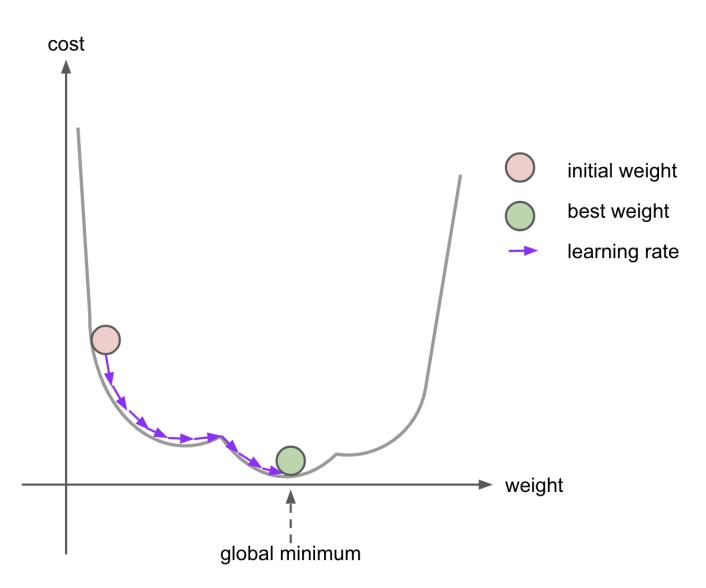
### What is a loss function?

- The loss function (or cost function) is the function that describes the relationship between the neural network's weights and the error
- The value returned by this function is called loss



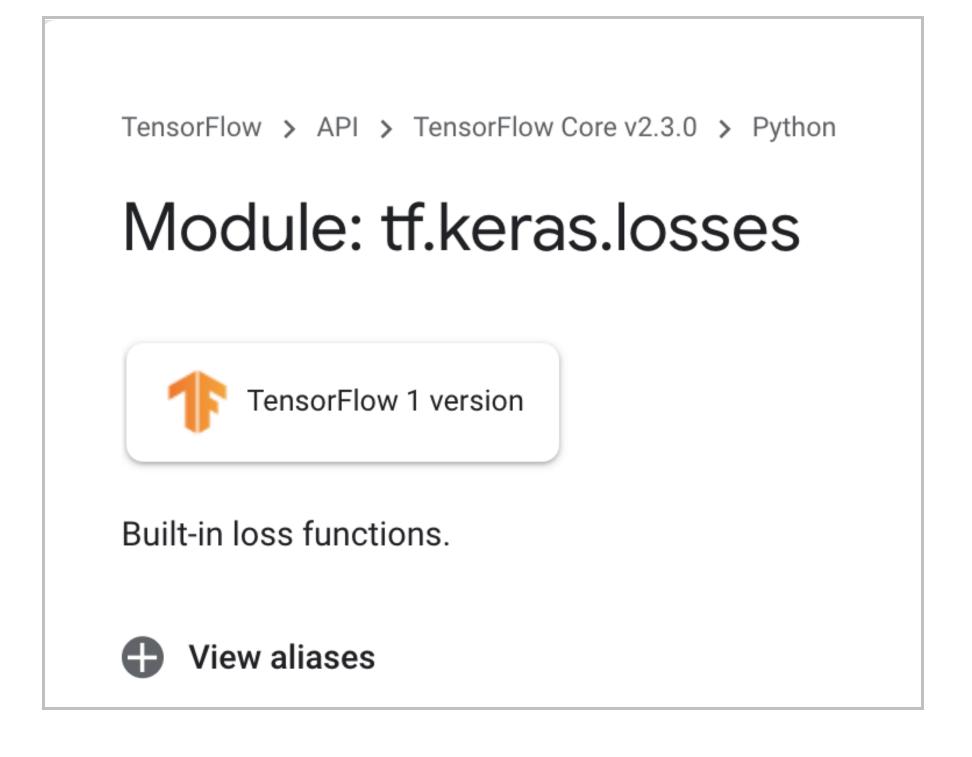
# Loss function (cont'd)

- We aim to find weights that minimize the error
- Optimizers within a neural network framework (e.g., Keras) operate on a given loss function to find the global minimum



### Keras loss functions

- There is a long list of loss functions available in the tf.keras.losses module, including BinaryCrossentropy, CategoricalCrossentropy, Cosinesimilarity, MSE, MAE, and many more
- We'll cover a few of the common functions
- Check out the rest on the TensorFlow website by using this link



## Loss function: binary crossentropy

- Binary crossentropy (a.k.a. log loss) is a metric that takes into account the uncertainty of your prediction based on how much it varies from the actual label
- It uses the prediction probabilities of a class, not the actual assigned class label
- It is widely used to assess conventional binary classification problems and be extended to multi-class classification problems

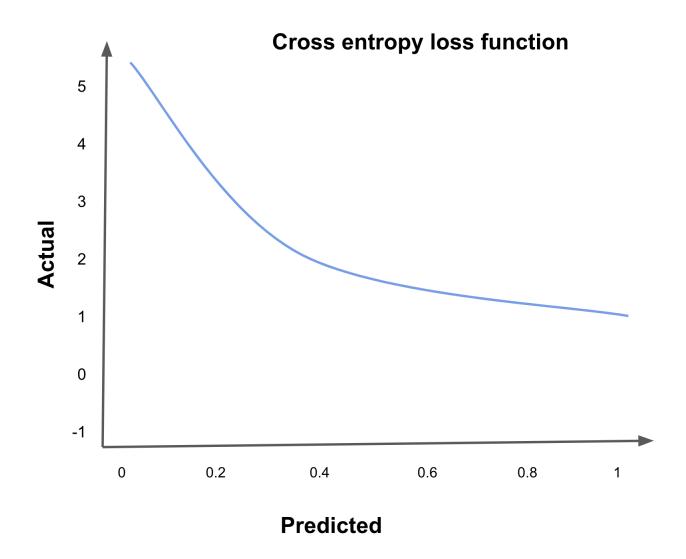
# Binary crossentropy: formula and intuition

• Log loss should be minimized, so the smaller the number, the better (it can be 0 or greater)

- ullet  $L=rac{-1}{N}\sum_1^N y_i \cdot \log(\hat{y_i} + (1-y_i)) \cdot \log(1-\hat{y_i})$ , where
  - $\circ$  N is the number of observations in our model (i.e., the number of values in the output layer)
  - $\circ$   $y_i$  is the target value
  - $\hat{y_i}$  is the predicted value

# Binary crossentropy: formula and intuition (cont'd)

 The loss curve can be constructed to view how the value changes based on different probability thresholds



# Loss function: categorical crossentropy

- Categorical crossentropy is a loss function that is suited for multi-class classification problems
  - Multi-class classification problems involve more than two categories in the target variable
- It's a generalized version of binary crossentropy and is computed in a similar fashion

- $ullet L = rac{-1}{N} \sum_1^N y_i \cdot \log(\hat{y_i})$ , where
  - $\circ$  N is the number of observations in our model (i.e., the number of values in the output layer)
  - $\circ$   $y_i$  is the target value
  - $\hat{y_i}$  is the predicted value

## Using categorical crossentropy in TensorFlow

- We need to provide the label inputs in the one-hot-encoded format while we use the categorical crossentropy as loss function
- One hot encoding is a process used to convert categorical variables to a numerical format
- For example, if we have a dataset that includes information three car manufacturers (BMW, Volkswagen, and Honda), the converted dataset would look as shown on the right

#### **Original dataset**

Company	Year	Price
1	1993	10000
2	2000	15000
3	2005	24000
1	2019	17000

#### After one-hot encoding

1	2	3	Price
1	0	0	10000
0	1	0	15000
0	0	1	24000
1	0	0	17000

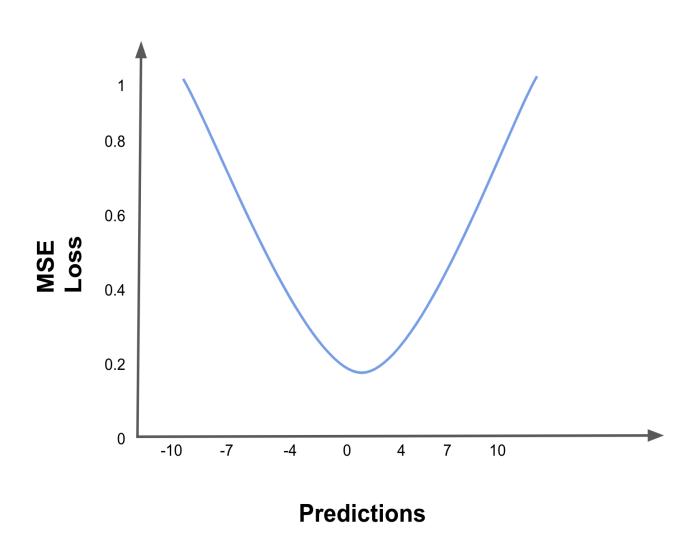
1 - BMW, 2 - Volkswagen, 3 - Honda

# Loss function: sparse categorical crossentropy

- If we wish to provide the categorical labels as integers instead of one-hot encoding, we use the loss function SparseCategoricalCrossentropy
- It's equation for loss function is the same as categorical crossentropy

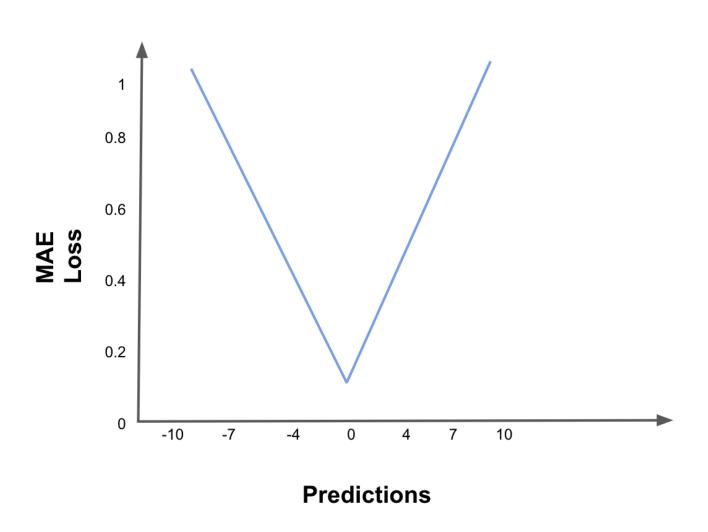
# Loss function: mean squared error (MSE)

- MSE is used as loss function in regression problems
- It's measured as the average of squared difference between the predictions and the actual observations
- $MSE = rac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}(y_i \hat{y_i})^2}{N}$  , where
  - $^{\circ}$  N is the number of observations in our model (i.e. the number of values in the output layer)
  - ullet  $y_i$  is the target value
  - $\hat{y_i}$  is the predicted value
- Due to squaring, predictions that are far away from the actual values are penalized heavily compared to predictions closer to actual values



## Loss function: mean absolute error (MAE)

- MAE is also a loss function used in the regression problems
- It is calculated by taking the mean of the absolute differences between predicted and the actual values
- ullet  $MAE = (rac{1}{N})\sum_{i=1}^{N}|y_i-x_i|$  , where
  - $^{\circ}$  N is the number of observations in our model (i.e. the number of values in the output layer)
  - $\circ$   $y_i$  is the target value
  - $\hat{y_i}$  is the predicted value
- MAE is preferred to be chosen as the loss function when there are more outliers in the training data



# Loss functions summary

Loss function	Use case
Binary crossentropy	Binary classification problems
Categorical crossentropy	Multi-class classification problems with target labels in one-hot-encoding format
Sparse categorical crossentropy	Multi-class classification with target labels as integers
Mean squared error (MSE)	Regression problems
Mean absolute error	Regression problems

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#### Overview

 Further down this section, we will reinforce our understanding of some neural network components and illustrate the mechanics of backpropagation on a simple feedforward neural network

 Note: the gradients that we will deal with today will be vector representations of the derivative of the activation function

### Generate some fake data

- Let's generate some fake data and train our neural network
- Imagine that our data is drawn from a linear function:
  - $\circ~y=3.5*studyhours+50$ , where 3.5 is our true <code>weight</code> and 50 is our true <code>bias</code>

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### Neural network architecture

- Let's create a neural network class called Model
- Note: This is essentially a linear regression whose coefficients are trained by gradient descent
  - In practice, gradient descent works with much more complex functions within multilayer networks

```
# Define model.
class Model(object):

def __init__(self):
    self.W = tf.Variable(8.0)  #<- initial weight
    self.b = tf.Variable(40.0)  #<- initial bias

def __call__(self, x):
    return self.W * x + self.b #<- compute the equation</pre>
```

```
# Initialize the model.
model = Model()
```

```
# Check if it outputs correct results.
assert model(3.0).numpy() == 64.0
```

### Loss function

- Here we will use Mean Squared Error (MSE), because this is a regression problem
- ullet We are trying to predict a continuous target y

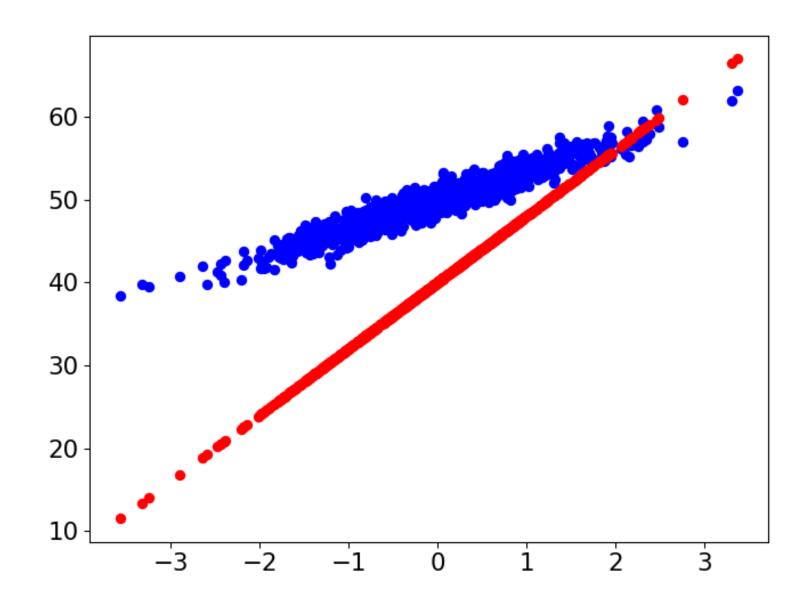
```
# Define loss function.
def loss(target_y, predicted_y):
   "MSE"
   return tf.reduce_mean(tf.square(target_y - predicted_y))
```

## Initial weights

- The initial weights were chosen by us in this instance
- In practice, weights are initialized randomly

```
Current loss: 121.319221
```

```
plt.scatter(inputs, outputs, c = 'b')
plt.scatter(inputs, model(inputs), c = 'r')
plt.show()
```



# Update weights based on gradient

- Due to the high complexity of models and their non-linearity, it is common for gradient descent to get stuck in a local minimum, but there are ways to combat this:
  - Stochastic Gradient Descent
  - More advanced GD-based optimizers
- Now let's define the training function

```
# Define the train function for our NN.
def train(model, inputs, outputs, learning_rate):

with tf.GradientTape() as t:
    current_loss = loss(outputs, model(inputs)) #<- compute loss

# Compute partial derivatives:
    # how much does a particular obvs + W + b contribute to that loss.
dW, db = t.gradient(current_loss, [model.W, model.b])

# Update with new weights and bias using our learning rate.
model.W.assign_sub(learning_rate * dW)
model.b.assign_sub(learning_rate * db)</pre>
```

### Train the neural network

```
model = Model()

# Store some history of weights.
Ws, bs = [], []
epochs = range(15)

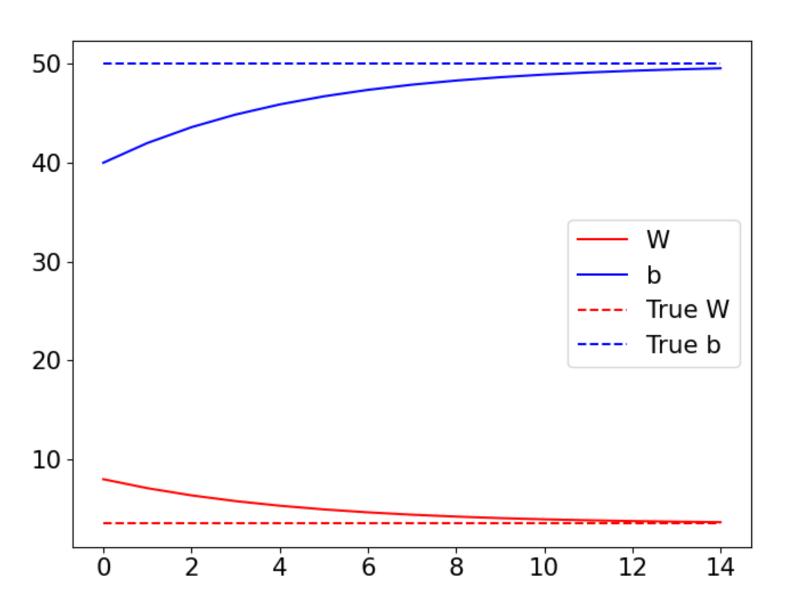
for epoch in epochs:
    Ws.append(model.W.numpy())
    bs.append(model.b.numpy())
    current_loss = loss(outputs, model(inputs))

    train(model, inputs, outputs, learning_rate=0.1)
    print('Epoch %2d: W=%1.2f b=%1.2f loss=%2.5f' % (epoch, Ws[-1], bs[-1], current_loss))
```

```
Epoch 0: W=8.00 b=40.00 loss=121.31922
Epoch 1: W=7.09 b=42.00 loss=78.03817
Epoch 2: W=6.37 b=43.59 loss=50.32687
Epoch 3: W=5.79 b=44.87 loss=32.58436
Epoch 4: W=5.32 b=45.89 loss=21.22446
Epoch 5: W=4.95 b=46.71 loss=13.95112
Epoch 6: W=4.65 b=47.37 loss=9.29426
Epoch 7: W=4.41 b=47.89 loss=6.31264
Epoch 8: W=4.22 b=48.31 loss=4.40362
Epoch 9: W=4.07 b=48.65 loss=3.18134
Epoch 10: W=3.95 b=48.91 loss=2.39876
Epoch 11: W=3.85 b=49.13 loss=1.89770
Epoch 12: W=3.77 b=49.30 loss=1.57689
Epoch 13: W=3.71 b=49.44 loss=1.37148
Epoch 14: W=3.66 b=49.55 loss=1.23997
```

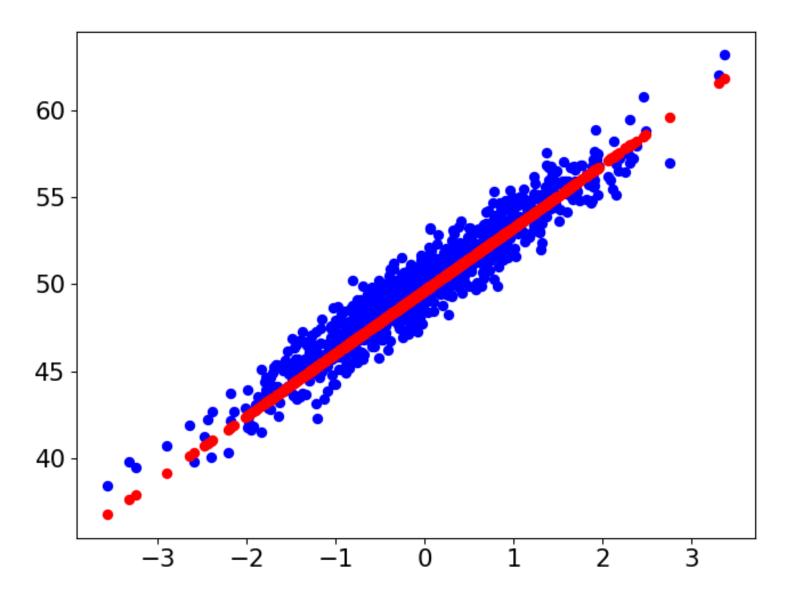
### Inspect the results

• The weights and the bias converged very close to their true values



# Inspect the results (cont'd)

```
plt.scatter(inputs, outputs, c='b')
plt.scatter(inputs, model(inputs), c='r')
plt.show()
```



### Inspect the results (cont'd)

```
print('Current loss: %1.6f' % loss(model(inputs),
  outputs).numpy())
```

```
Current loss: 1.155764
```

- The fit of the model to our data is now very good as opposed to the initial starting point
- We can also see that in just 15 epochs our very simple neural network was able to go from a loss of 100+ down to just over 1!

# Knowledge check



Link: https://forms.gle/Fp9QjEDpENXyn8QM9

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# Congratulations on completing this module!

