

# CHAPTER 12

## Custom Models and Training with TensorFlow

Chapter 12 shows how to go **below `tf.keras`** and build custom components and training logic using **TensorFlow's low-level API**, automatic differentiation, and `tf.function` graphs.

### TensorFlow core and tensors

The chapter starts with a quick tour of TensorFlow as a NumPy-like numerical library with GPU/TPU kernels, distributed execution, autodiff, and JIT-style graph optimization via `tf.function`. Core concepts are:

- **Tensors** (`tf.Tensor`): multidimensional arrays with a shape and dtype, interoperable with NumPy, created via `tf.constant`, manipulated with math ops (`tf.add`, `tf.square`, `tf.matmul`, etc.).
- **Variables** (`tf.Variable`): mutable tensors used for weights and state, updated via `assign`, `assign_add`, etc., and typically created by Keras layers or custom code.
- Additional structures: sparse tensors, ragged tensors, string tensors, sets, and tensor arrays, each with dedicated submodules (`tf.sparse`, `tf.ragged`, `tf.strings`).

TensorFlow enforces explicit **dtypes** (no silent casts) and favors 32-bit floats for speed and memory, requiring `tf.cast` when mixing types.

### Customizing Keras: losses, metrics, layers, models

The chapter then focuses on **custom Keras components**:

- **Custom loss functions:**
  - As simple Python callables taking (`y_true`, `y_pred`) (plus optional `sample_weight`) and returning a scalar tensor, or
  - As subclasses of `keras.losses.Loss` when you need configuration/state or want them to be serializable and reusable in `SavedModels`.
- **Custom metrics:** similarly defined as functions or as subclasses of `keras.metrics.Metric` implementing `update_state`, `result`, and `reset_states` for metrics that accumulate over batches (e.g., mean IoU, F1).
- **Custom activations, initializers, regularizers, constraints:** implemented as callables or classes and passed into layers via `activation=`, `kernel_initializer=`, `kernel_regularizer=`, `kernel_constraint=`, etc.; serialization support is needed to save/load models containing them.
- **Custom layers:** subclass `keras.layers.Layer`, define sublayers in `__init__` or `build`, implement `call(self, inputs, training=None)`; optionally override `get_config` for serialization.

- Examples include a layer with a skip connection (residual block) and a Gaussian noise layer that adds noise only when `training=True`.
- **Custom models:** subclass `keras.Model`, create layers in `__init__`/`build`, implement call to wire them together, enabling arbitrary architectures with loops, branches, and shared submodules.
  - The example custom model stacks a Dense layer, a custom ResidualBlock used multiple times, and an output layer, illustrating complex graphs beyond Sequential/Functional models.

The chapter also shows **losses based on model internals** using `add_loss` (e.g., an auxiliary reconstruction head to regularize a regression model) and internal metrics using `add_metric`.

### Automatic differentiation and gradient control

Using **autodiff** via `tf.GradientTape`, any differentiable computation can be differentiated:

- You watch variables inside a with `tf.GradientTape()` block, compute a scalar loss, then call `tape.gradient(loss, [var1, var2, ...])` to get gradients and apply them with an optimizer.
- Tapes can be persistent for multiple gradient calls, and nested tapes allow higher-order derivatives; `tape.stop_recording()` or `tf.stop_gradient` can block parts from contributing to gradients.

The chapter also covers **custom gradients** using `@tf.custom_gradient`, where you define both the forward computation and a custom backward function to ensure numerical stability or implement nonstandard gradient flows.

### Custom training loops

For maximum control (e.g., multiple optimizers, nonstandard updates, gradient transformations), you can write your own **training loop**:

- Iterate over `tf.data.Dataset` batches inside for epoch and for `X_batch`, `y_batch` in dataset:
  - Use `GradientTape` to compute loss and gradients.
  - Optionally modify gradients (e.g., manual clipping) and call `optimizer.apply_gradients(zip(grads, variables))`.
  - Update metrics via `metric.update_state(...)` and print progress.
- Handle `training=True` when calling the model to ensure layers like Dropout/BatchNorm behave correctly, and apply any weight **constraints** after optimizer steps.

This pattern allows implementing research-style algorithms or papers that require, for example, distinct optimizers per subnet or extra regularization steps that Keras's `fit` does not support directly.

### **tf.function, graphs, and AutoGraph**

Finally, the chapter shows how `tf.function` converts Python functions into fast, portable **TensorFlow graph functions**:

- Decorating a function with `@tf.function` or calling `tf.function(f)` causes TensorFlow to trace it, build a computation graph, and optimize it; subsequent calls reuse the graph for matching input shapes/dtypes.
- **AutoGraph** rewrites Python control flow (`for`, `while`, `if`) over tensors into graph ops (`tf.nn.dynamic_rnn`, `tf.nn.dynamic_rnn`, `tf.nn.dynamic_rnn`), enabling dynamic behaviors in graphs.
- Graph polymorphism: new graphs are generated for new input signatures (shapes/dtypes), but Python scalar arguments cause separate graphs per distinct value, so scalars should represent hyperparameters with few possible values.

Keras automatically wraps most custom components in TF Functions, so performance benefits are usually obtained without explicitly using `tf.function`, unless you disable it via `dynamic=True` or `run_eagerly=True` for easier debugging.