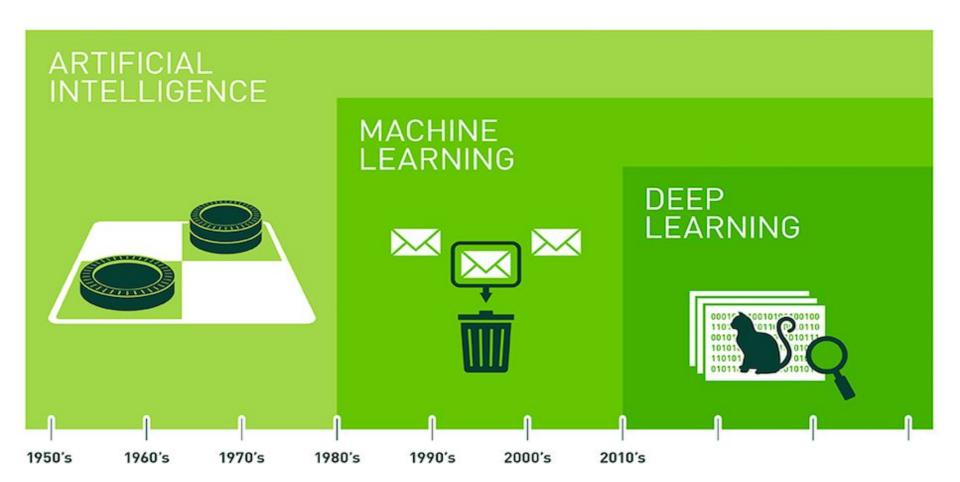
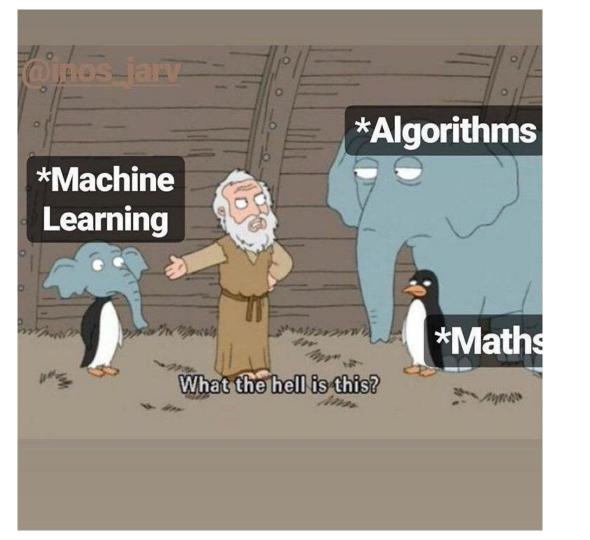


ML and DL







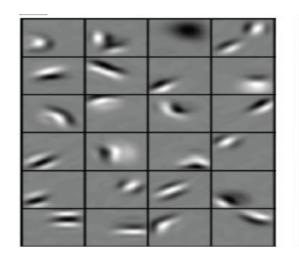
Why Deep Learning and Why Now?

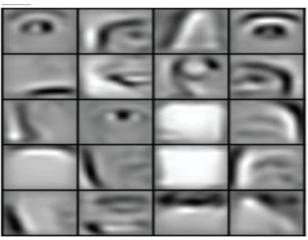


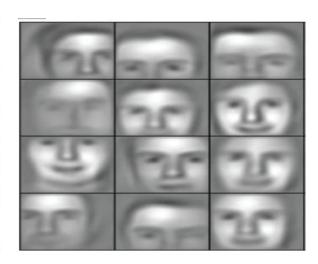
Why Deep Learning?

Hand engineered features are time consuming, brittle, and not scalable in practice

Can we learn the underlying features directly from data? Low Level Features Mid I evel Features High Level Features







Why Now?

1952

1958

:

1986

1995

:

Stochastic Gradient Descent

Perceptron

Learnable Weights

Backpropagation

Multi-Layer Perceptron

Deep Convolutional NN

Digit Recognition

Neural Networks date back decades, so why the resurgence?

I. Big Data

- Larger Datasets
- Easier
 Collection &
 Storage

IM GENET





2. Hardware

- Graphics Processing Units (GPUs)
- Massively Parallelizable

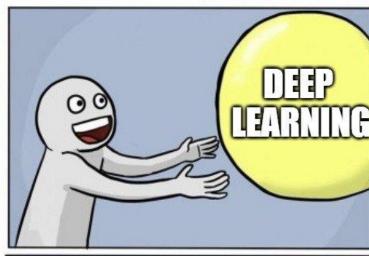


3. Software

- Improved Techniques
- New Models
- Toolboxes



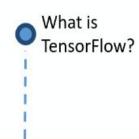






inglipeen

TensorFlow behind the scenes





What is TensorFlow?

- Open Source Machine Learning Library, Apache 2.0 License
- Useful for Deep Learning
- Research and Production





Model building: from simple to arbitrarily flexible

Progressive disclosure of complexity

Sequential API + built-in layers Functional API + built-in layers **Functional API**

- + Custom layers
- Custom metrics
- + Custom losses

Subclassing: write everything yourself from scratch







Engineers with standard use cases

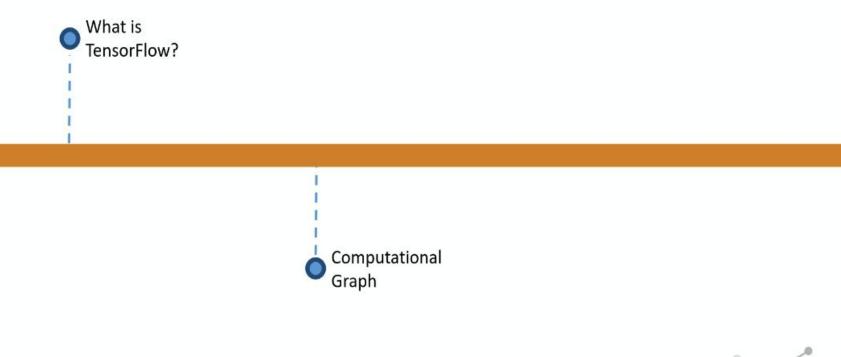


Engineers requiring increasing control

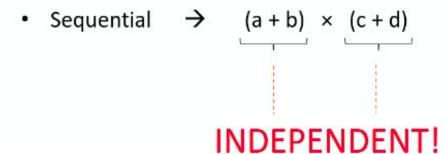


Researchers

TensorFlow behind the scenes



$$(a+b)\times(c+d)$$

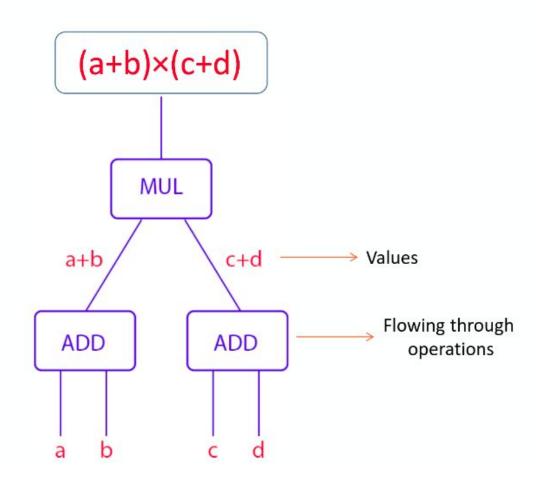


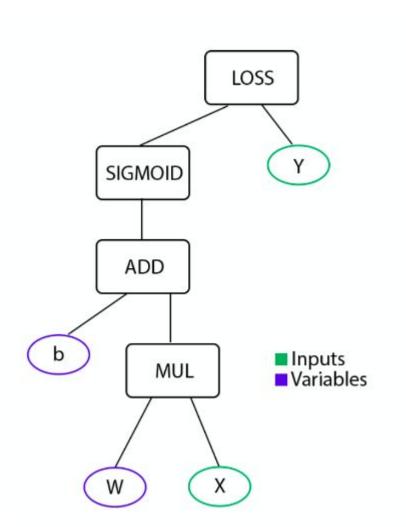
$$(a+b)\times(c+d)$$

• Sequential
$$\rightarrow$$
 (a + b) \times (c + d)

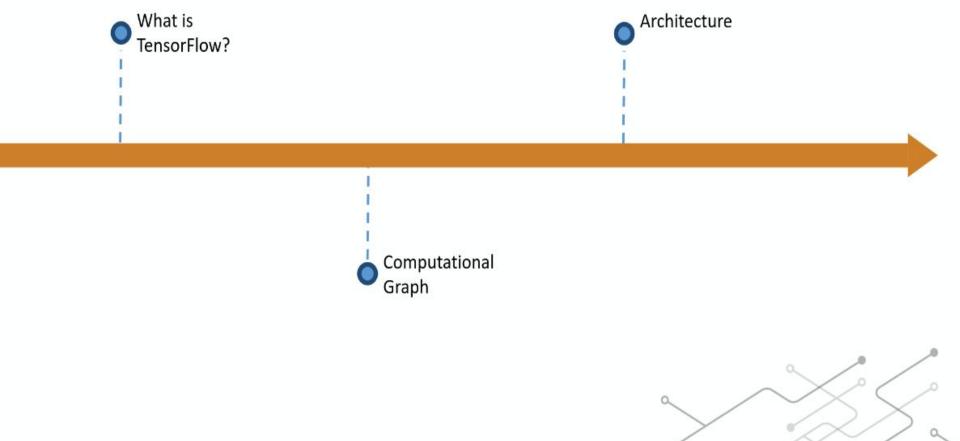
• Parallel
$$\rightarrow \begin{cases} (a+b) \\ \times \\ (c+d) \end{cases}$$

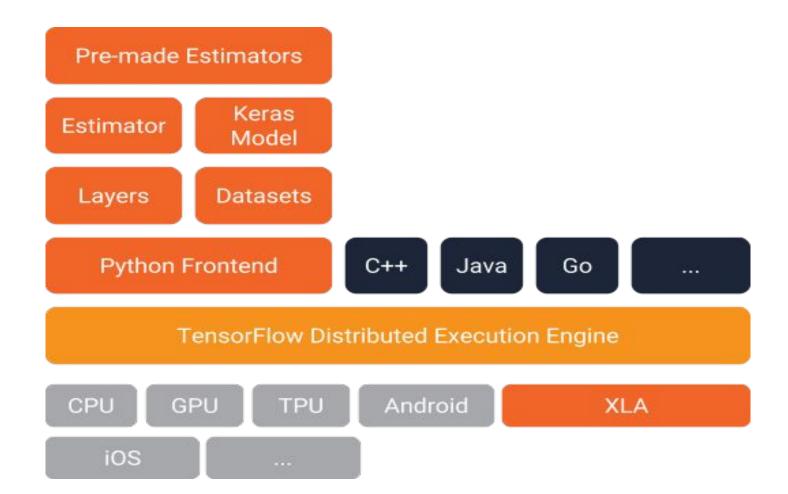
Computational Graph





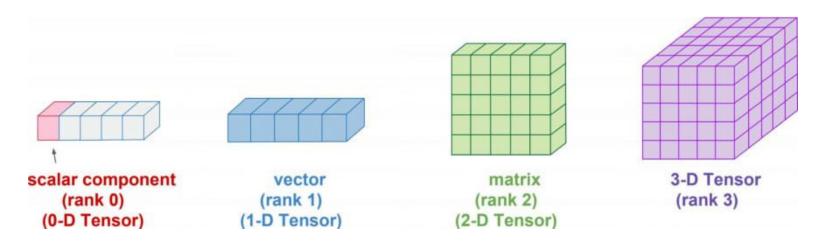
TensorFlow behind the scenes





Tensors

A Tensor is a multi-dimensional array. Similar to NumPy ndarray objects, tf.Tensor objects have a data type and a shape. Additionally, tf.Tensors can reside in accelerator memory (like a GPU). TensorFlow offers a rich library of operations (tf.add, tf.matmul, tf.multiply etc.) that consume and produce tf.Tensors. These operations automatically convert native Python types.

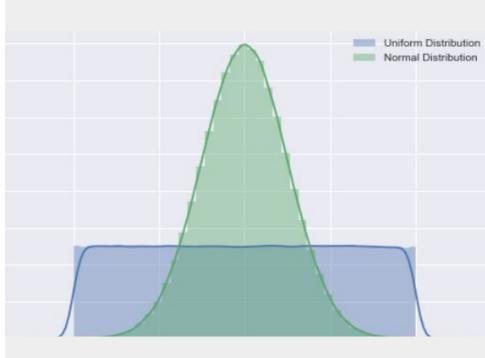


tensors

```
<tf.Tensor: shape=(3, 4), dtype=float32,
                                                        numpy=
tf.ones([3,4],dtype=tf.float32)
                                                        array([[1., 1., 1., 1.],
                                                            [1., 1., 1., 1.],
                                                             [1., 1., 1., 1.]], dtype=float32)>
tf.zeros([2,2],dtype=tf.float32)
                                                        <tf.Tensor: shape=(2, 2), dtype=float32,
                                                        numpy=
                                                        array([[ 0.4381552, -1.5851315],
                                                             [1.5874195, -2.1158957]],
tf.random.normal(shape=[2,3])
                                                        dtype=float32)>
                                                        <tf.Tensor: shape=(2, 2), dtype=float32,
                                                        numpy=
tf.random.uniform(shape=[2,3])
                                                        array([[0.2659924, 0.08474123],
                                                             [0.36174548, 0.07563508]]
                                                        dtype=float32)>
```

Normal Distribution Vs Uniform Distribution

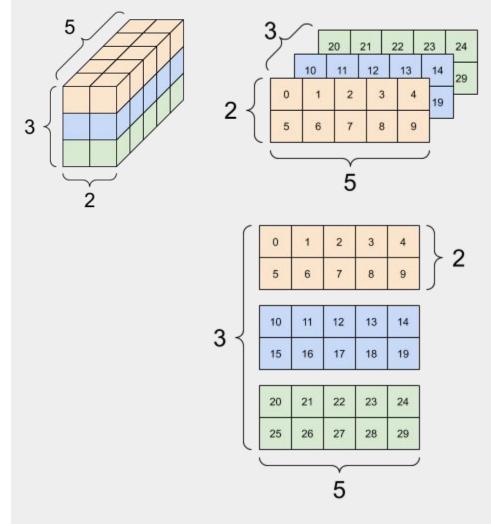
Normal Distribution is a probability distribution which peaks out in the middle and gradually decreases towards both ends of axis. It is also known as gaussian distribution and bell curve because of its bell like shape. **Uniform Distribution is a probability** distribution where probability of x is constant. That is to say, all points in range are equally likely to occur consequently it looks like a rectangle.



Constant

Creates a constant tensor from a tensor-like object.

```
A 3-axis tensor, shape: [3, 2, 5] tf.constant([[ [[0, 1, 2, 3, 4], [5, 6, 7, 8, 9]], [[10, 11, 12, 13, 14], [15, 16, 17, 18, 19]], [[20, 21, 22, 23, 24], [25, 26, 27, 28, 29]]])
```



Variables

A TensorFlow variable is the recommended way to represent shared, persistent state your program manipulates.

Variables are created and tracked via the tf.Variable class. A tf.Variable represents a tensor whose value can be changed by running ops on it. Specific ops allow you to read and modify the values of this tensor. Higher level libraries like tf.keras use tf.Variable to store model parameters.

tf.Variable(initial_value=None, trainable=None, validate_shape=True, name=None, dtype=None)

basic math on tensors

You can do basic math on tensors, including addition, element-wise multiplication, and matrix multiplication.

tf.add(a,b)

tf.multiply(a,b)

tf.matmul(a,b)

Input:
$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\cdot
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 2 \\
7
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$(1*1) + (2*3) + (3*2) = 13$$
Input:
$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\cdot
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 \\
2 \\
7
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$(1*2) + (2*2) + (3*7) = 27$$
Input:
$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\cdot
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 2 \\
7
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$(3*1) + (2*3) + (1*2) = 11$$
Input:
$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 \\
3 & 2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\cdot
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 2 \\
7
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$(3*2) + (2*2) + (1*7) = 17$$

$$(3*2) + (2*2) + (1*7) = 17$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 8 \\ 3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4+1 & 8+0 \\ 3+5 & 7+2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Tensor to Numpy

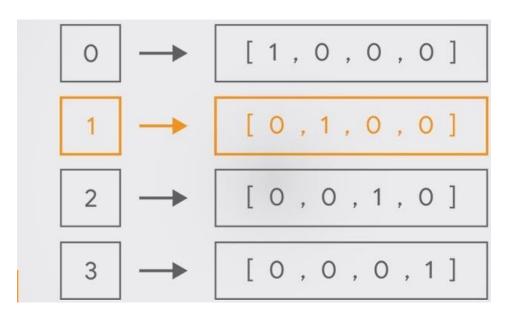
You can convert a tensor to a NumPy array either using np.array or the tensor.numpy method:

np.array(tensor)

tensor.numpy()

One-hot encoding

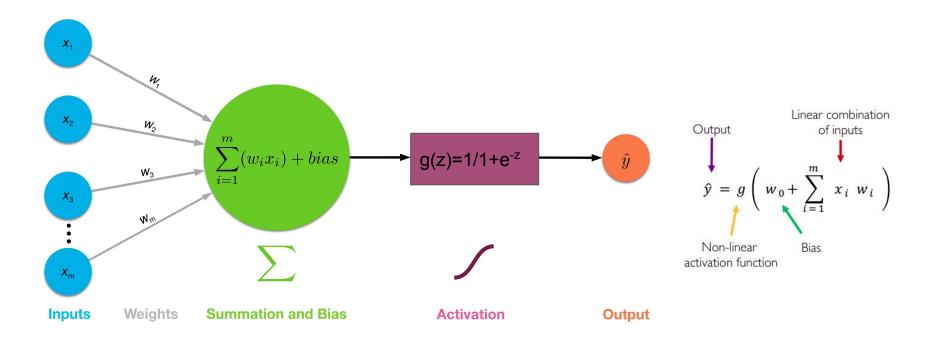
In machine learning, a one-hot is a group of bits among which the legal combinations of values are only those with a single high bit and all the others low. A similar implementation in which all bits are '1' except one '0'.



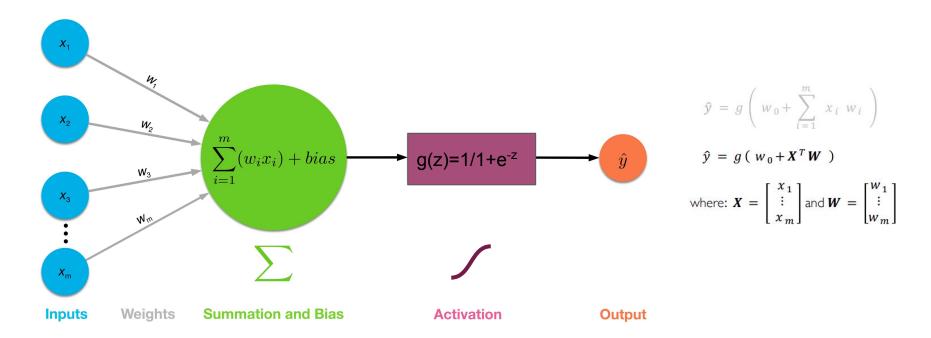
The Perceptron The structural building block of deep

learning

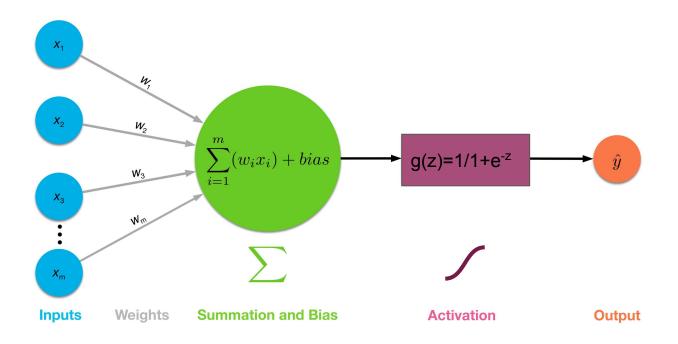
The Perceptron: Forward Propagation



The Perceptron: Forward Propagation



The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

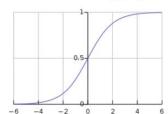


Activation Functions

$$\hat{y} = g(w_0 + X^T W)$$

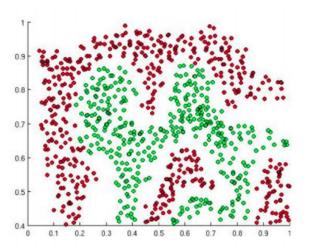
• Example: sigmoid function

$$g(z) = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



Importance of Activation Functions

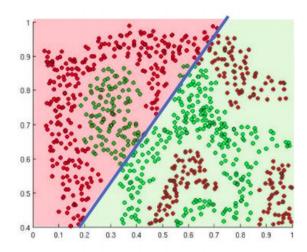
The purpose of activation functions is to **introduce non-linearities** into the network



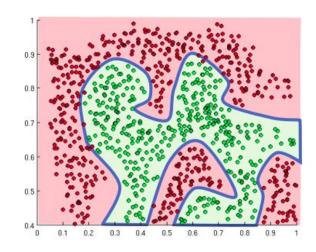
What if we wanted to build a Neural Network to distinguish green vs red points?

Importance of Activation Functions

The purpose of activation functions is to **introduce non-linearities** into the network

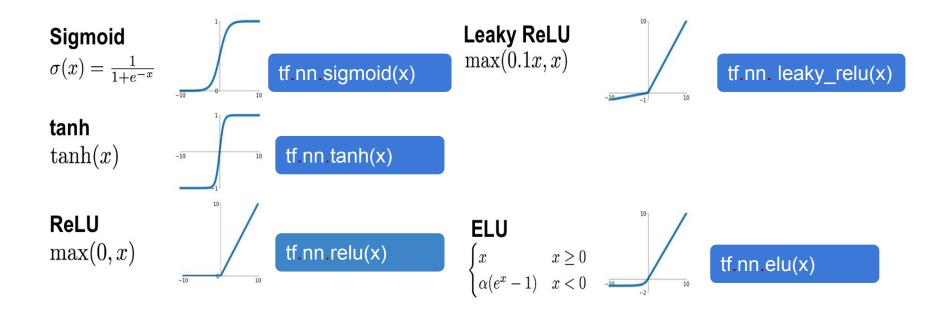


Linear Activation functions produce linear decisions no matter the network size



Non-linearities allow us to approximate arbitrarily complex functions

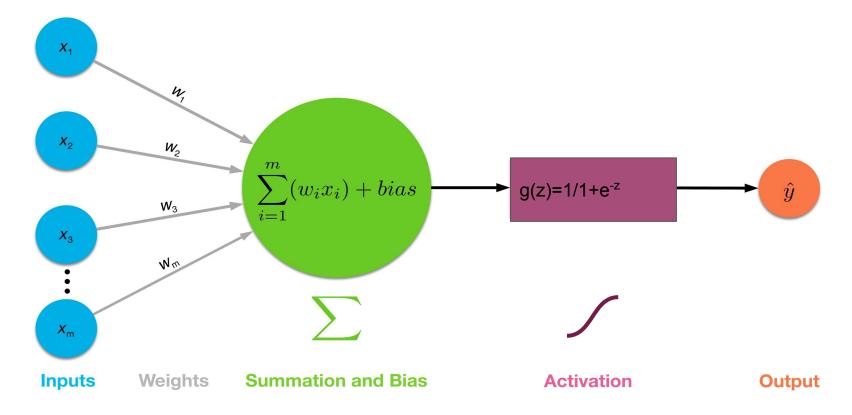
Common Activation Functions



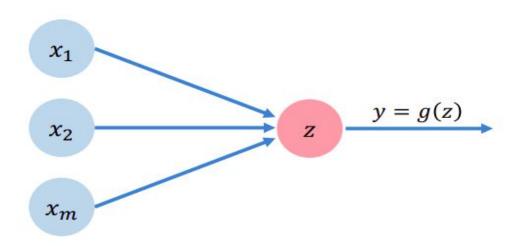


Building Neural Networks with Perceptrons

The Perceptron: Simplified

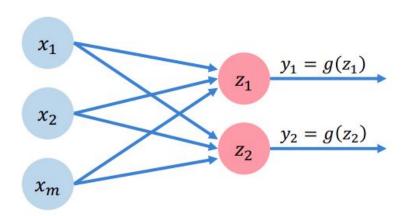


The Perceptron: Simplified



$$z = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_j$$

Multi Output Perceptron

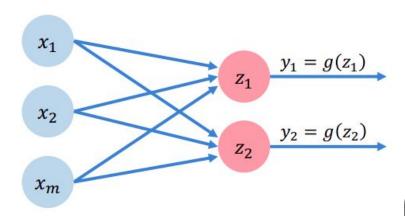


$$z_i = w_{0,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_{j,i}$$

```
def init (self,input dim,output dim):
           super(myDenseLayer,self). init ()
           init w=tf.random normal initializer()
           self.w=tf.Variable(initial value=init w(shape=(input dim,output dim),dtype='float32'),
                              trainable=True)
 6
           init b=tf.zeros initializer()
           self.b=tf.Variable(initial value=init b(shape=(output dim,),dtype='float32'),
                              trainable=True)
10
       def call(self,inputs):
           z=tf.matmul(inputs,self.w)+self.b
11
           output=tf.math.sigmoid(z)
12
13
           return output
 1 x=tf.ones((4,4))
 2 model=myDenseLayer(4,2)
 3 y=model(x)
 4 print(y)
tf.Tensor(
[[0.52305216 0.5289087 ]
 [0.52305216 0.5289087 ]
 [0.52305216 0.5289087 ]
 [0.52305216 0.5289087 ]], shape=(4, 2), dtype=float32)
```

1 class myDenseLayer(tf.keras.layers.Layer):

Multi Output Perceptron

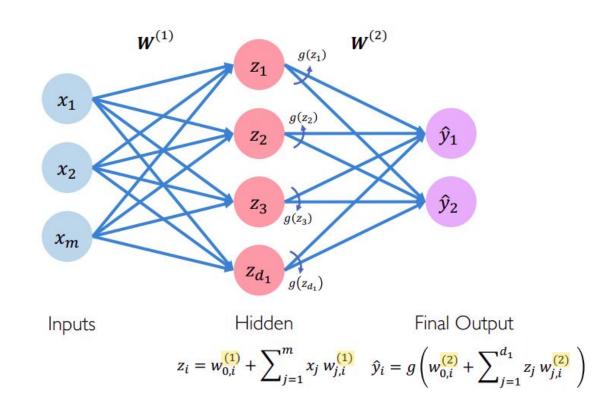


$$z_i = w_{0,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_{j,i}$$

import tensorflow as tf
layer=tf.keras.layers.Dense(
units=2)

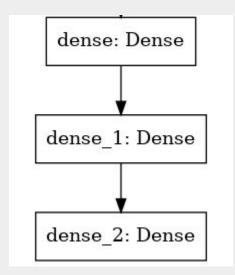


Single Layer Neural Network

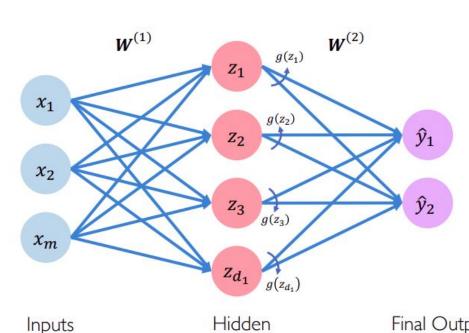


The Sequential model

When to use a Sequential model A Sequential model is appropriate for a plain stack of layers where each layer has exactly one input tensor and one output tensor.



Multi Output Perceptron

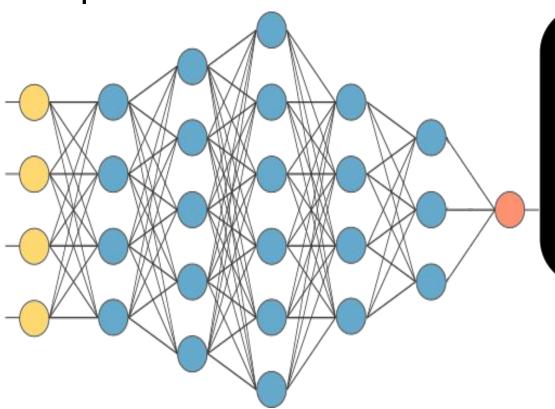


from tensorflow..keras.layers import * model=tf.keras.Sequential([nputs(m), Dense(4,activation="relu"), Dense(2,activation="softmax")])

Hidden Final Output
$$z_{i} = w_{0,i}^{(1)} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} x_{j} w_{j,i}^{(1)} \quad \hat{y}_{i} = g \left(w_{0,i}^{(2)} + \sum_{j=1}^{d_{1}} z_{j} w_{j,i}^{(2)} \right)$$

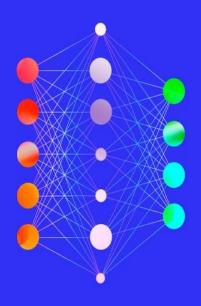


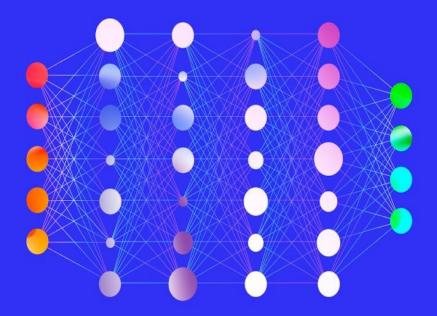
Deep Neural Network



Simple Neural Network

Deep Learning Neural Network





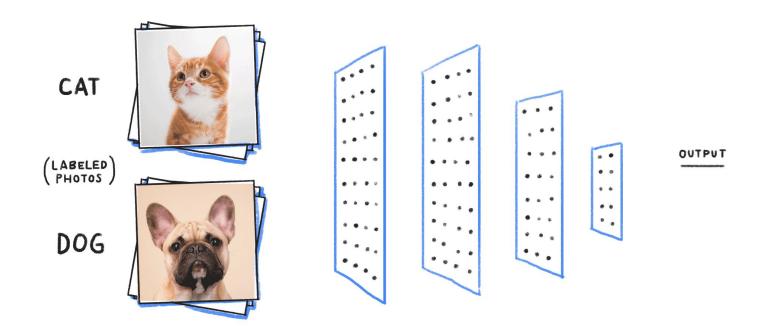




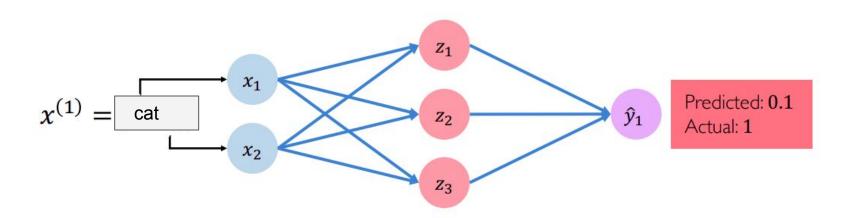


Applying Neural Networks

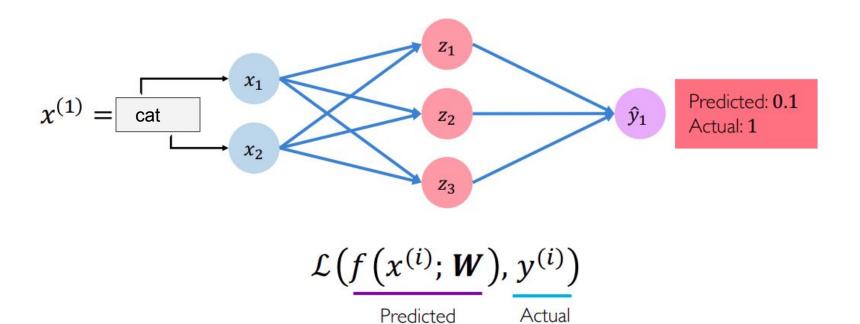
Example Problem : Cat Vs Dog



Example Problem: Will I pass this class?

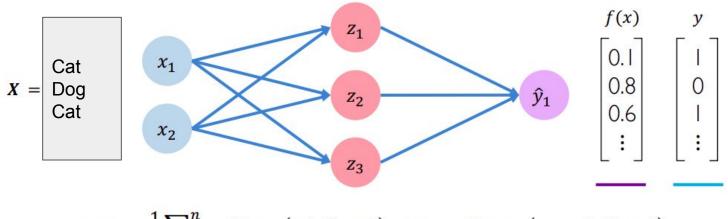


Quantifying Loss



Cross entropy loss

Cross entropy loss can be used with models that output a probability between 0 and 1

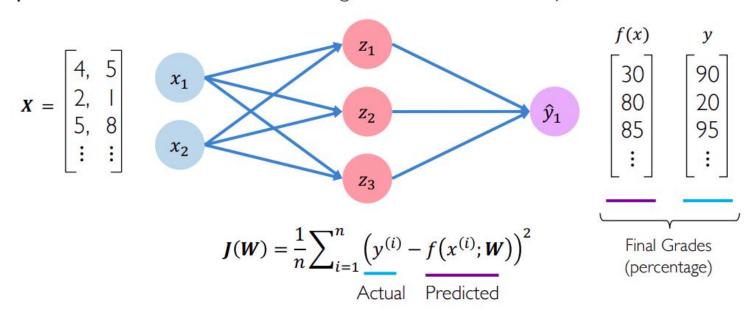


$$J(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y^{(i)} \log \left(f(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}) \right) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log \left(1 - f(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}) \right)$$
Actual Predicted Actual Predicted

loss = tf.reduce_mean(tf.nn.sigmoid_cross_entropy_with_logits(y, predicted))

Mean Square Error

Mean squared error loss can be used with regression models that output continuous real numbers



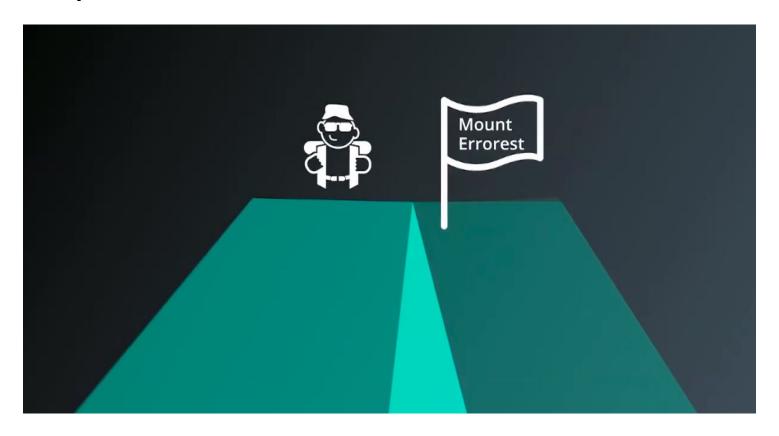
loss = tf.reduce_mean(tf.square(tf.subtract(y, predicted)))

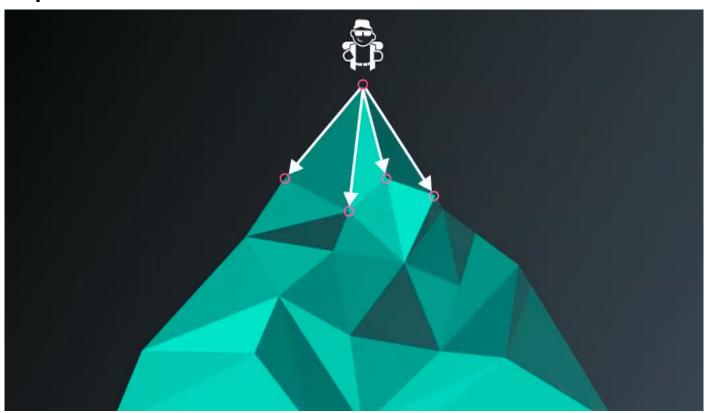
People with no idea about AI, telling me my AI will destroy the world

Me wondering why my neural network is classifying a cat as a dog..

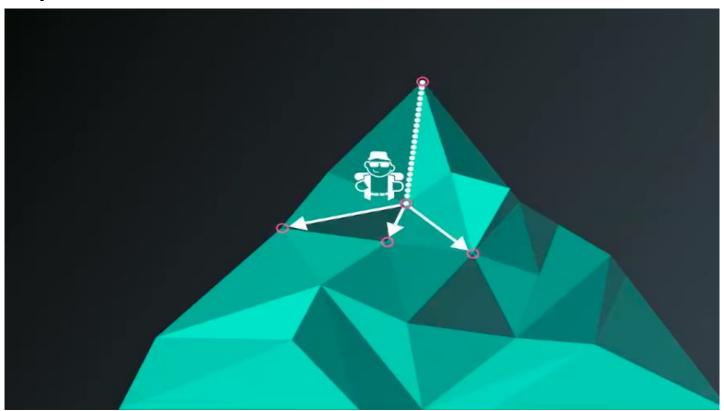


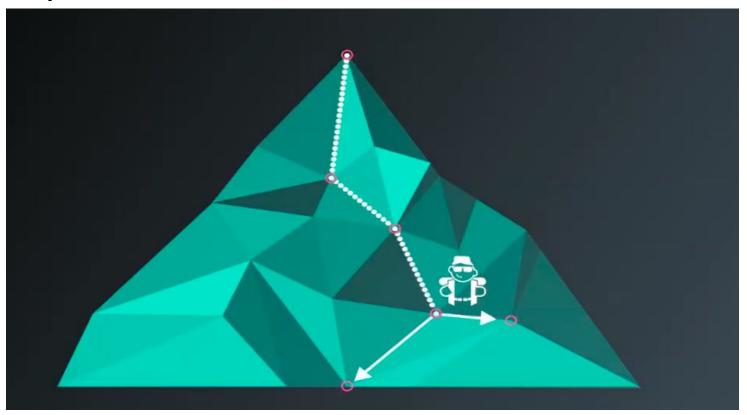
Training Neural Networks

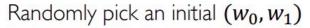


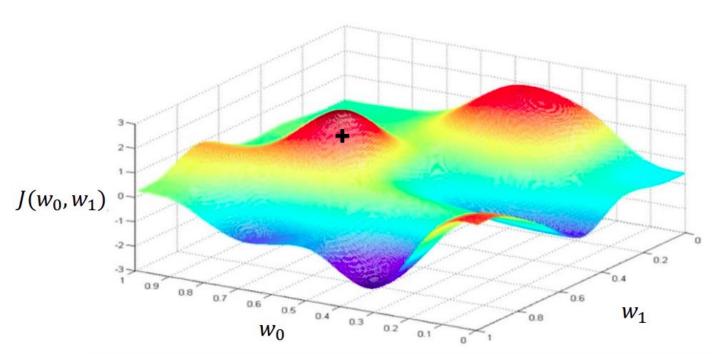


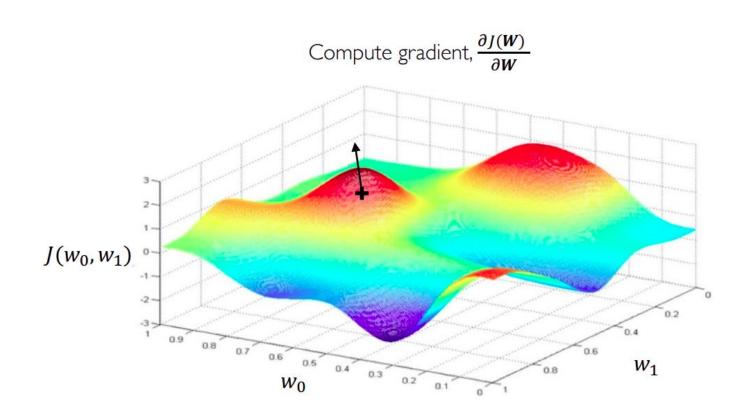




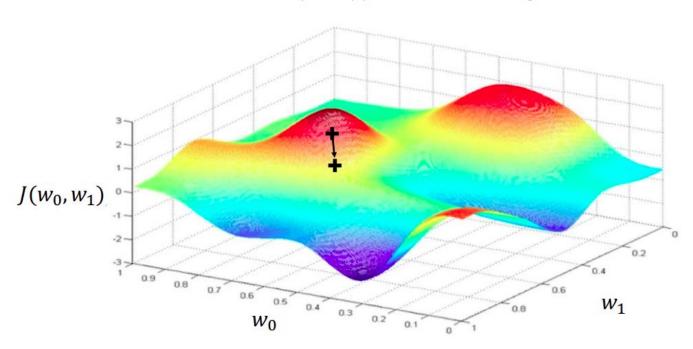






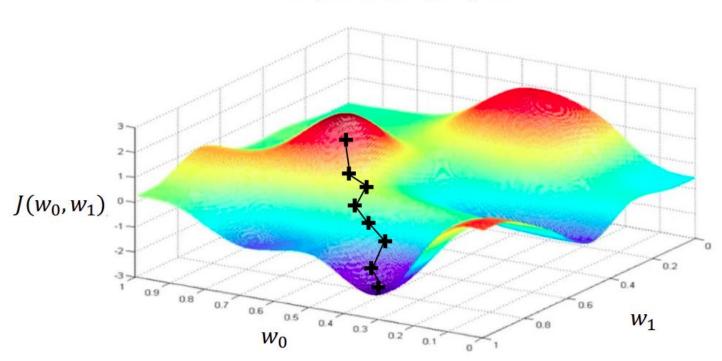


Take small step in opposite direction of gradient

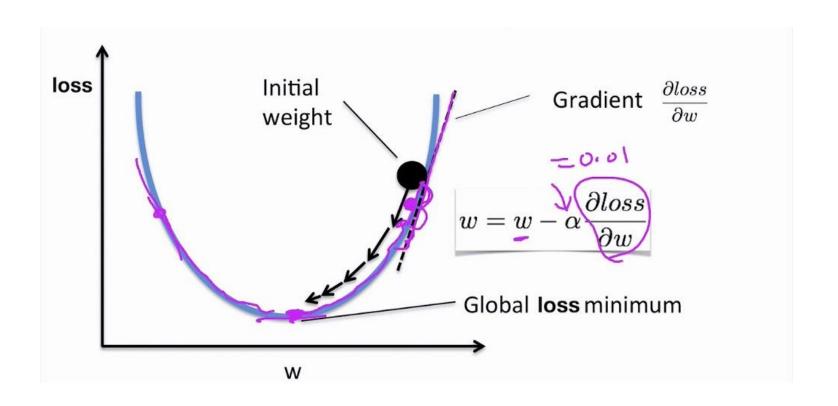


Gradient Descent





Gradient Descent



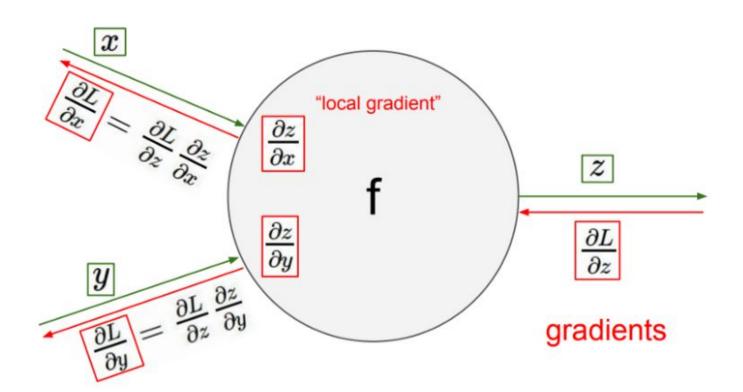
Gradient Descent

Algorithm

- 1. Initialize weights randomly $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- 2. Loop until convergence:
- 3. Compute gradient, $\frac{\partial J(W)}{\partial W}$
- 4. Update weights, $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
- 5. Return weights

```
1 import tensorflow as tf
2 weights = tf.Variable([tf.random.normal()])
3 while True: # loop forever
4    with tf.GradientTape() as g:
5        loss = compute_loss(weights)
6        gradient = g.gradient(loss, weights)
7    weights = weights - lr * gradient
```

Computing Gradients: Backpropagation



Optimization

Gradient Descent Algorithms

Algorithm

- SGD
- Adam
- Adadelta
- Adagrad
- RMSProp

TF Implementation

tf.optimizers.SGD()

tf.optimizers.Adam()

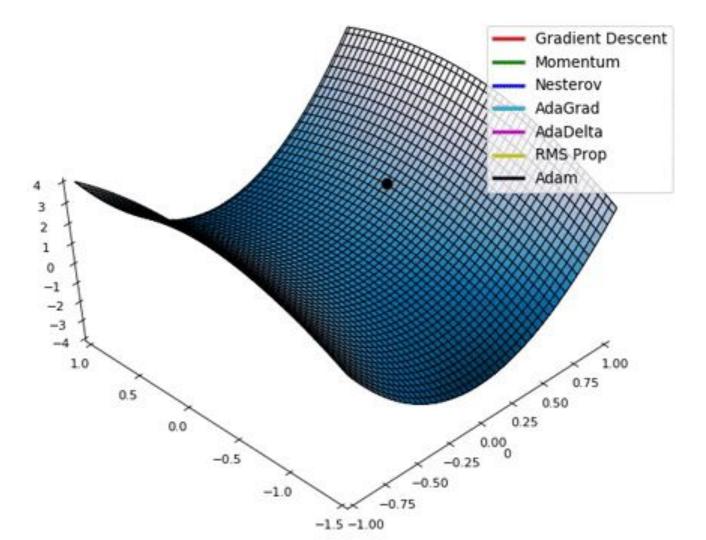
tf.optimizers.Adadelta()

tf.optimizers.Adagrad()

tf.optimizers.RMSprop()

Reference

Qian et al. "On the momentum term in gradient descent learning algorithms." 1999. Duchi et al. "Adaptive Subgradient Methods for Online Learning and Stochastic Optimization." 2011. Zeiler et al. "ADADELTA: An Adaptive Learning Rate Method." 2012. Kingma et al. "Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization." 2014.



Neural Networks in Practice: Mini-batches

Mini-batches while training

More accurate estimation of gradient

Smoother convergence
Allows for larger learning rates

Mini-batches while training

More accurate estimation of gradient

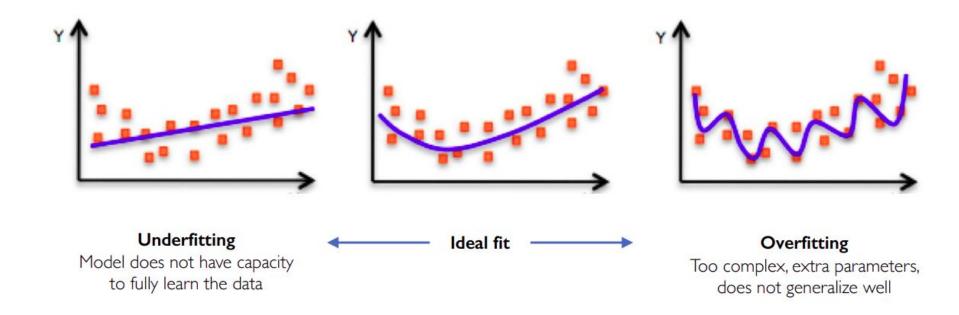
Smoother convergence Allows for larger learning rates

Mini-batches lead to fast training!

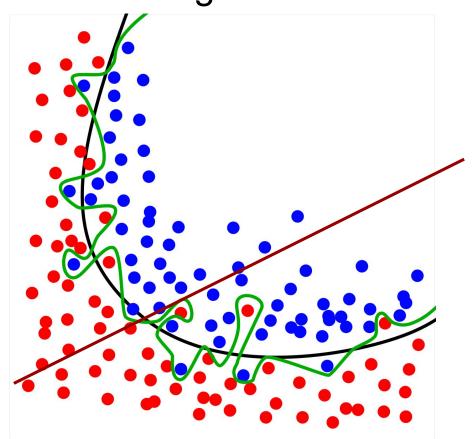
Can parallelize computation + achieve significant speed increases on GPU's

Neural Networks in Practice: Overfitting

The Problem of Overfitting



The Problem of Overfitting



Regularization

What is it?

Technique that constrains our optimization problem to discourage complex models

Regularization

What is it?

Technique that constrains our optimization problem to discourage complex models

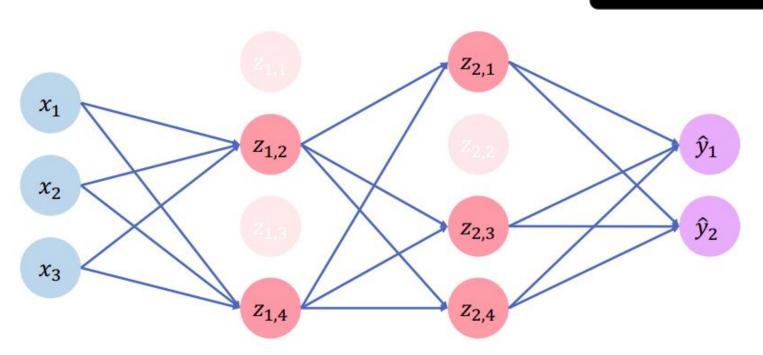
Why do we need it?

Improve generalization of our model on unseen data

Regularization 1: Dropout

During training, randomly set some activations to 0

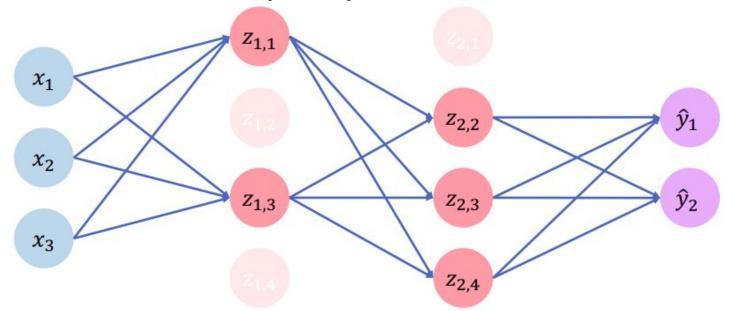
tf.keras.layers.Dropout()



Regularization 1: Dropout

- During training, randomly set some activations to 0
- Typically 'drop' 50% of activations in layer
- Forces network to not rely on any 1 node

tf.keras.layers.Dropout()



Regularization 2: Early Stopping

• Stop training before we have a chance to overfit

