

Appendix C. Special Data Structures

In this appendix we will take a very quick look at the data structures supported by TensorFlow, beyond regular float or integer tensors. This includes strings, ragged tensors, sparse tensors, tensor arrays, sets, and queues.

Strings

Tensors can hold byte strings, which is useful in particular for natural language processing (see <u>Chapter 16</u>):

```
>>> tf.constant(b"hello world")
<tf.Tensor: shape=(), dtype=string, numpy=b'hello world'>
```

If you try to build a tensor with a Unicode string, TensorFlow automatically encodes it to UTF-8:

```
>>> tf.constant("café")
<tf.Tensor: shape=(), dtype=string, numpy=b'caf\xc3\xa9'>
```

It is also possible to create tensors representing Unicode strings. Just create an array of 32-bit integers, each representing a single Unicode code point:¹

```
>>> u = tf.constant([ord(c) for c in "café"])
>>> u
<tf.Tensor: shape=(4,), [...], numpy=array([ 99,  97, 102, 233], dtype=int32)>
```

NOTE

In tensors of type <code>tf.string</code>, the string length is not part of the tensor's shape. In other words, strings are considered as atomic values. However, in a Unicode string tensor (i.e., an int32 tensor), the length of the string <code>is</code> part of the tensor's shape.

The tf.strings package contains several functions to manipulate string tensors, such as length() to count the number of bytes in a byte string (or the number of code points if you set unit="UTF8_CHAR"), unicode_encode() to convert a Unicode string tensor (i.e., int32 tensor) to a byte string tensor, and unicode_decode() to do the reverse:

```
>>> b = tf.strings.unicode_encode(u, "UTF-8")
>>> b
<tf.Tensor: shape=(), dtype=string, numpy=b'caf\xc3\xa9'>
>>> tf.strings.length(b, unit="UTF8_CHAR")
<tf.Tensor: shape=(), dtype=int32, numpy=4>
>>> tf.strings.unicode_decode(b, "UTF-8")
<tf.Tensor: shape=(4,), [...], numpy=array([ 99, 97, 102, 233], dtype=int32)>
```

You can also manipulate tensors containing multiple strings:

```
>>> p = tf.constant(["Café", "Coffee", "caffè", "咖啡"])
>>> tf.strings.length(p, unit="UTF8_CHAR")
<tf.Tensor: shape=(4,), dtype=int32, numpy=array([4, 6, 5, 2], dtype=int32)>
>>> r = tf.strings.unicode_decode(p, "UTF8")
>>> r
<tf.RaggedTensor [[67, 97, 102, 233], [67, 111, 102, 102, 101, 101], [99, 97, 102, 102, 232], [21654, 21857]]>
```

Notice that the decoded strings are stored in a $\mbox{RaggedTensor}$. What is that?

Ragged Tensors

A $ragged\ tensor$ is a special kind of tensor that represents a list of arrays of different sizes. More generally, it is a tensor with one or more $ragged\ dimensions$, meaning dimensions whose slices may have different lengths. In the ragged tensor r, the second dimension is a ragged dimension. In all ragged tensors, the first dimension is always a regular dimension (also called a $uniform\ dimension$).

All the elements of the ragged tensor r are regular tensors. For example, let's look at the second element of the ragged tensor:

```
>>> r[1]
<tf.Tensor: [...], numpy=array([ 67, 111, 102, 102, 101, 101], dtype=int32)>
```

The tf.ragged package contains several functions to create and manipulate ragged tensors. Let's create a second ragged tensor using tf.ragged.constant() and concatenate it with the first ragged tensor, along axis 0:

```
>>> r2 = tf.ragged.constant([[65, 66], [], [67]])
>>> tf.concat([r, r2], axis=0)
<tf.RaggedTensor [[67, 97, 102, 233], [67, 111, 102, 102, 101, 101], [99, 97, 102, 102, 232], [21654, 21857], [65, 66], [], [67]]>
```

The result is not too surprising: the tensors in r2 were appended after the tensors in r along axis 0. But what if we concatenate r and another ragged tensor along axis 1?

```
>>> r3 = tf.ragged.constant([[68, 69, 70], [71], [], [72, 73]])
>>> print(tf.concat([r, r3], axis=1))
<tf.RaggedTensor [[67, 97, 102, 233, 68, 69, 70], [67, 111, 102, 102, 101, 101,
71], [99, 97, 102, 102, 232], [21654, 21857, 72, 73]]>
```

This time, notice that the $i^{\rm th}$ tensor in r and the $i^{\rm th}$ tensor in r3 were concatenated. Now that's more unusual, since all of these tensors can

have different lengths.

If you call the to_tensor() method, the ragged tensor gets converted to a regular tensor, padding shorter tensors with zeros to get tensors of equal lengths (you can change the default value by setting the default_value argument):

```
>>> r.to_tensor()
<tf.Tensor: shape=(4, 6), dtype=int32, numpy=
array([[
         67,
               97,
                    102,
                          233,
                                       0],
                                 0,
         67,
                         102, 101,
     Γ
              111,
                    102,
                                     101],
                         102,
                    102,
         99, 97,
                               232,
                                      0],
     [21654, 21857, 0, 0,
                                 0, 0]], dtype=int32)>
```

Many TF operations support ragged tensors. For the full list, see the documentation of the tf.RaggedTensor class.

Sparse Tensors

TensorFlow can also efficiently represent *sparse tensors* (i.e., tensors containing mostly zeros). Just create a tf.SparseTensor, specifying the indices and values of the nonzero elements and the tensor's shape. The indices must be listed in "reading order" (from left to right, and top to bottom). If you are unsure, just use tf.sparse.reorder(). You can convert a sparse tensor to a dense tensor (i.e., a regular tensor) using tf.sparse.to_dense():

Note that sparse tensors do not support as many operations as dense tensors. For example, you can multiply a sparse tensor by any scalar value, and you get a new sparse tensor, but you cannot add a scalar value to a sparse tensor, as this would not return a sparse tensor:

```
>>> s * 42.0
<tensorflow.python.framework.sparse_tensor.SparseTensor at 0x7f84a6749f10>
>>> s + 42.0
[...] TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'SparseTensor' and 'float'
```

Tensor Arrays

A tf.TensorArray represents a list of tensors. This can be handy in dynamic models containing loops, to accumulate results and later compute some statistics. You can read or write tensors at any location in the array:

```
array = tf.TensorArray(dtype=tf.float32, size=3)
array = array.write(0, tf.constant([1., 2.]))
array = array.write(1, tf.constant([3., 10.]))
array = array.write(2, tf.constant([5., 7.]))
tensor1 = array.read(1) # => returns (and zeros out!) tf.constant([3., 10.])
```

By default, reading an item also replaces it with a tensor of the same shape but full of zeros. You can set clear_after_read to False if you don't want this.

WARNING

When you write to the array, you must assign the output back to the array, as shown in this code example. If you don't, although your code will work fine in eager mode, it will break in graph mode (these modes are discussed in <u>Chapter 12</u>).

By default, a TensorArray has a fixed size that is set upon creation. Alternatively, you can set size=0 and dynamic_size=True to let the array grow automatically when needed. However, this will hinder performance, so if you know the size in advance, it's better to use a fixed-size

array. You must also specify the dtype, and all elements must have the same shape as the first one written to the array.

You can stack all the items into a regular tensor by calling the stack() method:

Sets

TensorFlow supports sets of integers or strings (but not floats). It represents sets using regular tensors. For example, the set {1, 5, 9} is just represented as the tensor [[1, 5, 9]]. Note that the tensor must have at least two dimensions, and the sets must be in the last dimension. For example, [[1, 5, 9], [2, 5, 11]] is a tensor holding two independent sets: {1, 5, 9} and {2, 5, 11}.

The tf.sets package contains several functions to manipulate sets. For example, let's create two sets and compute their union (the result is a sparse tensor, so we call to_dense() to display it):

```
>>> a = tf.constant([[1, 5, 9]])
>>> b = tf.constant([[5, 6, 9, 11]])
>>> u = tf.sets.union(a, b)
>>> u
<tensorflow.python.framework.sparse_tensor.SparseTensor at 0x132b60d30>
>>> tf.sparse.to_dense(u)
<tf.Tensor: [...], numpy=array([[ 1, 5, 6, 9, 11]], dtype=int32)>
```

You can also compute the union of multiple pairs of sets simultaneously. If some sets are shorter than others, you must pad them with a padding value, such as 0:

If you prefer to use a different padding value, such as -1, then you must set default_value=-1 (or your preferred value) when calling to_dense().

WARNING

The default default_value is 0, so when dealing with string sets, you must set this parameter (e.g., to an empty string).

Other functions available in tf.sets include difference(), intersection(), and size(), which are self-explanatory. If you want to check whether or not a set contains some given values, you can compute the intersection of that set and the values. If you want to add some values to a set, you can compute the union of the set and the values.

Queues

A queue is a data structure to which you can push data records, and later pull them out. TensorFlow implements several types of queues in the tf.queue package. They used to be very important when implementing efficient data loading and preprocessing pipelines, but the tf.data API has essentially rendered them useless (except perhaps in some rare cases) because it is much simpler to use and provides all the tools you need to build efficient pipelines. For the sake of completeness, though, let's take a quick look at them.

The simplest kind of queue is the first-in, first-out (FIFO) queue. To build it, you need to specify the maximum number of records it can contain. Moreover, each record is a tuple of tensors, so you must specify the type

of each tensor, and optionally their shapes. For example, the following code example creates a FIFO queue with a maximum of three records, each containing a tuple with a 32-bit integer and a string. Then it pushes two records to it, looks at the size (which is 2 at this point), and pulls a record out:

It is also possible to enqueue and dequeue multiple records at once using enqueue_many() and dequeue_many() (to use dequeue_many(), you must specify the shapes argument when you create the queue, as we did previously):

```
>>> q.enqueue_many([[13, 16], [b'cloudy', b'rainy']])
>>> q.dequeue_many(3)
[<tf.Tensor: [...], numpy=array([15, 13, 16], dtype=int32)>,
    <tf.Tensor: [...], numpy=array([b'sunny', b'cloudy', b'rainy'], dtype=object)>]
```

Other queue types include:

PaddingFIFOQueue

Same as FIFOQueue, but its dequeue_many() method supports dequeueing multiple records of different shapes. It automatically pads the shortest records to ensure all the records in the batch have the same shape.

PriorityQueue

A queue that dequeues records in a prioritized order. The priority must be a 64-bit integer included as the first element of each record. Surprisingly, records with a lower priority will be dequeued first. Records with the same priority will be dequeued in FIFO order.

RandomShuffLeQueue

A queue whose records are dequeued in random order. This was useful to implement a shuffle buffer before tf.data existed.

If a queue is already full and you try to enqueue another record, the enqueue*() method will freeze until a record is dequeued by another thread. Similarly, if a queue is empty and you try to dequeue a record, the dequeue*() method will freeze until records are pushed to the queue by another thread.

1 If you are not familiar with Unicode code points, please check out https://homl.info/unicode.