Deep Learning Concepts :

Syllabus :

1. Introduction to Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)

- Overview of Artificial Neural Networks
- Significance of ANN in Artificial Intelligence (AI)

2. Introduction to Perceptron

- Overview of the Perceptron Model
- Importance of Perceptron in ANN

3. Structure of ANN

- Neurons: Basic Units of ANN
- Layers in ANN
  - Input Layer
  - Hidden Layers
  - Output Layer

4. Working of Perceptron with Weights and Bias

- Role of Weights and Bias in Perceptron
- Prediction Mechanism

5. Forward Propagation

- Overview of Forward Propagation
- Transformation of Inputs to Outputs

6. Backward Propagation and Weight Update Formula

- Explanation of Backpropagation
- Formulas for Weight Update

7. Chain Rule of Derivatives

- Application of the Chain Rule in Backpropagation
- Gradient Calculation

8. Vanishing Gradient Problem

- Overview of the Vanishing Gradient Problem
- Impact on Training Deep Neural Networks

9. Activation Functions in ANN

- Introduction to Activation Functions
  - Sigmoid
  - ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)
  - Tanh
  - Softmax

10. Training of ANN

- Overview of ANN Training Process
- Backpropagation
- Loss Functions
  - Mean Squared Error (MSE)
  - Cross-Entropy Loss

11. Different Types of Loss Functions

- Explanation of Common Loss Functions
  - Mean Squared Error (MSE)
  - Cross-Entropy Loss

12. Different Types of Optimizers

- Introduction to Optimization Algorithms
  - Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)
  - Adam
  - RMSprop

14. Types of Neural Networks

- Overview of Various Neural Network Architectures
  - Feedforward Neural Networks (FNN)
  - Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)
    - Introduction to RNN
    - Structure and Working of RNN
    - Applications of RNN
  - Long Short-Term Memory Networks (LSTM)
    - Introduction to LSTM
    - Structure and Working of LSTM
    - LSTM Gates (Input, Forget, Output)
    - Applications of LSTM
  - Gated Recurrent Units (GRU)
    - Introduction to GRU

        - Structure and Working of GRU
        - Comparison with LSTM
        - Applications of GRU

17. Transformers

- Introduction to Transformers
- Structure of Transformers
    - Encoder-Decoder Architecture
    - Self-Attention Mechanism
    - Positional Encoding
- Applications of Transformers
    - Language Translation
    - Text Summarization

Major Advantages of Using Neural Networks

1. **Automatic Feature Extraction:** Neural networks can automatically learn and extract features from raw data, reducing or eliminating the need for manual feature engineering.
2. **Handling Non-Linear Relationships:** Neural networks are capable of modeling complex, non-linear relationships between inputs and outputs, which traditional linear algorithms cannot capture.

3. **Versatility Across Tasks**: They are highly adaptable and can be applied to a wide range of tasks, including classification, regression, image recognition, natural language processing, and more.
4. **Scalability with Data**: Neural networks perform better with more data, as they can scale effectively and improve accuracy with increasing data size.
5. **Robust Performance on Unstructured Data**: They excel in processing unstructured data types, such as images, audio, and text, where traditional algorithms struggle.

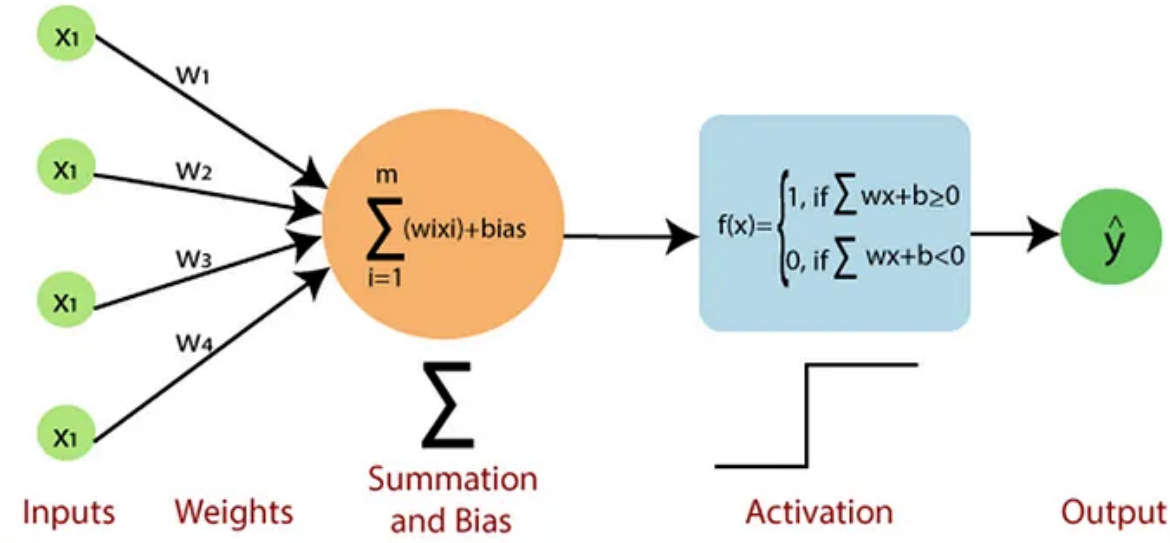
Artificial Neural Networks: From Perceptron to Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

1. Introduction to Perceptron

A perceptron is the simplest type of artificial neural network (ANN). It's a linear classifier, which means it makes its decisions by drawing a **straight line** (or hyperplane) to separate the data into two classes.

1.1. Structure of a Perceptron

- **Input Layer:** The perceptron receives inputs in the form of feature values. Each input is associated with a weight that indicates its importance.
- **Weights and Bias:** Weights are applied to the inputs, and a bias term is added to the weighted sum to shift the decision boundary.
- **Activation Function:** The weighted sum of inputs (plus the bias) is passed through an activation function to produce the output



Unpacking the Perceptron’s Blueprint

1. **What is a perceptron**

Fundamentally, A perceptron is a simple type of neural network that has only one neuron. This neuron processes incoming data, generating an output based on a predefined set of parameters.

2. Weighted Sum and Activation Function

The neuron’s duties encompass two primary functions: computing the weighted sum of inputs and employing an activation function. The weighted sum, a linear combination, results from multiplying each input by its corresponding weight, summing these products, and introducing a bias term:

$$z = \sum x_i \cdot w_i + b \text{ (bias)}$$

Decoding the Learning Ritual of Perceptron

1. Feedforward Process: The neuron calculates the weighted sum and applies the activation function to make a prediction

$$\hat{y} = \text{activation}(\sum x_i \cdot w_i + b)$$

1. Error Calculation: The output prediction is compared with the correct label to calculate the error

$$\text{error} = y - \hat{y}$$

1. Weight Update: The weights are adjusted based on the error. If the prediction is too high, the weights are modified to make a lower prediction next time, and vice versa.
2. Repeat: Steps 1–3 are repeated iteratively, and the neuron continues updating weights to improve predictions until the error is close to zero.

Limitations of Perceptron vs. Advantages of MLP

1.

Perceptron Limitation: Only Linearly Separable Data

-

MLP Advantage: Handles Non-Linear Relationships

▪ MLP can learn complex, non-linear functions, making it suitable for a wider range of problems.

2.

Perceptron Limitation: Single Layer

-

MLP Advantage: Multiple Layers for Feature Extraction

▪ MLP uses multiple layers to extract complex features at different levels of abstraction.

3.

Perceptron Limitation: Limited Capacity

-

MLP Advantage: Adjustable Model Complexity

▪ MLP allows for more neurons and layers, increasing the model's capacity to fit complex data.

4.

Perceptron Limitation: Prone to Underfitting

-

MLP Advantage: Better Fit for Complex Data

▪ MLP can fit more complex data, reducing the risk of underfitting compared to a single-layer perceptron.

5.

Perceptron Limitation:No or one Hidden Layers

-

MLP Advantage: Hidden Layers for Better Representation

Differences Between Perceptron and Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP)

1. Architecture

- **Perceptron:**
  - Composed of a single layer of neurons.

    - Only includes an input layer and an output layer.
    - Lacks hidden layers.
- **MLP:**
    - Composed of multiple layers of neurons.
    - Includes an input layer, one or more hidden layers, and an output layer.
    - Hidden layers enable learning complex patterns.

2. Functionality

- **Perceptron:**
    - Can only solve linearly separable problems.
    - Limited to linear decision boundaries.
- **MLP:**
    - Can solve both linear and non-linear problems.
    - Capable of learning non-linear decision boundaries due to hidden layers and non-linear activation functions.

3. Learning Capability

- **Perceptron:**
    - Limited learning capability due to the absence of hidden layers.
    - Struggles with complex, multi-dimensional data.
- **MLP:**
    - Enhanced learning capability with the ability to learn complex and hierarchical features.
    - Suitable for complex tasks such as image and speech recognition.

4. Activation Functions

- **Perceptron:**
    - Typically uses a step function (threshold-based) as the activation function.

- Outputs binary values (0 or 1).

- **MLP:**
  - Utilizes non-linear activation functions like ReLU, Sigmoid, or Tanh.
  - Outputs can be continuous or categorical, depending on the application.

5. Training Algorithm

- **Perceptron:**
  - Uses the Perceptron learning algorithm (a variant of gradient descent).
  - Updates weights only when the prediction is incorrect.
- **MLP:**
  - Uses backpropagation along with gradient descent or its variants for training.
  - Updates weights iteratively across all layers, minimizing a loss function.

6. Complexity

- **Perceptron:**
  - Simple and computationally efficient due to its single-layer structure.
  - Easier to implement and train but limited in scope.
- **MLP:**
  - More complex and computationally intensive due to multiple layers.
  - Requires more computational resources and time to train but can model complex relationships.

7. Overfitting

- **Perceptron:**
  - Less prone to overfitting due to its simplicity, but this also limits its performance.
- **MLP:**

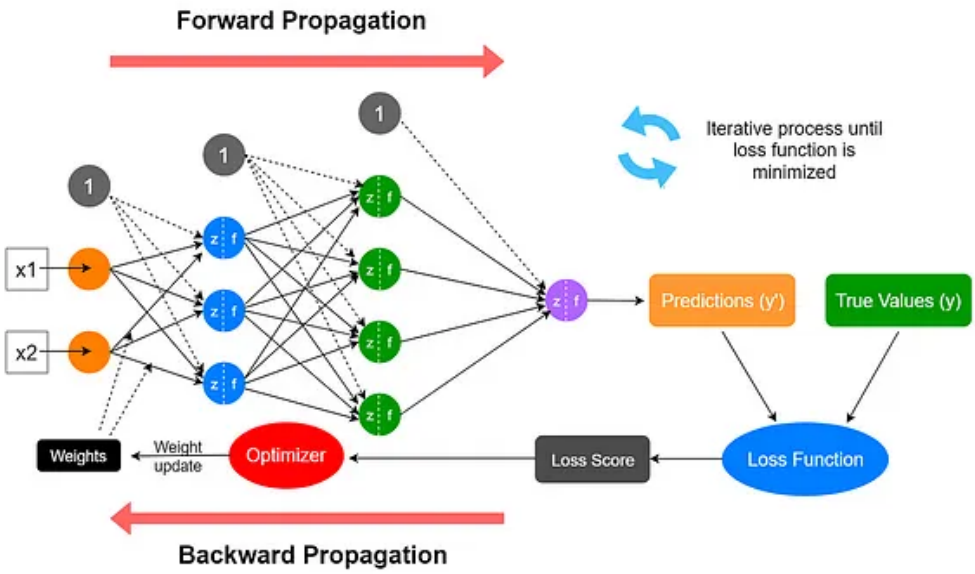
- More prone to overfitting due to increased model complexity.
- Regularization techniques like dropout are often used to mitigate overfitting.

8. Applications

- **Perceptron:**
  - Used for simple binary classification tasks.
  - Not suitable for complex problems.
- **MLP:**
  - Used in a wide range of applications, including image classification, speech recognition, and natural language processing.
  - Suitable for both classification and regression tasks.

2.5. Key Concepts in MLP

- **Forward Propagation:** The process of moving the input data through the network to generate an output.
- **Backward Propagation:** The process of moving the error backward through the network to update the weights.
- **Learning Rate:** A hyperparameter that controls how much to change the model in response to the estimated error each time the model weights are updated.
- **Epochs:** Number of times the learning algorithm works through the entire training dataset.



1. Forward Propagation

Overview

Forward propagation is the process of moving input data through the network to obtain an output. It involves calculating the weighted sum of inputs, applying an activation function, and generating the final output.

Components

- **Input Layer**: Receives the input features.
- **Weights**: Parameters that adjust the influence of each input feature.
- **Bias**: A constant added to the weighted sum to adjust the output.
- **Activation Function**: A function applied to introduce non-linearity to the model.

Working Mechanism

2. Backward Propagation

Overview

Backward propagation is the process of updating the weights and biases based on the error in the predictions. It involves computing the gradient of the loss function concerning each parameter and adjusting the parameters to minimize the error.

Components

- **Loss Function**: Measures the difference between predicted and actual outputs (e.g., Mean Squared Error, Cross-Entropy).
- **Gradient Descent**: An optimization algorithm used to update weights by minimizing the loss function.

Steps to avoid Vanishing Gradient Descent Problem:

Use Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) Activation Function:

- Replace traditional activation functions like sigmoid or hyperbolic tangent (tanh) with ReLU. ReLU has become popular because it doesn't saturate for positive inputs and allows gradients to flow more freely, preventing the vanishing gradient problem.

Weight Initialization:

- Use appropriate weight initialization methods, such as He initialization (for ReLU) or Xavier (Glorot) initialization, to provide a suitable initial range for weights. Proper weight initialization can help in mitigating vanishing gradients.

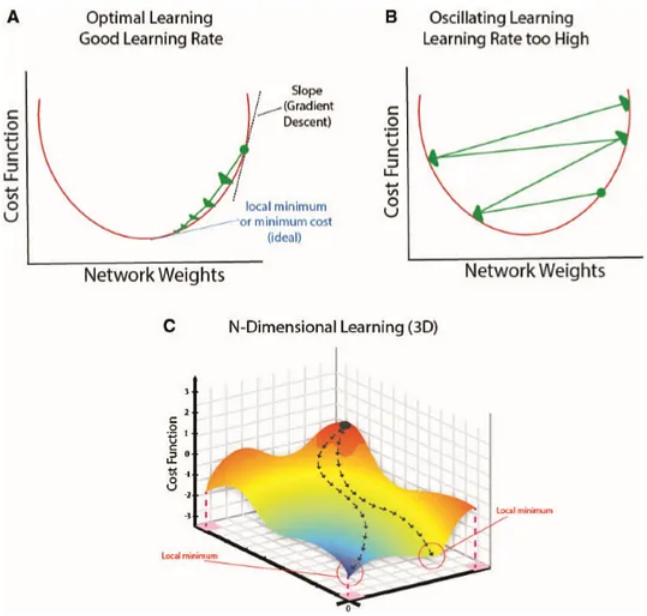
Batch Normalization:

- Implement batch normalization in your network architecture. Batch normalization normalizes the inputs to each layer during training, making the optimization process more stable and reducing the vanishing gradient problem.

Gradient-Based Regularization:

- Employ regularization techniques such as L1 or L2 regularization to encourage weight values to stay within reasonable bounds. Regularization can indirectly mitigate the vanishing gradient problem by preventing weights from becoming too small or too large.

Gradient :



What is a Gradient ?

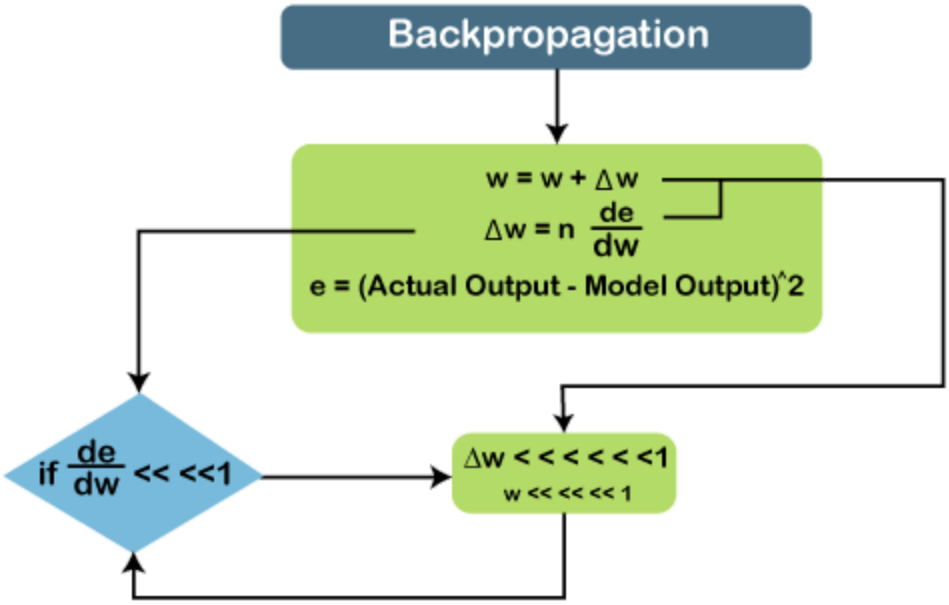
The Gradient refers to the gradient of loss function with respect to the weights. We calculate the Gradient during the back propagation in Recurrent Neural Networks. These Gradients are used to update the weights, to minimize the loss function.

With the back propagation we may come across two issues mainly:

- Vanishing Gradient
- Exploding Gradient

Vanishing Gradient :

Vanishing Gradient occurs when the gradient becomes very small.



Vanishing gradient problem is common while training the deep neural networks. Adding more hidden layers make the network able to learn the more complex functions and does a better job in predicting future outcomes. But during the back propagation and calculating the gradients, it tends to get smaller and smaller as as we keep on moving backward in the network. This causes the neurons in the earlier layers learn very slowly as compared to the neurons in the later layers. The gradients will be very small for the earlier layers, means there is no major difference between the new weight and old weight. This leads to vanishing gradient problem.

Exploding Gradient :

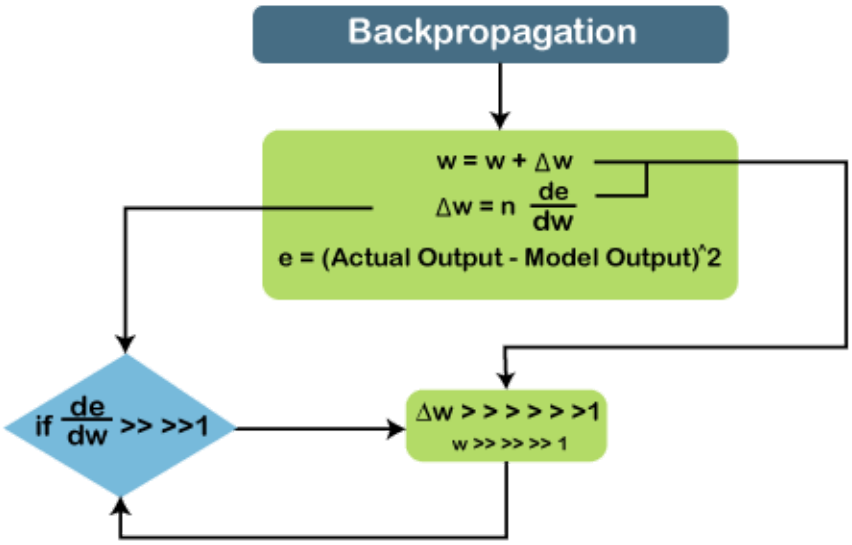
The root cause of this problem lies in the weights of the network, rather than the choice of activation function. High weight values lead to correspondingly high derivatives, causing significant deviations in new weight values from the previous ones. As a result, the gradient fails to converge and can lead to the network oscillating around local minima, making it challenging to reach the global minimum point.

The exploding gradient problem occurs when the gradients become very large during backpropagation. This is often the result of gradients greater than 1, leading to a rapid increase in values as you propagate them backward through the layers.

How can we identify the problem?

- The loss function exhibits erratic behavior, oscillating wildly instead of steadily decreasing suggesting that the network weights are being updated excessively by large gradients, preventing smooth convergence.
- The training process encounters “NaN” (Not a Number) values in the loss function or other intermediate calculations..
- If network weights, during training exhibit significant and rapid increases in their values, it suggests the presence of exploding gradients.

Exploding Gradient occurs when the gradient becomes very large.

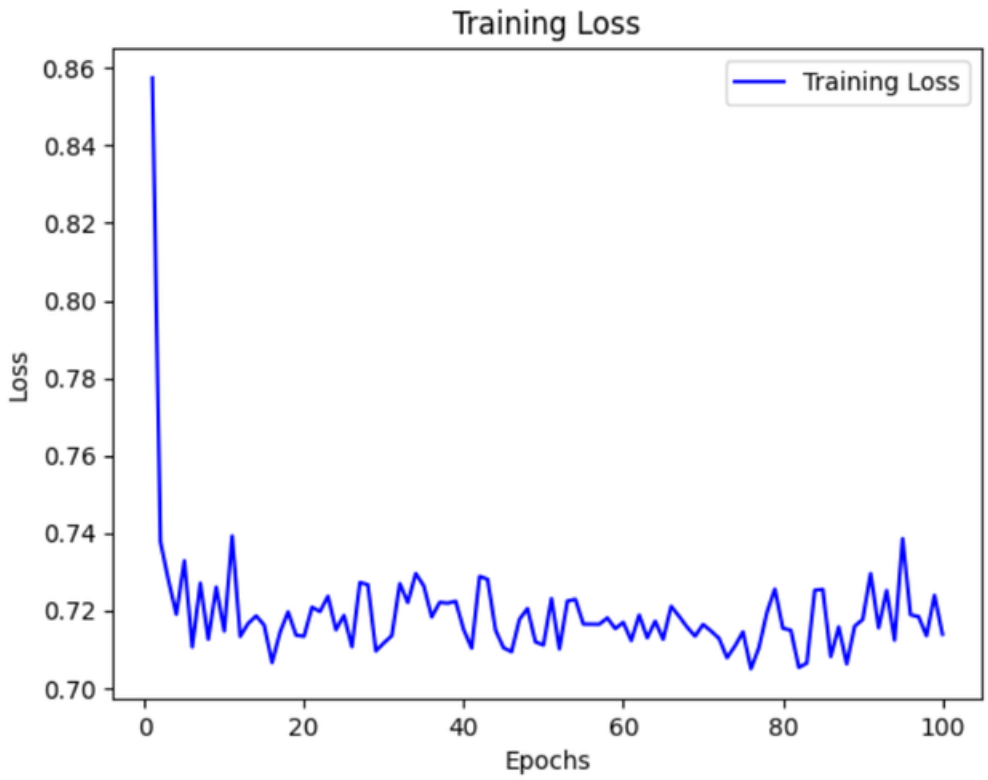


If the gradient becomes large, the model becomes unstable and model unable to learn from the training data. Exploding gradient problem can be identified if there is large changes in the loss from update to update. If the model loss goes to NaN during the training is an indication of exploding gradient problem.

Exploding gradient problem is due to large weights.

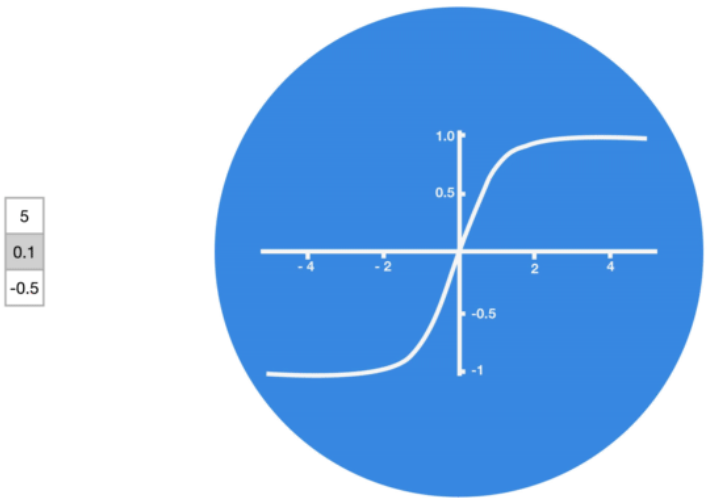
Exploding Gradient Problem can be address by :

1. By using the Long Short-Term Memory(LSTM) networks
2. Using the Gradient Clipping (by setting threshold)
3. Using the Weight Regularization
4. Re-design the model with fewer layers



- **Gradient Clipping**: It sets a maximum threshold for the magnitude of gradients during backpropagation. Any gradient exceeding the threshold is clipped to the threshold value, preventing it from growing unbounded.
- **Batch Normalization:** This technique normalizes the activations within each mini-batch, effectively scaling the gradients and reducing their variance. This helps prevent both vanishing and exploding gradients, improving stability and efficiency.

Activation functions:



what is an Activation Function?

An **activation function** is a **function** that is added to an **artificial neural network** in order to help the network learn **complex patterns** **in the data**. When comparing with a neuron-based model that is in our brains, the **activation function** is at the end deciding what is to be fired to the next neuron.

> In artificial neural networks, the activation function of a node defines the output of that node given an input or set of inputs. A standard integrated circuit can be seen as a digital network of activation functions that can be “ON” (1) or “OFF” (0), depending on input. — Wikipedia

Key Characteristics of an Ideal Activation Function:

1. **Non-Linearity**: The activation function should be **non-linear** to help the model capture complex relationships in the data.
2. **Differentiability**: It should be **differentiable** everywhere so gradients can be computed during backpropagation.
3. **Zero-Centered Output**: The output should ideally be **zero-centered** (like Tanh or ReLU), which allows for faster convergence by making weight updates more efficient.

4. **Avoid Vanishing Gradient:** The function should **avoid vanishing gradients**, as this can prevent the model from learning, especially in deep networks (e.g., ReLU).
5. **Computationally Efficient:** The function should be **computationally inexpensive** to speed up training (ReLU is faster than sigmoid).
6. **Smooth Gradient:** A **smooth gradient** allows for stable learning and prevents sudden jumps in weight updates (Swish, Tanh, and sigmoid).
7. **Bounded Output:** Sometimes, **bounded output** (e.g., sigmoid, Tanh) is useful to prevent exploding activations, especially in classification tasks.
8. **No Saturation:** The function should avoid **saturation** (where the gradient becomes very small), which can slow down or stop learning (ReLU and Swish handle this better than sigmoid and Tanh).

When Bounded Output is Good:

1. **Prevents Exploding Outputs**: Bounded activation functions (like sigmoid and tanh) restrict output values within a certain range, preventing extremely large values and helping to avoid **exploding gradients** in the network.
2. **Probability Interpretation**: Functions like **sigmoid** and **softmax** produce bounded outputs, making them ideal for tasks like **binary or multi-class classification**, where the outputs need to represent probabilities between 0 and 1.
3. **Normalized Output**: Bounded functions help **normalize the outputs**, making them more stable for learning and ensuring that the activations don't grow uncontrollably.

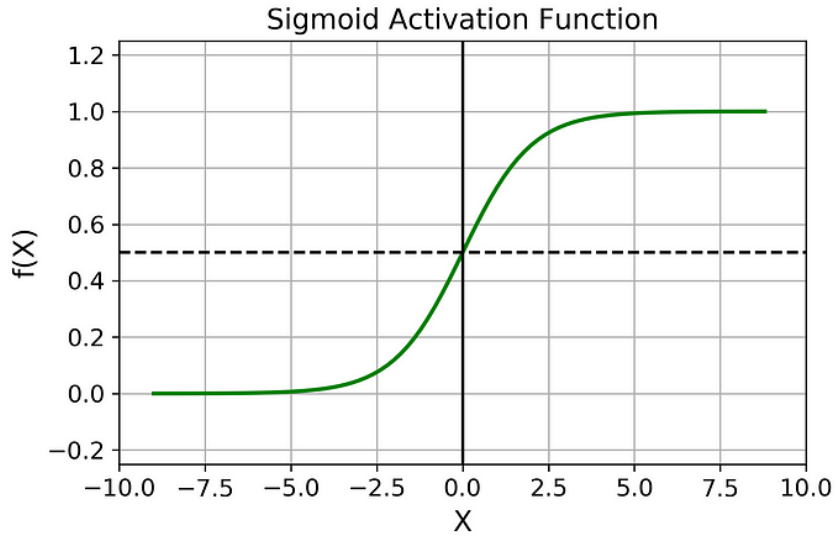
When Bounded Output is Not Ideal:

1. **Vanishing Gradient**: Bounded functions like sigmoid and tanh can suffer from **vanishing gradient problems**, especially in deep networks, where the gradients become too small to effectively update weights.
2. **Limited Range of Activation**: Bounded functions restrict output values to a fixed range, which can **limit the representational power** of the network for

more complex relationships.

3. **Non-Zero-Centered Output**: In some bounded functions (e.g., sigmoid), the output is not centered around zero, which can slow down learning as weight updates become less efficient.

1. Sigmoid Activation Function -



Advantages of Sigmoid Activation Function:

1.

Bounded Output: Outputs range between 0 and 1, making it ideal for **probability predictions**.

2.

Non-linearity: Captures **non-linear relationships** in data.

3.

Differentiable: Slope can be calculated anywhere on the curve, aiding **gradient-**

based learning.

4.

Smooth Gradient: Prevents sharp changes in output, ensuring **stable learning**.

5.

Clear Predictions: Output close to **0 or 1** helps in binary classification.

Disadvantages of Sigmoid Activation Function:

1.

Vanishing Gradient: At extreme values, the gradient becomes **very small**, hindering learning in deep networks.

2.

Non-zero Centered: Output is **not centered around 0**, leading to inefficient weight updates.

3.

Computationally Slow: Involves **exponential operations**, making it slower than some other activations (ReLU).

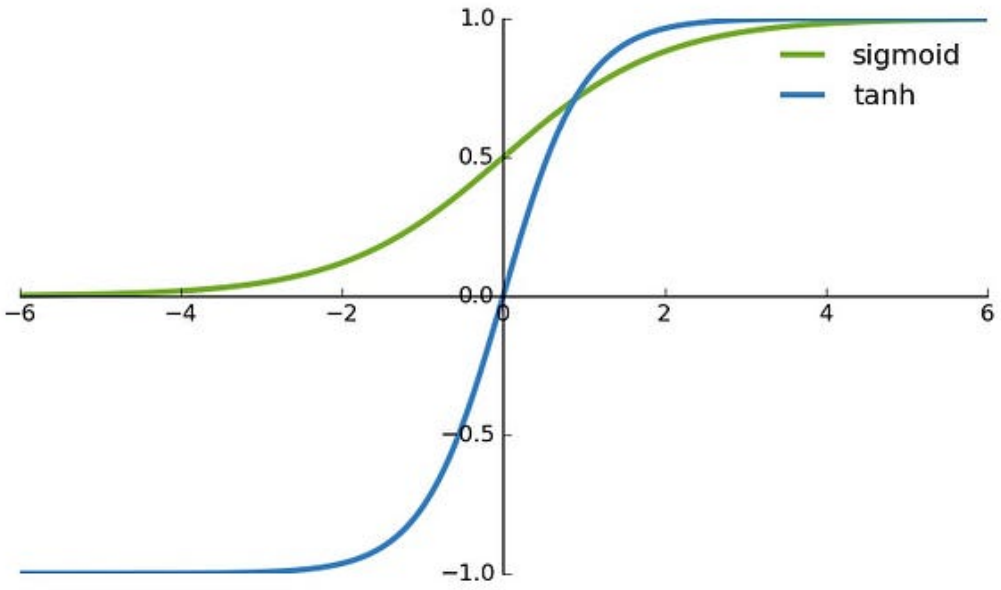
2. Tanh or Hyperbolic Tangent Activation Function -

The tanh activation function is also **sort of sigmoidal (S-shaped).**

$$Tanh$$

$$f(x) = \frac{\left(e^{x} - e^{-x}\right)}{\left(e^{x} + e^{-x}\right)}$$

Why is tanh **better compared** to sigmoid activation function?



Advantages of Tanh Activation Function:

1. **Bounded Output**: Tanh outputs values between **1 and 1**, making it useful when **negative values** are needed in the model.
2. **Non-Linearity**: It introduces **non-linearity**, allowing the model to capture **complex relationships** in the data.
3. **Zero-Centered**: The output is centered around zero, which leads to **faster convergence** by improving the efficiency of weight updates compared to sigmoid.
4. **Differentiable**: Tanh is smooth and **differentiable**, which helps in the **easy computation of gradients** during backpropagation.
5. **Stronger Gradient**: The gradient of tanh is stronger than that of sigmoid in many cases, helping to **reduce vanishing gradient issues** in shallower networks.

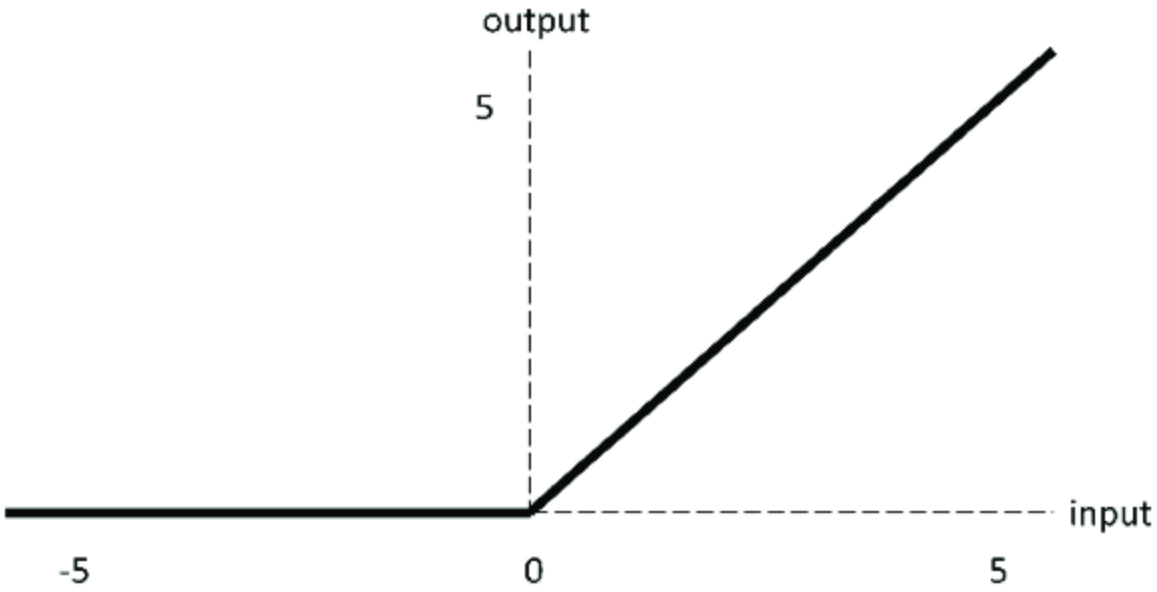
Disadvantages of Tanh Activation Function:

1. **Vanishing Gradient**: Similar to sigmoid, at extreme values (near -1 or 1), the gradient becomes very small, leading to the **vanishing gradient problem**, especially in **deep networks**.
2. **Slower Computation**: Tanh involves **exponential operations**, making it slower compared to other functions like ReLU, especially for large models.
3. **Not Ideal for Deep Networks**: Although better than sigmoid, deep networks may still suffer from **slow learning** due to vanishing gradients, making ReLU and its variants more efficient for deep models.

When and Why to Use Tanh:

1. **Range (-1 to 1)**: Tanh is preferred when the model needs to output both **negative and positive values**, unlike sigmoid, which only produces outputs in the [0, 1] range.
2. **Zero-Centered Output**: The zero-centered output helps the model train **faster** than sigmoid, making tanh useful when **quicker convergence** is required.

3. ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) Activation Function-



The ReLU is half rectified (from the bottom). f(z) is zero when z is less than zero and f(z) is equal to z when z is above or equal to zero.

$$\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} max(0, x) & , x >= 0 \\ 0 & , x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Range: [0 to infinity)

Advantages of ReLU Activation Function:

1. **Non-Linearity**: Introduces non-linearity, allowing the model to capture **complex patterns** in the data.
2. **Efficient Computation**: Simple and computationally **fast** (just max(0, x)), making it ideal for **large-scale models**.
3. **No Vanishing Gradient**: Unlike sigmoid and tanh, ReLU **avoids the vanishing gradient problem** in most cases, leading to faster learning.

4. **Sparsity**: Produces **sparse activations** (outputs zero for negative inputs), improving efficiency and handling overfitting better.

Disadvantages of ReLU Activation Function:

1. **Dead Neurons**: ReLU can lead to **dead neurons** (outputs always zero) if weights update in such a way that neurons never activate again.
2. **Unbounded Output**: The output is **not bounded**, which can cause exploding gradients in deep networks.
3. **Not Differentiable at Zero**: ReLU is not differentiable at 0, though this rarely impacts learning significantly.

When to Use ReLU:

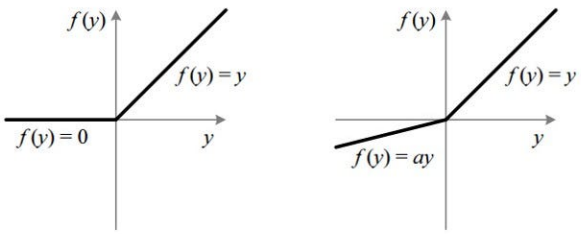
- **Deep Neural Networks**: ReLU is commonly used in **deep models** because it is computationally efficient and helps avoid vanishing gradients.
- **Sparse Representations**: If **sparsity** is needed (i.e., fewer neurons active), ReLU is a good choice.

Special Issues with ReLU:

- **Dead ReLU Problem**: Neurons may get stuck and never activate again, which can limit model performance. Variants like **Leaky ReLU** and **Parametric ReLU** help mitigate this issue.

4. Leaky ReLU Activation Function-

An activation function **specifically designed to compensate** for the dying ReLU problem.



Advantages:

- **Prevents Dead Neurons**: Allows a small gradient when x<0, avoiding dead neurons.

  x<0x < 0

- **Non-Linearity**: Maintains the benefits of non-linearity and efficient computation.
- **Avoids Vanishing Gradient**: Helps avoid vanishing gradients.

Disadvantages:

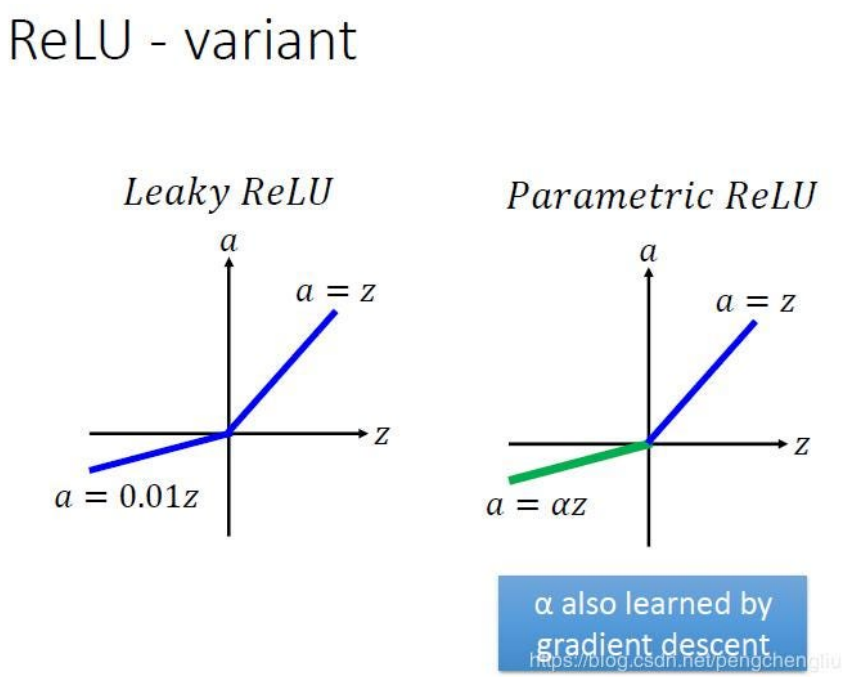
- **Unbounded Output**: Like ReLU, still has unbounded positive output, which can lead to exploding gradients.
- **Fixed Negative Slope**: The negative slope α is fixed and might not be optimal for all problems.

ReLU vs Leaky ReLU

Why Leaky ReLU is **better** than ReLU?

$$f(y_i) = \begin{cases} y_i, & \text{if } y_i > 0 \\ a_i y_i, & \text{if } y_i \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

PRelu (Parametric ReLU)-



Advantages:

- **Learnable Slope**: The negative slope α is learned during training, which can adapt to different problems.

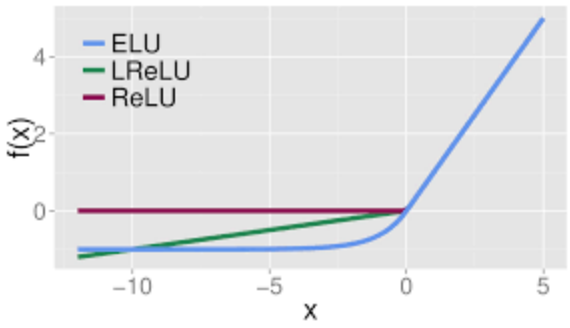
  α\alpha

- **Prevents Dead Neurons**: Avoids the dead neuron problem similar to Leaky ReLU.
- **Non-Linearity**: Continues to offer non-linearity and efficiency.

Disadvantages:

- **Increased Complexity**: More parameters to learn, which can increase training time and model complexity.
- **Unbounded Output**: Still has the potential for exploding gradients in deep networks.

5. ELU (Exponential Linear Units) function-



ELU vs Leaky ReLU vs ReLU

ELU is also **proposed to solve the problems** of ReLU. In contrast to ReLUs, ELUs have **negative values** which pushes the **mean of the activations** closer to **zero.** Mean activations that are closer to zero **enable faster learning** as they bring the **gradient closer to the natural gradient.**

$$g(x) = \mathrm{ELU}(x) = \begin{cases} x, & x > 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1), & x \leqslant 0 \end{cases}$$

Advantages:

- **Smooth Output**: Provides a smooth curve for negative inputs, which can help stabilize learning.
- **Avoids Dead Neurons**: Avoids the dead neuron problem and provides non-zero output for negative inputs.
- **Gradient Avoidance**: Helps mitigate both vanishing and exploding gradient problems.

Disadvantages:

- **Computationally Expensive**: Involves exponential operations, making it slower than ReLU.
- **Tuning Required**: The parameter α needs to be tuned and can add to model complexity.

  α\alpha

ReLu Variants Summary :

Variants of ReLU and Their Issues:

1. ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)

Advantages:

- **Non-Linearity**: Introduces non-linearity, helping the model learn complex patterns.
- **Efficient Computation**: Fast to compute (max(0, x)).
- **Avoids Vanishing Gradient**: Helps mitigate the vanishing gradient problem.

Disadvantages:

- **Dead Neurons**: Can lead to neurons that output zero for all inputs (dead neurons), limiting learning.
- **Unbounded Output**: May cause exploding gradients in deep networks.

---

2. Leaky ReLU

Advantages:

- **Prevents Dead Neurons**: Allows a small gradient when x<0, avoiding dead neurons.

  x<0x < 0

- **Non-Linearity**: Maintains the benefits of non-linearity and efficient computation.
- **Avoids Vanishing Gradient**: Helps avoid vanishing gradients.

Disadvantages:

- **Unbounded Output**: Like ReLU, still has unbounded positive output, which can lead to exploding gradients.
- **Fixed Negative Slope**: The negative slope α is fixed and might not be optimal for all problems.

α\alpha

---

3. Parametric ReLU (PReLU)

Advantages:

- **Learnable Slope**: The negative slope α is learned during training, which can adapt to different problems.

  α\alpha

- **Prevents Dead Neurons**: Avoids the dead neuron problem similar to Leaky ReLU.
- **Non-Linearity**: Continues to offer non-linearity and efficiency.

Disadvantages:

- **Increased Complexity**: More parameters to learn, which can increase training time and model complexity.
- **Unbounded Output**: Still has the potential for exploding gradients in deep networks.

---

4. Exponential Linear Unit (ELU)

Advantages:

- **Smooth Output**: Provides a smooth curve for negative inputs, which can help stabilize learning.
- **Avoids Dead Neurons**: Avoids the dead neuron problem and provides non-zero output for negative inputs.
- **Gradient Avoidance**: Helps mitigate both vanishing and exploding gradient problems.

Disadvantages:

- **Computationally Expensive**: Involves exponential operations, making it slower than ReLU.

- **Tuning Required**: The parameter α needs to be tuned and can add to model complexity.

7. Softmax :

What is Softmax?

Softmax is a mathematical function used to convert a set of input values (which can be any real numbers) into probabilities. It transforms the inputs into values between 0 and 1, and the sum of these values is always 1. This makes softmax useful for classification tasks, especially when you want to interpret outputs as probabilities.

How Does Softmax Work?

1. **Convert Inputs to Positive Numbers**:
    - The softmax function first applies the exponential function to each input, ensuring all values become positive.
2. **Normalize the Outputs**:
    - Then, each exponentiated value is divided by the sum of all the exponentiated values, which ensures the outputs sum to 1. This step normalizes the values into probabilities.

Example:

For inputs [5, 4, -1]:

- The softmax function converts these into [0.730, 0.268, 0.002], which are probabilities summing up to 1.

When to Use Softmax?

Softmax is typically used in the **final layer of a classification model**, especially when you want to interpret the model's output as a probability distribution. For example:

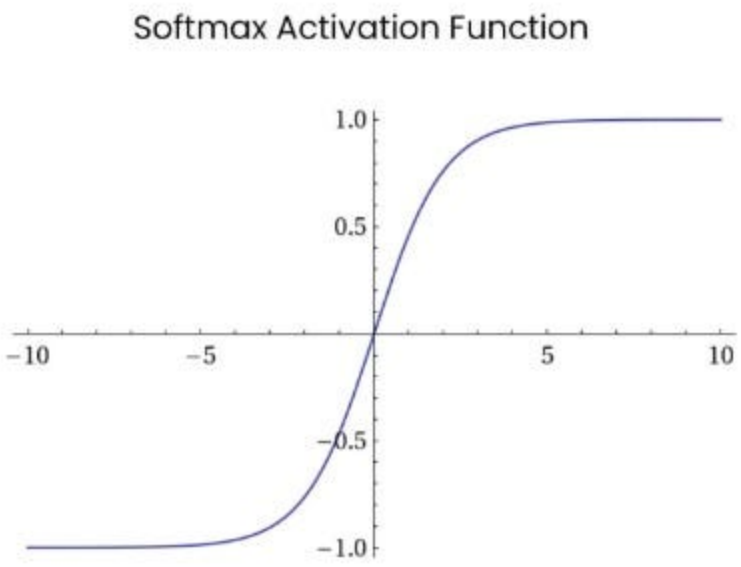
- In natural language processing (NLP), it helps translate words or predict the next word.
- In multi-class classification, it assigns probabilities to each class, showing which class the model thinks is most likely.

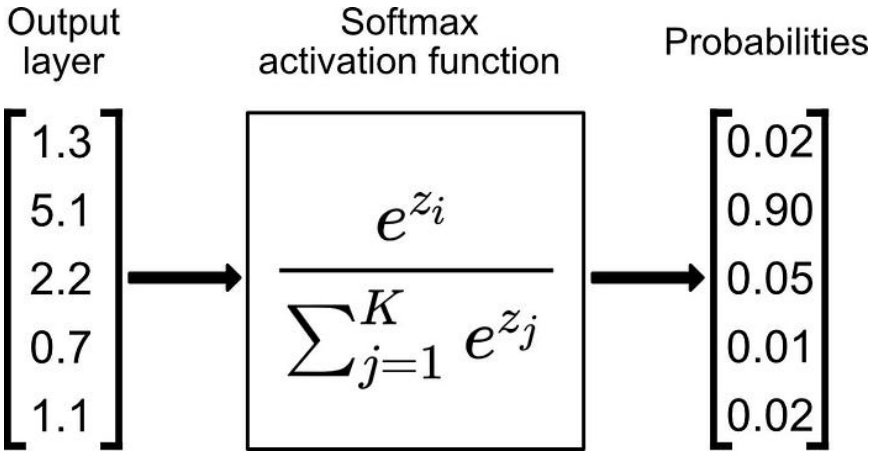
Working Summary:

1. **Exponentiation:** Apply the exponential function to make all values positive.
2. **Normalization:** Divide each value by the sum of all values to get probabilities.

Why Use Softmax?

Softmax makes AI output easy to interpret by converting raw scores into probabilities, helping humans and systems understand how likely each possible output is.





Advantages of Softmax Activation Function:

1. **Probability Output**: Converts raw scores into **probability distributions**, making it ideal for **multi-class classification** problems.
2. **Clear Interpretation**: Outputs can be interpreted as **class probabilities** (values sum to 1).
3. **Differentiable**: Smooth and **differentiable**, which is crucial for backpropagation.

Disadvantages of Softmax Activation Function:

1. **Sensitive to Outliers**: Small differences in input can lead to **large changes** in probabilities.
2. **Computationally Expensive**: Involves **exponentiation and normalization**, which is computationally heavier than ReLU.

When to Use Softmax:

- **Multi-Class Classification**: Softmax is best used in the **output layer** of models when there are **multiple classes** to predict.

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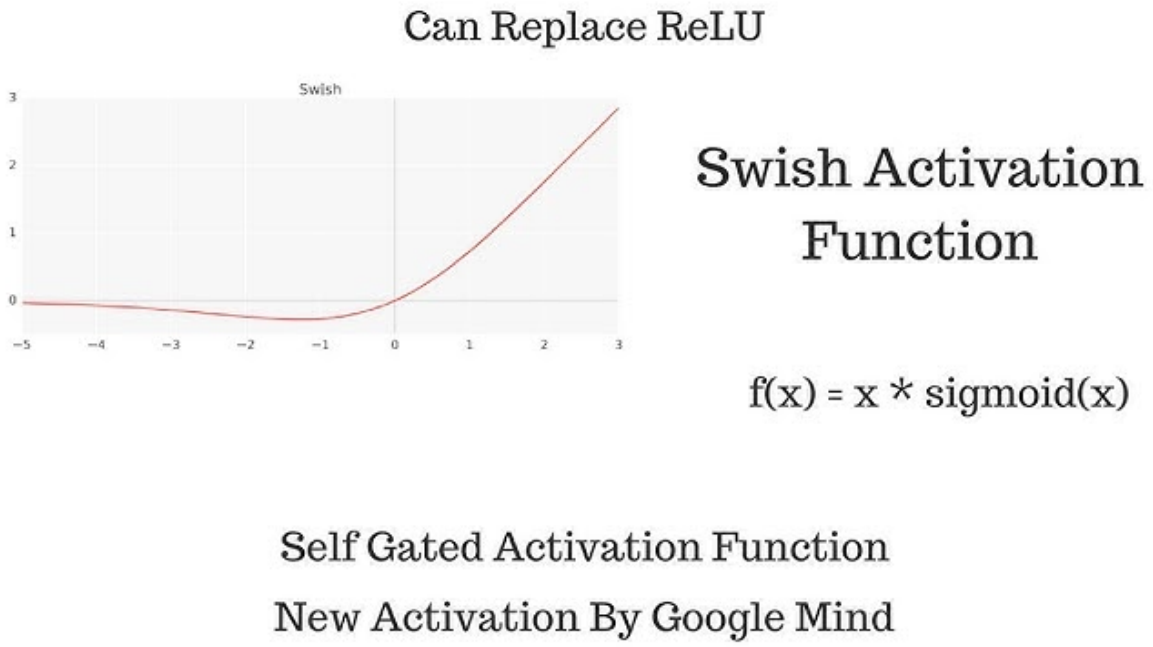
8. Swish (A Self-Gated) Function



Understanding the Swish Activation Function

The **Swish** activation function is a modern alternative to the widely-used **ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)**. Developed by the Google Brain Team, Swish aims to address some of ReLU's limitations and enhance the performance of deep neural networks.

What is the Swish Activation Function?

Key Characteristics:

- **Smooth and Non-Monotonic:** Unlike ReLU, Swish is smooth and can produce both positive and negative gradients.
- **Unbounded Above and Bounded Below:** Swish can output values greater than zero without an upper limit and negative values down to a certain point.
- **Self-Gated:** The output is modulated by the sigmoid function, allowing it to control the flow of information dynamically.

How Does Swish Work?

1. **Input Transformation:**
    - Each input x is passed through the sigmoid function, producing a gating value between 0 and 1.
2. **Modulation:**
    - The original input x is multiplied by this gating value.
    - This allows the activation to be scaled smoothly, unlike ReLU which abruptly cuts off at zero.
3. **Output Generation:**
    - The result is a smooth, non-linear output that can enhance the network's ability to learn complex patterns.

Important Features of Swish

1. **Non-Linearity:**
    - Enables the network to model complex, non-linear relationships in data.
2. **Smooth Gradient:**
    - Provides a smooth transition for gradients, facilitating better and more stable training.
3. **Avoids Dead Neurons:**
    - Unlike ReLU, which can result in "dead neurons" (neurons that output zero and stop learning), Swish maintains some gradient flow even for negative inputs.
4. **Performance Boost:**
    - Empirical results show that Swish can improve classification accuracy. For instance:

- **ImageNet:** +0.9% for Mobile NASNetA and +0.6% for Inception-ResNet-v2.
- **Deeper Networks:** Outperforms ReLU in very deep models (40-50 layers and beyond).

5. **Ease of Implementation:**
   - Simple to replace ReLU with Swish in existing neural network architectures

When to Use Swish?

Swish is particularly beneficial in scenarios where:

1. **Deep Neural Networks:**
   - When training very deep models (40+ layers), Swish helps maintain gradient flow and improves accuracy.
2. **Complex Classification Tasks:**
   - Enhances performance in tasks like image classification and machine translation by enabling better feature learning.
3. **Replacing ReLU:**
   - When encountering issues with ReLU, such as dead neurons or limited performance gains, Swish serves as an effective alternative.
4. **Batch Normalization:**
   - Swish works well with BatchNorm, allowing for stable and efficient training even in deeper networks.

Advantages of Swish Activation Function:

1. **Non-Linearity**: Provides **smooth non-linearity**, helping capture complex relationships in data.
2. **No Dead Neurons**: Unlike ReLU, Swish avoids the **dead neuron** problem by allowing negative inputs to contribute to the output.
3. **Better Performance**: Often yields **better results** than ReLU in **deep networks**, especially in certain architectures like **Transformer models**.

4. Unbounded output helps prevent gradients from approaching zero.

- Smooth and continuous function aids in optimization and generalization.

Disadvantages of Swish Activation Function:

1. **Slower Computation**: Computationally more expensive than ReLU due to its more complex mathematical form.
2. **Not Always Superior**: In some cases, Swish may not significantly outperform simpler activations like ReLU.

When to Use Swish:

- **Deep and Complex Models**: Swish is useful in **deep learning architectures** where performance improvements over ReLU are observed, especially in **very deep neural networks**.

Why Choose Swish Over ReLU?

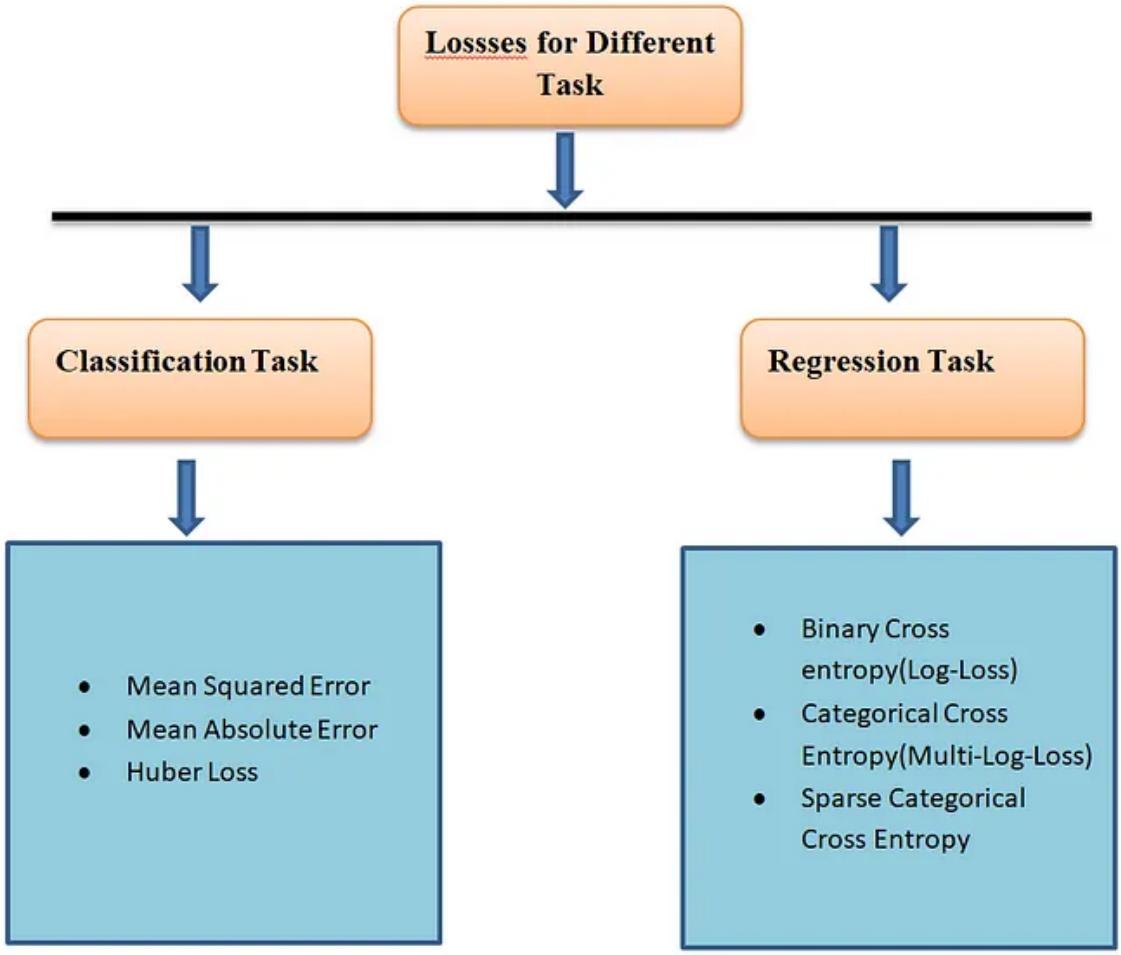
- **Enhanced Performance:** Swish has been empirically shown to outperform ReLU in various deep learning tasks, providing higher accuracy.
- **Reduced Dead Neurons:** Maintains active gradients for negative inputs, preventing neurons from becoming inactive.
- **Smooth Activation:** Facilitates smoother optimization landscapes, aiding in more effective training.

Table :

Problem Type	Hidden Layers Activation Function	Output Layer Activation Function
Binary Classification	ReLU, Leaky ReLU	Sigmoid (for output between 0 and 1)
Multi-Class Classification (Mutually Exclusive Classes)	ReLU, Leaky ReLU	Softmax (for probability distribution)

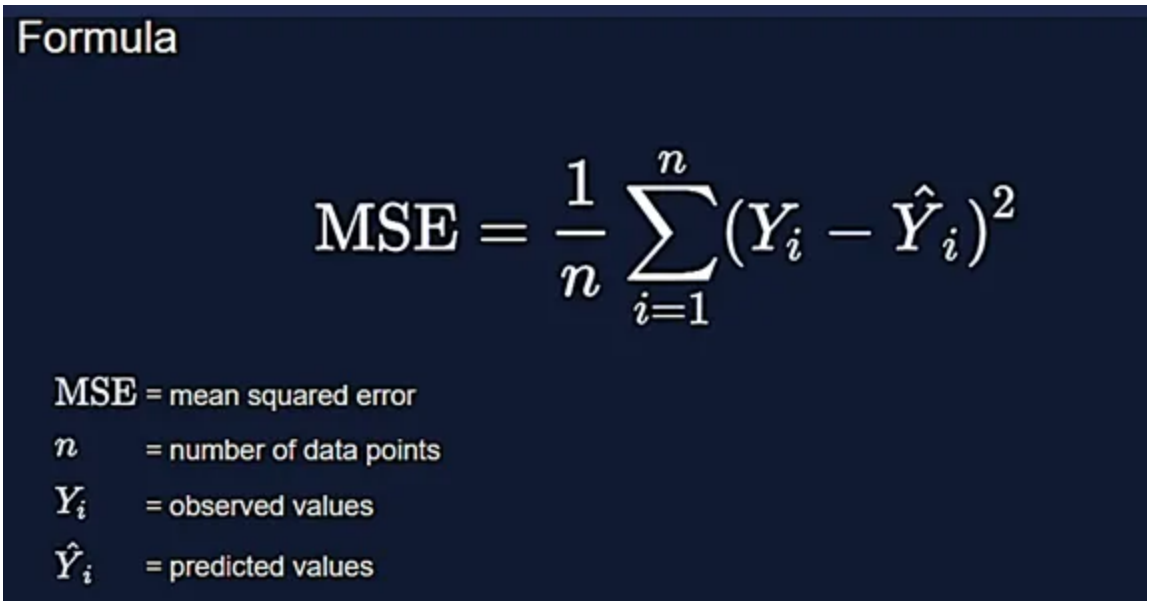
Multi-Label Classification	ReLU, Leaky ReLU, Swish	Sigmoid (for independent label probabilities)
Regression (Continuous Output)	ReLU, Leaky ReLU, Swish	Linear (no activation for unrestricted values)
Autoencoders	ReLU, Leaky ReLU, Swish	Sigmoid (binary output) or Tanh (output with negative/positive values)
Generative Models (e.g., GANs)	ReLU (Generator), Leaky ReLU (Discriminator)	Sigmoid (for binary outputs) or Tanh (for image generation)
RNNs, LSTMs, GRUs	Tanh, Sigmoid (within LSTM/GRU cells)	Sigmoid (binary output), Softmax (multi-class), or Linear (regression)
Deep Neural Networks (DNNs)	ReLU, Leaky ReLU, Swish	Dependent on task (Sigmoid, Softmax, Linear)
Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)	ReLU, Leaky ReLU	Softmax (multi-class), Sigmoid (binary classification/multi-label)
Transformers/Attention Models	ReLU, Swish (or GELU)	Dependent on task (Sigmoid, Softmax, Linear)

Loss functions :



1. Mean Squared Error (MSE)

- **What**: MSE calculates the average squared difference between the predicted values and the actual values.
- **When to Use**: Commonly used for regression problems where the goal is to predict continuous values.
- **Formula**:

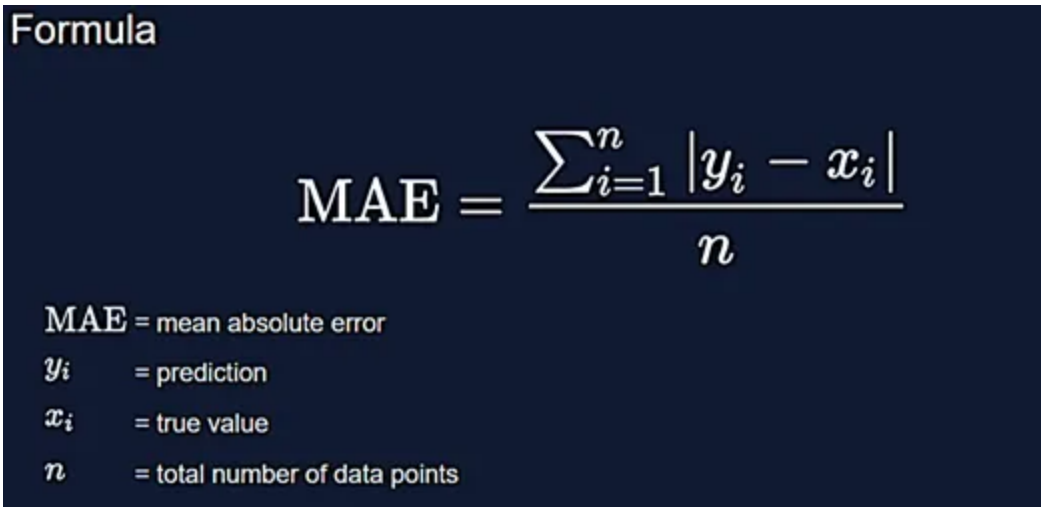


- **Advantages**:
  - **Simple to Implement**: Straightforward and widely understood.
  - **Differentiable**: Allows for the use of gradient-based optimization techniques.
  - **Penalizes Large Errors**: Heavily penalizes large deviations, which can lead to better performance on data with significant errors.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Sensitive to Outliers**: Outliers can disproportionately affect the MSE due to the squaring of errors.
  - **Non-Robust**: Less robust compared to other loss functions like MAE, especially in the presence of noisy data.

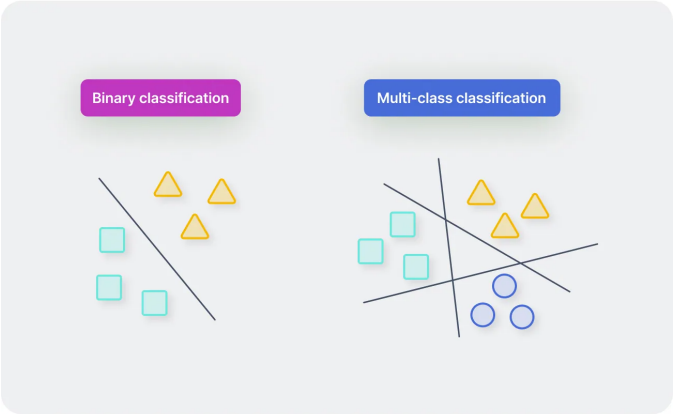
---

2. Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

- **What**: MAE calculates the average absolute difference between the predicted values and the actual values.
- **When to Use**: Used for regression problems where robustness to outliers is important.
- **Formula**:

- 

- **Advantages**:
  - **Robust to Outliers**: Less sensitive to outliers compared to MSE.
  - **Intuitive**: Measures the average magnitude of errors without squaring them.
  - **Easy to Understand**: Provides a clear measure of average error.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Not Differentiable at Zero**: May cause issues with optimization algorithms that rely on gradient-based methods.
  - **Less Sensitive to Large Errors**: Does not penalize large errors as much as MSE, which may not be desirable in some cases.



3. Binary Cross-Entropy Loss

- **What**: Binary cross-entropy measures the performance of a classification model whose output is a probability value between 0 and 1.
- **When to Use**: Suitable for binary classification problems such as spam detection or disease diagnosis.
- **Formula**:

$$BinaryCrossEntropy = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}[y_i * log(y_{pred}) + (1 - y_i) * log(1 - y_{pred})]$$

- **Advantages**:
  - **Well-Suited for Probabilistic Outputs**: Directly aligns with the output of models that predict probabilities.
  - **Differentiable**: Enables gradient-based optimization techniques.
  - **Interpretable**: Provides a clear measure of how well the predicted probabilities match the actual labels.
- **Disadvantages**:

- **Assumes Independence of Predictions**: Assumes that each prediction is independent, which might not be the case in real-world data.
- **Sensitive to Imbalanced Data**: Can be skewed if one class is significantly more frequent than the other.

---

4. Categorical Cross-Entropy Loss

- **What**: Categorical cross-entropy is used for multi-class classification problems where each sample belongs to one of multiple classes.
- **When to Use**: Suitable for tasks like image classification, text classification, and speech recognition.
- **Formula**:
-

$$L\left(y,\hat{y}\right) = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i}^{N}\sum_{j}^{C} y_{ij} log\left(\hat{y}_{ij}\right)$$

- **Advantages**:
  - **Effective for Multi-Class Problems**: Handles cases with more than two classes effectively.
  - **Differentiable**: Supports gradient-based optimization techniques.
  - **Probabilistic Interpretation**: Provides a clear probability distribution over classes.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Sensitive to Class Imbalance**: Performance can degrade if some classes are underrepresented.
  - **Requires One-Hot Encoding**: Necessitates that labels are one-hot encoded, which may not be efficient for all applications.

---

5. Hinge Loss

- **What**: Hinge loss is used for classification tasks, especially with Support Vector Machines (SVMs), aiming to find a hyperplane with the maximum margin between classes.
- **When to Use**: Suitable for tasks that require maximizing the margin between classes.
- **Formula**:

$$\text{Hinge Loss} = \max(0, 1 - y \cdot f(x))$$

- **Advantages**:
  - **Maximizes Margin**: Focuses on finding a large margin between classes, which can improve generalization.
  - **Effective for SVMs**: Specifically designed for SVMs, providing strong performance in this context.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Not Suitable for Probabilistic Outputs**: Does not handle probabilistic outputs directly.
  - **Less Smooth**: The function is not differentiable everywhere, which may complicate optimization.

---

6. Huber Loss

- **What: Huber loss combines the advantages of MSE and MAE, providing a balance between them.**
- **When to Use: Useful for regression tasks where robustness to outliers is required, while still maintaining sensitivity to smaller errors.**

- **Formula:**

$$Hubber\ Loss = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(y - y_p)^2, & |y - y_p| \leq \delta \\ \delta|y - y_p| - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2, & |y - y_p| > \delta \end{cases}$$

- **Advantages:**
  - **Combines MSE and MAE: Balances sensitivity to small errors with robustness to outliers.**
  - **Flexible: The parameter δ allows adjustment based on the specific needs of the task.**

    δ\delta
- **Disadvantages:**
  - **Choice of δ\deltaδ Can Be Difficult: The performance is sensitive to the choice of the hyperparameter δ.**

    δ\delta
  - **Complexity: More complex than MSE and MAE, which might affect interpretability.**

Choosing the Right Loss Function

- **Type of Problem**:
  - **Regression**: Use MSE, MAE, or Huber Loss.
  - **Binary Classification**: Use Binary Cross-Entropy Loss.
  - **Multi-class Classification**: Use Categorical Cross-Entropy Loss.
  - **Max-Margin Classification**: Use Hinge Loss.
- **Data Characteristics**:
  - **Outliers**: Prefer MAE or Huber Loss for robustness against outliers.

    - **Class Imbalance**: Be cautious with Binary or Categorical Cross-Entropy if data is imbalanced.
- **Model Requirements**:
    - **Probabilistic Outputs**: Use cross-entropy losses for models predicting probabilities.
    - **Margin Maximization**: Use Hinge Loss for tasks requiring clear separation between classes.

Optimizers :

What is a Gradient?

A **gradient** is a mathematical concept used to measure how much a function changes as its inputs change. In the context of machine learning and neural networks, gradients are crucial for optimizing the model during the training process.

In simple terms, the **gradient** represents the **slope** or **rate of change** of the loss function (or cost function) with respect to the model's parameters (weights and biases)

1. **Local vs. Global Minimum**:
    - The gradient helps the model move toward a **minimum** of the loss function. It could be a **local minimum** (not the best solution) or a **global minimum** (the optimal solution)

.

What is Gradient Descent?

Gradient Descent is an optimization algorithm used to minimize a function by iteratively moving towards the function's minimum. In the context of machine learning and neural networks, it is used to minimize the **loss function** (or cost

function), which measures how well the model's predictions match the actual data.

How Does Gradient Descent Work?

Gradient descent involves three main steps:

1. **Compute the Gradient**:
    - For each parameter (weight or bias), calculate the gradient of the loss function with respect to that parameter.
    - The gradient is the partial derivative of the loss function, indicating how the loss changes with respect to each parameter.
2. **Update the Parameters**:
    - Adjust the parameters in the direction opposite to the gradient to reduce the loss.
    - The magnitude of the update is controlled by a hyperparameter called the **learning rate** (denoted as α or η), which determines how large the steps are.
3. **Iterate Until Convergence**:
    - Repeat the process of computing gradients and updating parameters until the model reaches a minimum (either local or global) and the loss function stops decreasing.

Types of Gradient Descent:

1. Batch Gradient Descent (BGD):

- **Why**: It computes gradients using the entire dataset in one iteration.
- **When to Use**: Ideal for small datasets that can fit into memory.
- **Advantages**:
    - Accurate gradient updates.
    - Stable convergence as updates are smooth.
- **Disadvantages**:

- Slow for large datasets, since it requires the entire dataset for each update.
- Memory-intensive and computationally expensive for big data.

2. Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD):

- **Why**: It computes gradients using one random sample per iteration.
- **When to Use**: Useful when quick updates are needed and the dataset is large.
- **Advantages**:
  - Faster updates and faster convergence compared to BGD.
  - Helps escape local minima due to noisy updates.
  - Efficient for large datasets, as only one sample is processed at a time.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - Noisy updates can lead to unstable convergence or overshooting.
  - Less accurate compared to BGD due to randomness.

3. Mini-Batch Gradient Descent:

- **Why**: It computes gradients using a small subset (mini-batch) of data in each iteration.
- **When to Use**: Commonly used in deep learning; balances between fast and stable learning.
- **Advantages**:
  - Faster than BGD and more stable than SGD.
  - Efficient for large datasets as only a batch is processed at once.
  - Allows for parallel computation, improving training time.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - Requires careful tuning of batch size.
  - Might not escape local minima as effectively as SGD.

Summary:

- **BGD** is best for small datasets, **SGD** for large-scale or real-time systems, and **Mini-Batch GD** is commonly used in deep learning for its speed and stability.

Purpose of Optimizers:

Optimizers are algorithms used in machine learning to adjust model parameters (like weights) in order to minimize the loss function and improve performance during training.

Problems Optimizers Handle:

1. **Minimizing Loss**: Helps reduce the error (loss) between predicted and actual values.
2. **Speeding Up Convergence**: Ensures faster training by updating weights efficiently.
3. **Handling Vanishing/Exploding Gradients**: Modern optimizers like Adam help manage vanishing or exploding gradients in deep networks.
4. **Avoiding Local Minima**: Helps models avoid getting stuck in local minima and aims for global optimization.
5. **Learning Rate Adjustment**: Optimizers like RMSProp and Adam dynamically adjust learning rates for faster convergence.

Optimizers are algorithms or methods used to minimize the loss function in machine learning models by adjusting the model's parameters (weights and biases). They are crucial for training models effectively, as they guide the learning process and improve performance.

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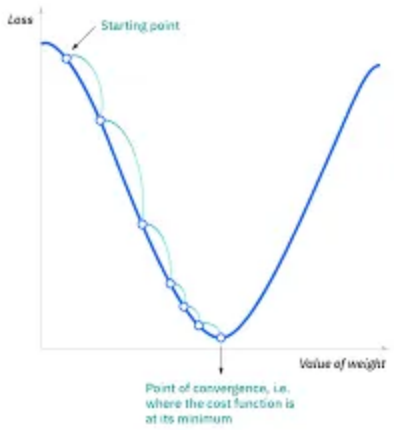
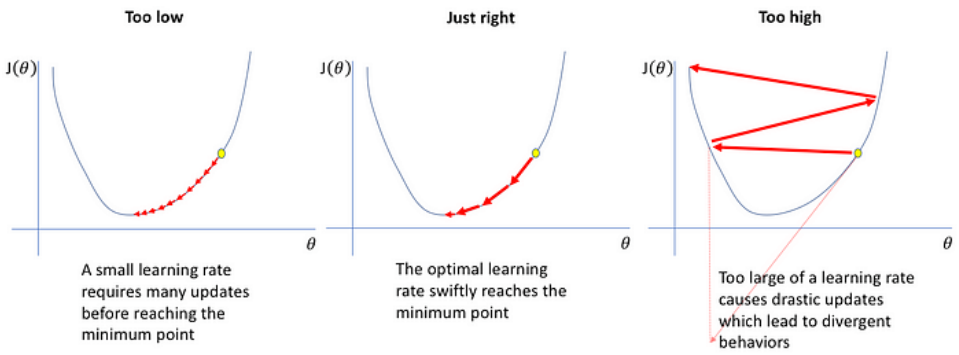
1. Gradient Descent



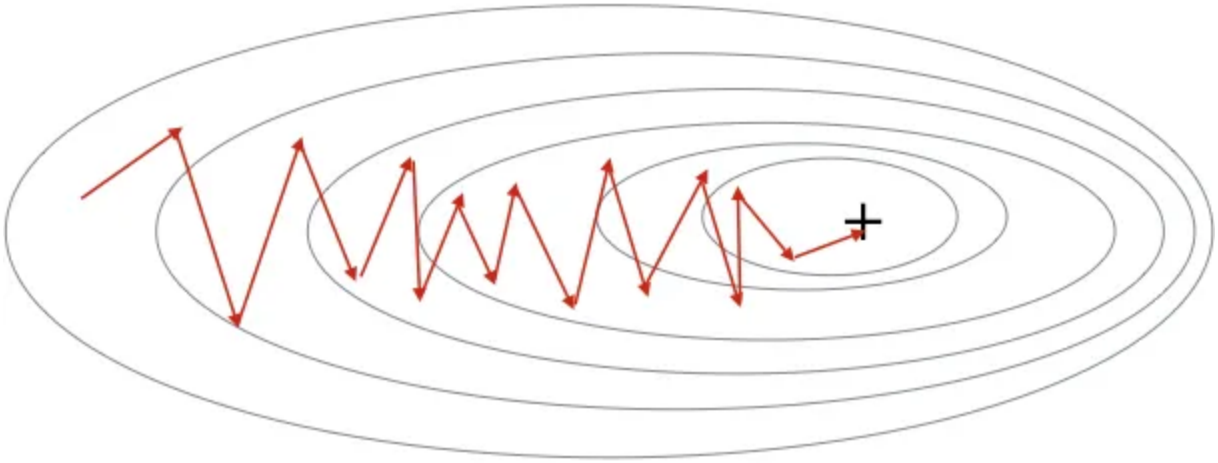
- **What**: Gradient Descent is an optimization algorithm used to minimize the loss function by iteratively updating model parameters in the direction of the negative gradient of the loss function.
- **When to Use**: Used in various machine learning models, particularly when the dataset fits into memory.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Simple and Intuitive**: Easy to understand and implement.
  - **Convergence**: Can converge to a local minimum if tuned properly.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Computationally Expensive**: Requires calculations on the entire dataset, which can be slow and memory-intensive.
  - **Slow Convergence**: May converge slowly if the learning rate is not
  - appropriately set.

Learning Rate

How big/small the steps are gradient descent takes into the direction of the local minimum are determined by the learning rate, which figures out how fast or slow we will move towards the optimal weights.



2. Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)



- **What**: Stochastic Gradient Descent updates the model parameters using one training example at a time, rather than the entire dataset.
- **When to Use**: Suitable for large datasets where processing the entire dataset at once is impractical.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Frequent Updates**: Provides more frequent updates of model parameters, which can lead to faster convergence.

    - **Less Memory Usage**: Requires less memory since it processes one example at a time.
    - **Can Handle Large Datasets**: Efficient for datasets that are too large to fit into memory.
- **Disadvantages**:
    - **Noisy Gradients**: Frequent updates can lead to noisy gradients and may cause the error to increase intermittently.
    - **High Variance**: The updates can be erratic, which may make convergence less stable.

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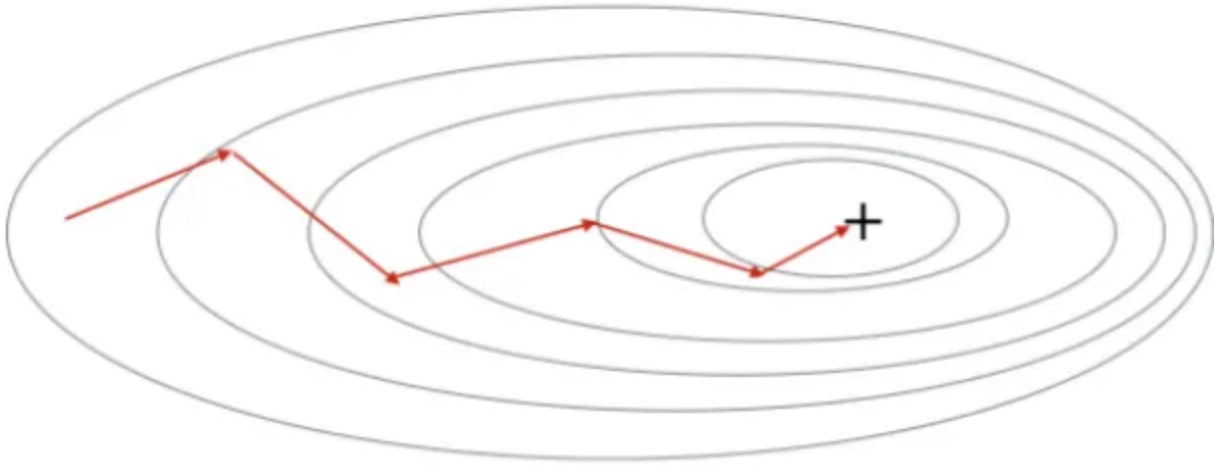
3. Mini-Batch Gradient Descent



- **What**: Mini-Batch Gradient Descent combines the advantages of both Gradient Descent and Stochastic Gradient Descent by updating model parameters based on small batches of data.
- **When to Use**: Effective for large datasets where full-batch gradient descent is too slow but where some batching can offer benefits over purely stochastic updates.
- **Advantages**:

- **Stable Convergence**: Offers more stable convergence compared to SGD by averaging the gradients over a batch.
- **Efficient Computation**: Reduces the computational burden compared to full-batch Gradient Descent while still using batch-based updates.
- **Balanced Memory Usage**: Requires less memory compared to full-batch Gradient Descent.

- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Hyperparameter Sensitivity**: Performance can be sensitive to the choice of mini-batch size and learning rate.
  - **Potential for Suboptimal Convergence**: Depending on the batch size, it might not always converge to the global minimum.

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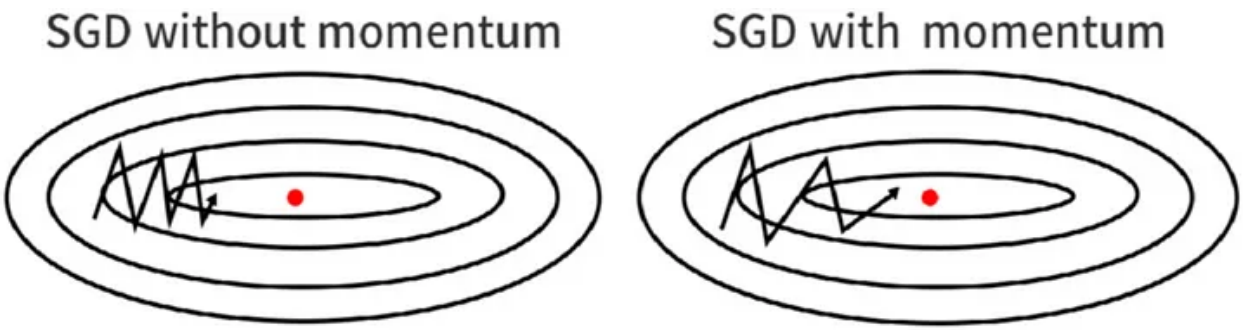
4. SGD with Momentum



- **What**: SGD with Momentum adds a momentum term to Stochastic Gradient Descent to help accelerate gradients vectors in the right directions, thus leading to faster converging.
- **When to Use**: Useful when dealing with noisy gradients or when a smoother trajectory is desired.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Reduces Oscillation**: Helps smooth out the path of updates, reducing oscillation and speeding up convergence.

- **Improves Stability**: Enhances stability and can escape local minima.
- remove noise
- increse speed remove the issue of local minima
-

- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Extra Hyperparameter**: Introduces an additional hyperparameter (momentum factor) that needs tuning.
  - **Increased Complexity**: Slightly more complex to implement and tune compared to plain SGD.
  - It increase the to and fro motion that increase the time period of conevrgence .
  -

$$\nu_{new} = \eta * \nu_{old} - \alpha * \frac{\partial(Loss)}{\partial(W_{old})}$$

---

5. AdaGrad (Adaptive Gradient Algorithm)

- **What**: AdaGrad adapts the learning rate for each parameter by scaling it inversely proportional to the square root of the sum of past squared gradients.
- **When to Use**: Effective for sparse data where some features are much more frequent than others.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Adaptive Learning Rate**: Adjusts the learning rate based on the historical gradients, allowing for efficient training of sparse data.
  - **Handles Sparse Features**: Particularly useful for tasks with sparse data like text processing.

- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Learning Rate Shrinkage**: Learning rate can become excessively small as training progresses, potentially leading to slow convergence.
  - **Not Suitable for Deep Networks**: May not perform well with deep networks due to the shrinking learning rate problem.

---

6. RMSProp (Root Mean Square Propagation)

- **What**: RMSProp modifies AdaGrad by using an exponentially decaying average of squared gradients instead of the cumulative sum. This helps to stabilize the learning rate.
- **When to Use**: Effective in training deep neural networks and works well in practice with a wide range of models.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Adaptive Learning Rate**: Adjusts learning rates based on recent gradients, improving convergence stability.
  - **Efficient for Deep Networks**: Works well with deep networks and non-stationary objectives.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Hyperparameter Sensitivity**: Requires careful tuning of hyperparameters such as the decay rate.
  - **Potential for Slow Learning**: May exhibit slow learning in some cases if not tuned correctly.

---

7. Adam (Adaptive Moment Estimation)

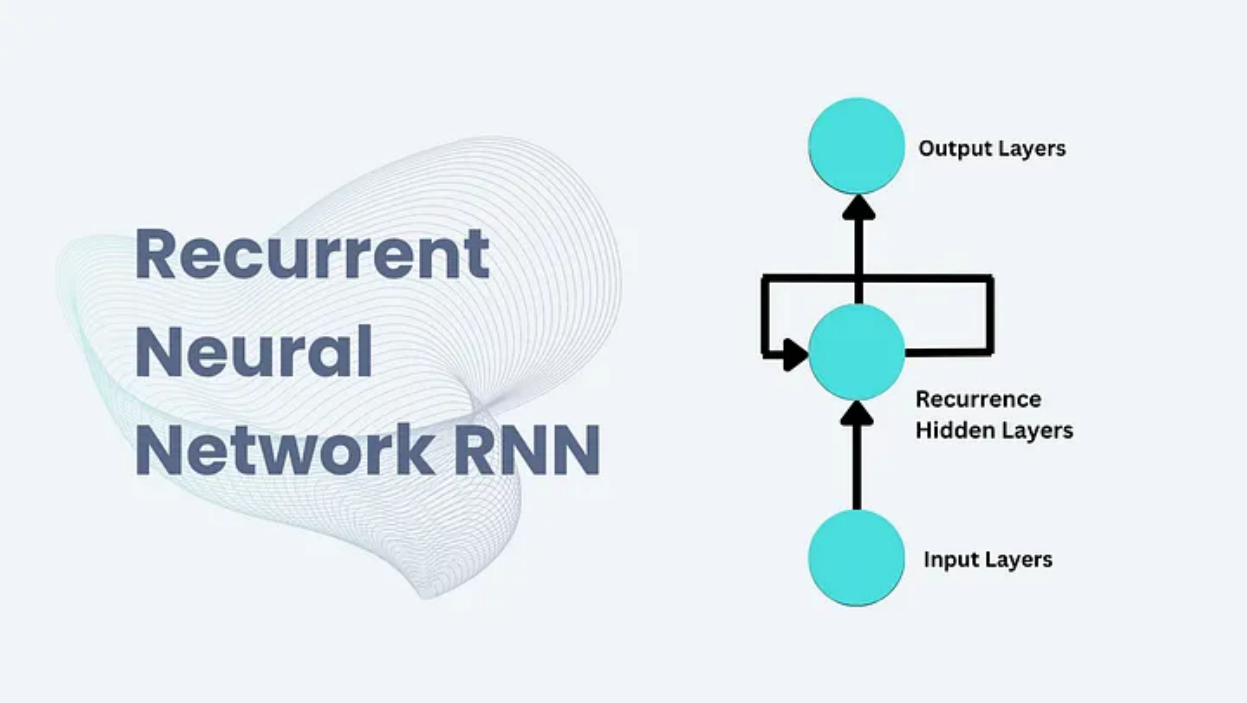
- **What**: Adam combines the benefits of RMSProp and SGD with Momentum. It computes adaptive learning rates for each parameter by storing both the decaying average of past gradients and squared gradients.

- **When to Use**: Widely used in practice for various types of neural networks and other machine learning models.
- **Advantages**:
  - **Adaptive Learning Rates**: Adjusts learning rates for each parameter individually, combining the benefits of both momentum and adaptive learning.
  - **Efficient and Easy to Implement**: Simple to implement and requires minimal tuning of hyperparameters.
  - **Low Memory Usage**: Efficient in terms of memory usage compared to some other optimizers.
- **Disadvantages**:
  - **Hyperparameter Sensitivity**: Requires tuning of hyperparameters such as the learning rate, beta1, and beta2.
  - **Potential for Overfitting**: In some cases, it can lead to overfitting if not used with proper regularization techniques.

Choosing the Right Optimizer

- **For Large Datasets**: Mini-Batch Gradient Descent or Stochastic Gradient Descent.
- **For Sparse Data**: AdaGrad or Adam.
- **For Deep Networks**: RMSProp, Adam, or AdaDelta.
- **For Stability**: SGD with Momentum, RMSProp, or Adam.

RNN:

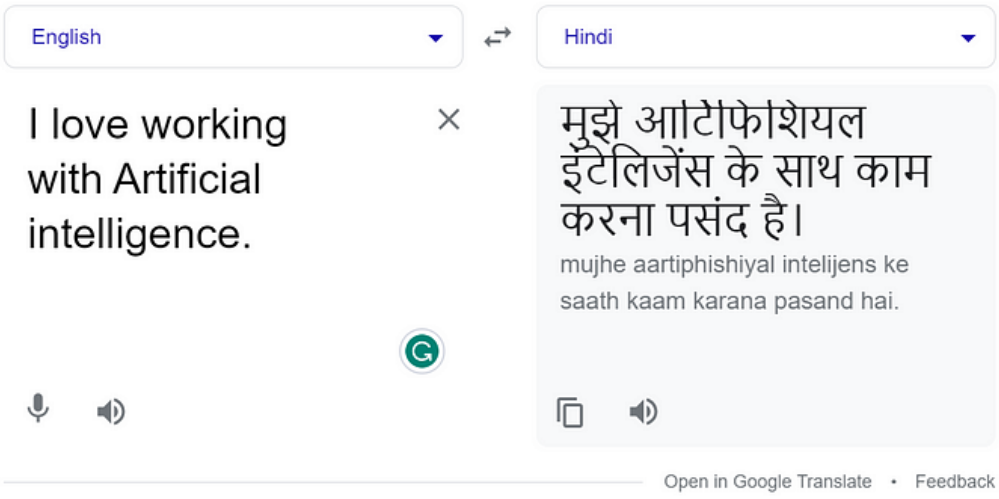


what's wrong with ANN and CNN?

Let's see the reasons why we can't use ANN and CNN for sequential modeling.

1. Fixed input and output neurons

We know once we fixed input and output neurons then we can't change it through iterations. Where the problems like machine translation, we can't be sure how many words will form from translation as an output.



As you can see in the above image, I asked google translate to work for translation in Hindi. In English, I wrote only 6 words, but in Hindi, it resulted in 9 words. It proved my fact that in such scenarios, output never will be fixed and we can't assign an exact number of output neurons to it.

2. Parameters sharing

using convolution operation we can share the parameters. Here, the use of ANN or Artificial Neural Network doesn't allow you to do that. Also, the most important part of all is the **sequence**. Artificial Neural Network doesn't work in this case. what if I slightly changed the words from a sentence but the translation of context or meaning of the sentence is the same? ANN won't figure out about similar output because parameters are not shared.

3. Computations

Let's take an example of name—entity recognition. If I want to recognize a person's name then in normal cases, I have to do a one-hot encoding where I can make columns and the person's column becomes 1 and all others become 0.

in this case, for all entities and for all corpus of words, we have to do that. that will make input vectors very big. and it ultimately results in very high computations and a lot of sparse matrices.

4. Independent of previous outputs

When we are working with ANN, we assume that prediction on one label/category will be **independent** of the next prediction. Because each example is treated as independent. But what if I want to predict the next word or I want to make a bot taking previous outputs into consideration? In such scenarios, we can only use RNN.

What is RNN ?

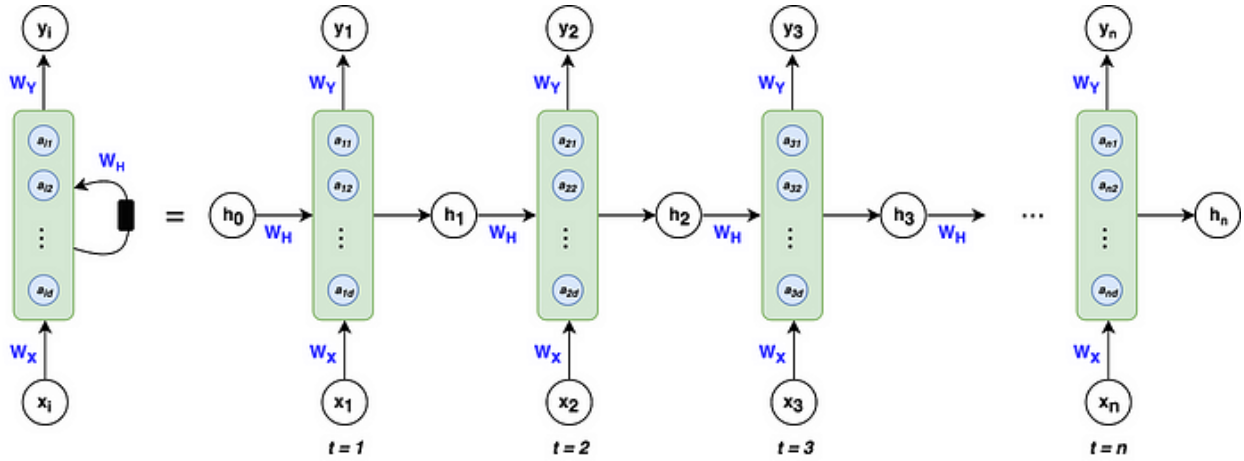
Recurrent Neural Network(RNN) is a type of Neural Network where the output from the previous step is fed as input to the current step.

- In some cases when it is required to **predict the next word of a sentence, the previous words are required and hence there is a need to remember the previous words**. Thus RNN came into existence, which solved this issue with the help of a Hidden Layer.
- The main and most important feature of RNN is its **Hidden state**, which remembers some information about a sequence. The state is also referred to as ***Memory State*** since it remembers the previous input to the network.
- RNN uses the same weights for each element of the sequence.

RNN are a class of neural networks that is powerful for modeling sequence data such as time series or natural language. Basically, main idea behind this architecture is to use sequential information.

Issues in the feed forward neural network : -

1. Can’t handle sequential data.
2. Consider only current input.
3. Can’t memorize the previous input.



What are RNNs used for?

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) are widely used for data with some kind of sequential structure. For instance, time series data has an intrinsic ordering based on time. Sentences are also sequential, “I love dogs” has a different meaning than “Dogs I love.” Simply put, if the *semantics* of your data is altered by random permutation, you have a sequential dataset and RNNs may be used for your problem! To help solidify the types of problems RNNs can solve, here is a **list of common applications**[1] :

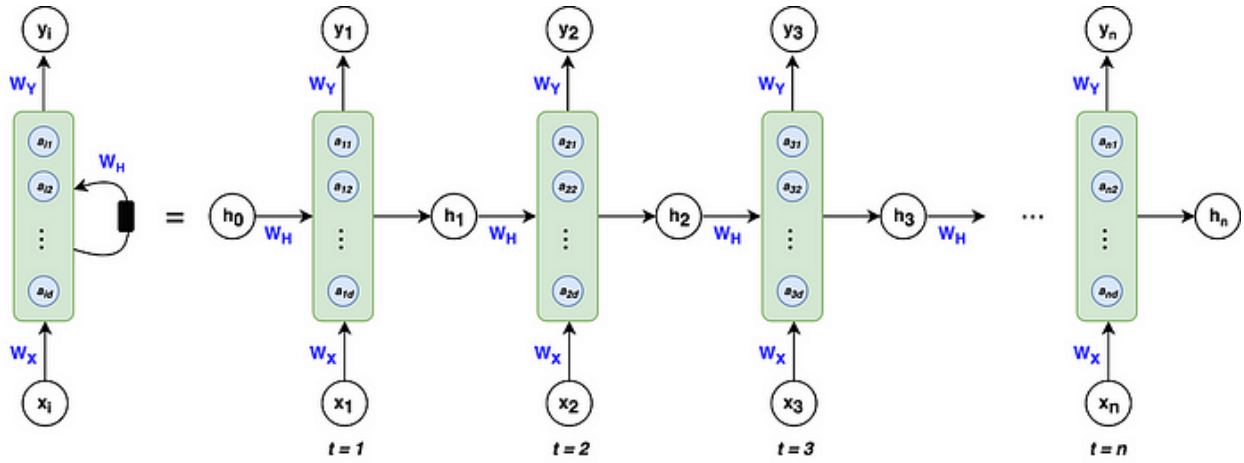
- Speech Recognition
- Sentiment Classification
- Machine Translation (Chinese to English)
- Video Activity Recognition
- Name Entity Recognition — (i.e. Identifying names in a sentence)

Great! We know the types of problems that we can apply RNNs to, now...

What are RNNs and how do they work?

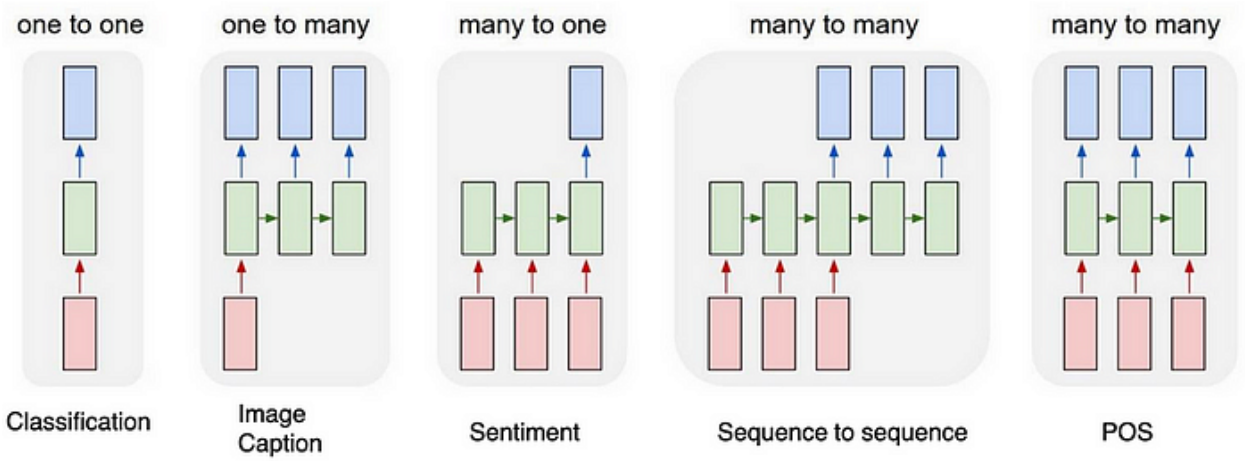
RNNs are different than the classical multi-layer perceptron (MLP) networks because of two main reasons: 1) They take into account what happened *previously* and 2) they *share* parameters/weights.

The architecture of an RNN



> Left: Shorthand notation often used for RNNs
>
> ***Right**: Unfolded notation for RNNsDon't worry if this doesn't make sense, we're going to break down all the variables and go through a forward propagation and backpropagation in a little bit! Just focus on the flow of variables at first glance.*

Types of RNN architectures:



One to One

This type of RNN behaves the same as any simple Neural network it is also known as Vanilla Neural Network. In this Neural network, there is only one input and one output.

One To Many

In this type of RNN, there is one input and many outputs associated with it. One of the most used examples of this network is Image captioning where given an image we predict a sentence having Multiple words.

Many to One

In this type of network, Many inputs are fed to the network at several states of the network generating only one output. This type of network is used in the problems like sentimental analysis. Where we give multiple words as input and predict only the sentiment of the sentence as output.

Many to Many

In this type of neural network, there are multiple inputs and multiple outputs corresponding to a problem. One Example of this Problem will be language translation. In language translation, we provide multiple words from one language as input and predict multiple words from the second language as output.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Recurrent Neural Network

Advantages

1. An RNN remembers each and every piece of information through time. It is useful in time series prediction only because of the feature to remember previous inputs as well. This is called Long short term memory.
2. Recurrent neural networks are even used with convolutional layers to extend the effective pixel neighborhood.

Disadvantages

1. Vanishing and exploding gradient problems.
2. Training an RNN is a very difficult task.
3. It cannot process very long sequences if using Tanh or Relu as an activation function.

Applications of Recurrent Neural Network

1. Language Modelling and Generating Text
2. Speech Recognition
3. Machine Translation
4. Image Recognition, Face detection
5. Time series Forecasting

Variation Of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)

To overcome the problems like vanishing gradient and exploding gradient descent several new advanced versions of RNNs are formed some of these are as;

1. Bidirectional Neural Network (BiNN)
2. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

Bidirectional Neural Network (BiNN)

A BiNN is a variation of a Recurrent Neural Network in which the input information flows in both direction and then the output of both direction are combined to produce the input. BiNN is useful in situations when the context of the input is more important such as NLP tasks and Time-series analysis problems.

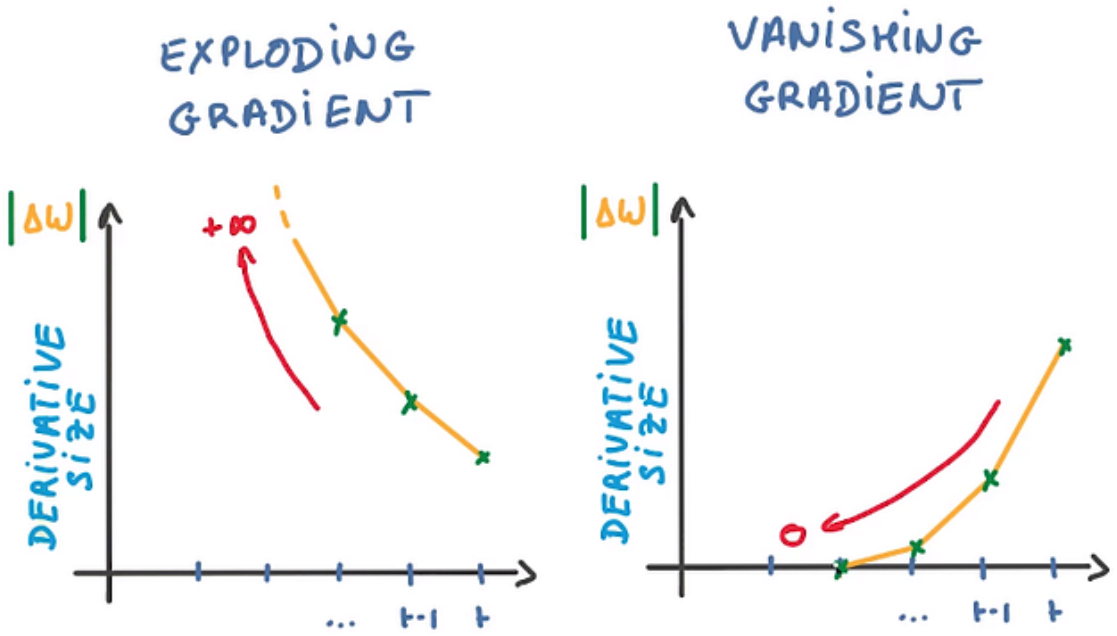
Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

Long Short-Term Memory works on the read-write-and-forget principle where given the input information network reads and writes the most useful information from the data and it forgets about the information which is not important in predicting the output. For doing this three new gates are introduced in the RNN. In this way, only the selected information is passed through the network.

Challenges:

RNNs are powerful for sequential data tasks, but they also face several challenges that can impact their performance and effectiveness. Here are some of the key challenges faced by RNNs:

1. **Vanishing Gradient Problem:** Traditional RNNs suffer from the vanishing gradient problem, especially in long sequences. Gradients can become extremely small as they are propagated backward through time, making it difficult for the network to learn from distant past information. This hinders the RNN's ability to capture long-term dependencies.



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Problems in RNNs

1. **Vanishing Gradient Problem**
    - **Description**: Gradients can become very small during backpropagation, making it difficult for the network to learn long-term dependencies. This results in the model forgetting important information from earlier time steps.
2. **Exploding Gradient Problem**
    - **Description**: Gradients can grow exponentially, leading to excessively large updates to the model weights, which can destabilize the training process.
3. **Computational Complexity**
    - **Description**: RNNs process data sequentially, which can be computationally expensive and slow, especially for long sequences.
4. **Difficulty Capturing Long-Term Dependencies**

- **Description**: RNNs struggle to remember information from distant past inputs, limiting their effectiveness in tasks requiring long-term context.

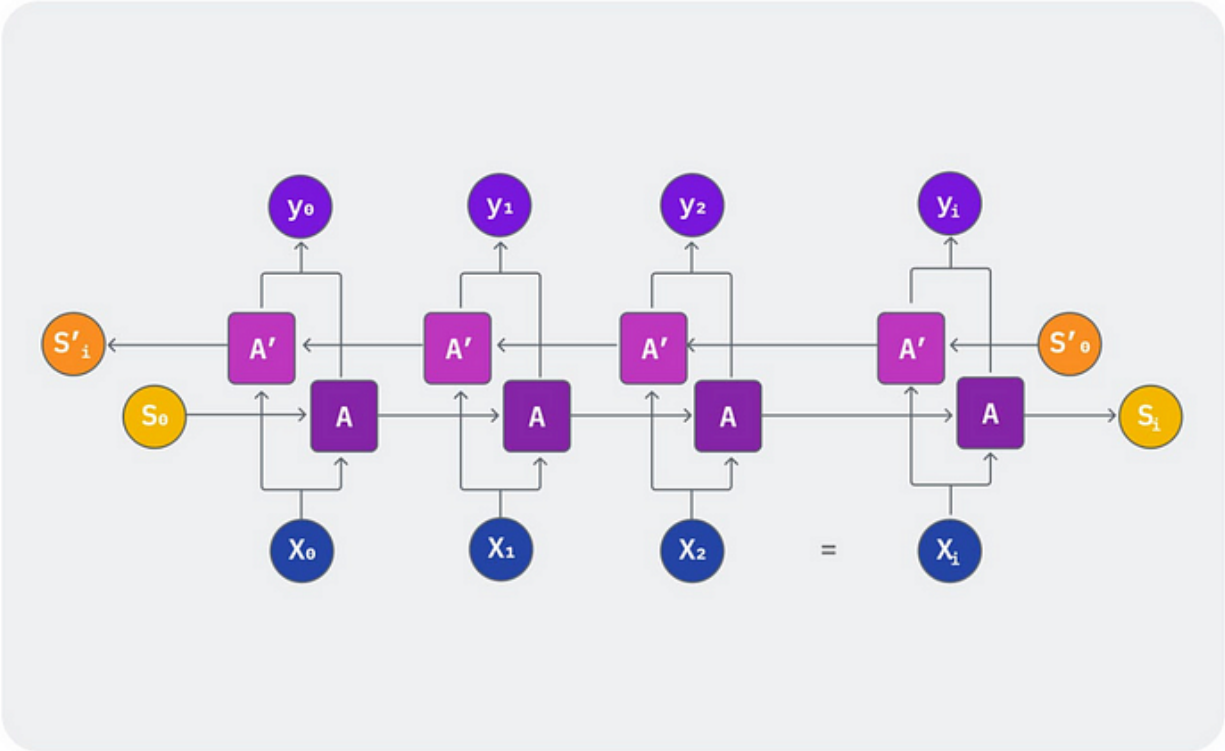
5. **Lack of Parallelism**
    - **Description**: The sequential nature of RNNs makes it difficult to parallelize computations, which can hinder efficiency and scalability.
6. **Interpretability Issues**
    - **Description**: The outputs of RNNs can be complex and difficult to interpret, especially in applications like natural language processing.

Possible Solutions

1. **Use of LSTM or GRU**
    - **Description**: Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and Gated Recurrent Units (GRUs) are designed to mitigate the vanishing gradient problem by using gating mechanisms to control the flow of information.
2. **Gradient Clipping**
    - **Description**: This technique limits the maximum value of gradients to prevent them from exploding, ensuring stable training.
3. **Batch Processing**
    - **Description**: Using techniques like mini-batch training can help improve computational efficiency by processing multiple sequences simultaneously.
4. **Attention Mechanisms**
    - **Description**: Incorporating attention mechanisms allows the model to focus on relevant parts of the input sequence, improving its ability to capture long-term dependencies.
5. **Regularization Techniques**
    - **Description**: Applying dropout and other regularization methods can help prevent overfitting and improve generalization.
6. **Choosing the Right Architecture**

- **Description**: Experimenting with different RNN architectures and hyperparameters can lead to better performance tailored to specific tasks.

1. Bidirectional recurrent neural networks (BRNN)*Bidirectional Recurrent Neural Networ*



Bidirectional RNN (Recurrent Neural Network): Overview

A **Bidirectional RNN** is a type of recurrent neural network that processes input data in both forward and backward directions. Unlike standard RNNs, which only maintain a single hidden state for input sequence in a forward direction, Bidirectional RNNs have two hidden layers, one for processing the input sequence from the beginning to the end (forward pass) and another for processing the input

sequence from the end to the beginning (backward pass). The outputs of both layers are combined, enabling the network to capture information from both past and future contexts.

How It Works:

- In a **standard RNN**, the model takes input at each time step and updates the hidden state in a single direction (from the first to the last time step). This works well when past information is critical for prediction.
- In a **Bidirectional RNN**, two hidden states are used: one moving forward through time (positive direction) and the other moving backward (negative direction). The output at each time step is then derived by combining the two hidden states (often by concatenation or summing).

Applications of Bidirectional RNNs

Bidirectional RNNs are especially useful when the prediction task at hand benefits from both past and future context. Some key applications include:

1. **Natural Language Processing (NLP):**
    - **Part-of-Speech Tagging:** Understanding the word's part of speech (noun, verb, etc.) requires information about surrounding words.
    - **Named Entity Recognition (NER):** Identifying entities (names, dates) requires understanding both prior and succeeding context.
    - **Text Classification and Sentiment Analysis:** Understanding the sentiment or category of a text benefits from both the preceding and succeeding words in a sentence.
    - **Machine Translation:** Capturing the context of both past and future words helps in generating better translations.
2. **Speech Recognition:**
    - Bidirectional RNNs are effective in speech recognition since understanding what a person is saying often requires knowing the full context of the sentence, both forward and backward.
3. **Sequence Prediction (e.g., Handwriting Recognition):**

- Recognizing a sequence of characters or digits benefits from knowing the entire sequence for better accuracy.

4. **Time Series Analysis:**
   - While forward-only RNNs are effective for predicting future values in a time series, backward RNNs help in understanding the trend and context better when a full time series is available (like stock prices or weather data).
5. **Healthcare and Bioinformatics:**
   - In predicting medical events, outcomes, or patient data, leveraging both past (previous symptoms) and future context (outcome trends) can lead to more accurate predictions.

Advantages of Bidirectional RNNs

1. **Full Context Understanding:**
   - Bidirectional RNNs can access both past and future information, leading to richer and more accurate representations of the input sequence. This is particularly valuable when predicting a target that depends on information from both directions in a sequence.
2. **Improved Performance for Long-Term Dependencies:**
   - By processing input from both directions, the model can handle long-term dependencies more effectively, which is often challenging for standard RNNs. This is especially useful in NLP tasks like language modeling and translation.
3. **Better Prediction in Tasks Needing Bidirectional Context:**
   - For tasks such as speech and text, which require understanding of the entire sequence to make predictions about a word or token, Bidirectional RNNs improve accuracy.

Disadvantages of Bidirectional RNNs

1. **Increased Computational Complexity:**

- Bidirectional RNNs effectively double the computational requirements, as they require two RNNs running in parallel (one for forward and one for backward passes). This increases the time and resources needed for both training and inference.

2. **Memory-Intensive:**
   - The need to store both forward and backward hidden states at every time step increases memory consumption, which can be a challenge when dealing with long sequences.
3. **Not Suitable for Real-Time or Streaming Data:**
   - Bidirectional RNNs require access to the entire sequence to process it in both directions. This makes them unsuitable for real-time or online applications where data arrives incrementally (e.g., predicting stock prices or real-time language translation).
4. **Overfitting Risk:**
   - Due to their complexity and ability to capture both past and future dependencies, Bidirectional RNNs may overfit to the training data, especially when dealing with small datasets.

When to Use Bidirectional RNNs?

- **When the task benefits from knowing both past and future context:**
  If you are working on a problem where the prediction at any time step is influenced by both past and future inputs (e.g., understanding a word's meaning in the context of an entire sentence or paragraph), Bidirectional RNNs can significantly improve performance.
- **When sequence data is available as a whole:**
  Bidirectional RNNs work best when you can access the entire sequence of data. If you're predicting events where the entire sequence is available (such as analyzing a complete sentence, transcript, or time series), then using a Bidirectional RNN makes sense.
- **In NLP tasks requiring deep contextual understanding:**
  Tasks like sentiment analysis, part-of-speech tagging, and machine translation can benefit greatly from a bidirectional approach.

When Not to Use Bidirectional RNNs?

- **For Real-Time Processing:**
  If you're working with real-time or streaming data where predictions need to be made as new data arrives (e.g., live speech recognition or real-time translation), Bidirectional RNNs are not suitable, as they require knowledge of both the start and the end of the sequence.
- **When Data Is Incomplete or Too Long:**
  Bidirectional RNNs can be computationally expensive and memory-intensive, especially with very long sequences. In such cases, using a simpler unidirectional RNN or more efficient alternatives like LSTMs (Long Short-Term Memory) or GRUs (Gated Recurrent Units) may be better.

Alternatives to Bidirectional RNNs:

- **Unidirectional RNNs:**
  Useful when only past information is necessary, like in stock price prediction.
- **LSTMs and GRUs:**
  These are variants of RNNs designed to handle long-term dependencies more effectively than standard RNNs, though they can also be used in a bidirectional setting.
- **Transformers:**
  Modern architectures like Transformers (used in BERT and GPT models) have largely replaced RNNs in NLP tasks due to their efficiency in capturing long-range dependencies.

Architecture and Working of LSTM :

The main components of LSTM are-

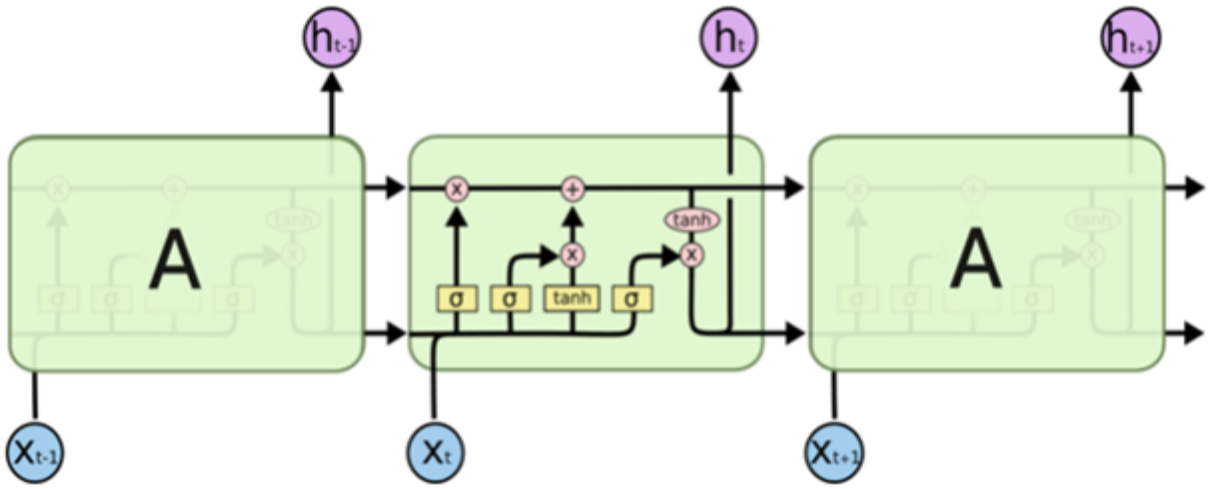
1.Memory Cell

2. Input Gate

3. Forget Gate

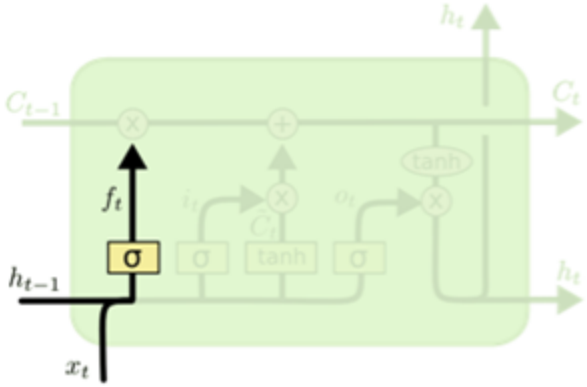
4. Output Gate

Below is the structure of LSTM. Let’s understand the operation



LSTM Architecture

1. **Forget Gate**



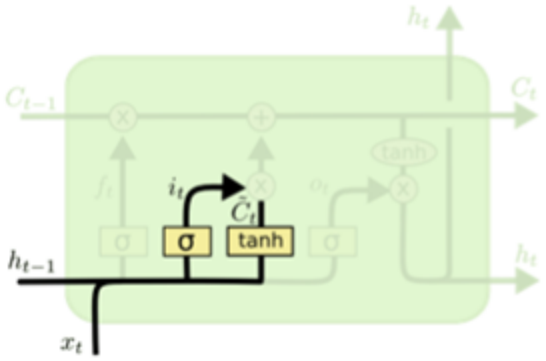
$$f_t = \sigma\left(W_f \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] \; + \; b_f\right)$$

Forget Gate

Here, the inputs ht-1 and xt are passed to the sigmoid activation function which outputs values between 0 and 1. 0 means **completely forget** and 1 means **completely retain information**. We use the sigmoid function as it acts as a gate.

Note: bf is the bias and Wf is the combined weight of the 2 inputs.

2. **Input Gate**



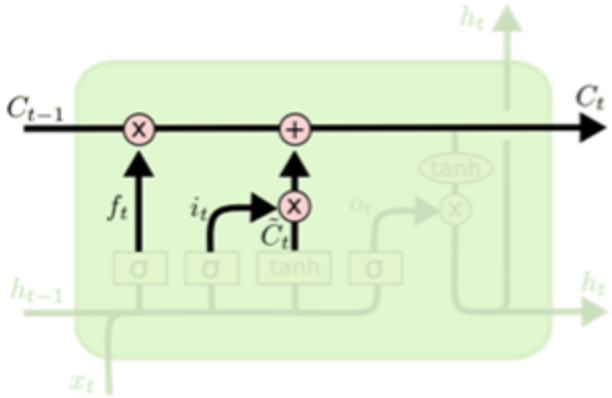
$$i_t = \sigma\left(W_i \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] \; + \; b_i\right)$$
$$\tilde{C}_t = \tanh(W_C \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] \; + \; b_C)$$

Input Gate

The motive of this stage is to identify new information and add to the cell state. This is done in 2 steps.

Step 1: The sigmoid layer outputs a value between 0 and 1 based on the inputs ht-1 and xt. as seen in the diagram above. At the same time, these inputs will be passed to the tanh layer which outputs values between -1 and 1 and creates vectors for the inputs.

Step 2: The output of the sigmoid layer and tanh layer is multiplied

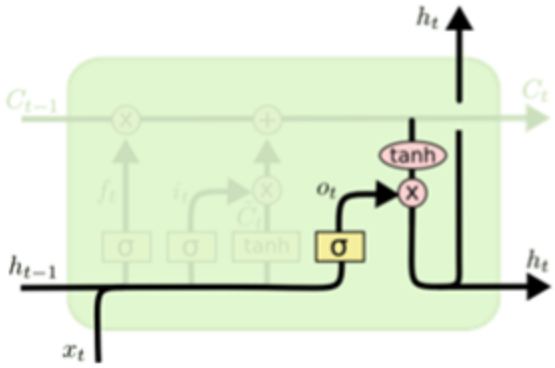


$$C_t = f_t * C_{t-1} + i_t * \tilde{C}_t$$

Updating the cell state

Now, the cell state is updated from Ct-1(previous LSTM cell output) to Ct (Current LSTM cell output) as we see above.

3.**Output Gate**



$$o_t = \sigma\left(W_o\left[h_{t-1}, x_t\right] + b_o\right)$$
$$h_t = o_t * \tanh\left(C_t\right)$$

Output Gate

First, the cell state is passed through tanh function and simultaneously we send inputs ht-1 and xt to the sigmoid function layer. Then multiplication takes place and **ht** is the output of this memory cell and is pas

working :

1. Cell State (C_t)

- **Purpose**: The cell state acts as the "long-term memory" of the LSTM. It can carry relevant information throughout the entire sequence processing without being heavily modified at each time step.
- **How it works**: The cell state can pass information directly down the sequence chain, unchanged, with minimal linear transformations, allowing the network to maintain information over many time steps.

2. Hidden State (h_t)

- **Purpose**: The hidden state represents the "short-term memory" of the LSTM and is used for making predictions. It is updated at each time step and also passed to the next time step.
- **How it works**: The hidden state is a filtered version of the cell state. It contains useful information from the cell state that is passed through the LSTM gates

and influences the output at each time step.

3. Forget Gate (f_t)

- **Purpose**: The forget gate controls which information from the previous cell state should be "forgotten" or discarded. This is crucial for removing irrelevant or outdated information from the memory.
- **How it works**: The forget gate takes the hidden state from the previous time step (h_{t-1}) and the current input (x_t), and passes them through a sigmoid function. This results in a value between 0 and 1 for each element in the cell state, where 1 means "keep everything" and 0 means "forget everything."
- **Formula**:

4. Input Gate (i_t)

- **Purpose**: The input gate controls which information from the current input should be added to the cell state. This helps in deciding what new information is important to be stored.
- **How it works**: Similar to the forget gate, the input gate uses the current input (x_t) and the previous hidden state (h_{t-1}), passes them through a sigmoid function to generate values between 0 and 1, which determine how much of the new information should be written to the cell state.

5. Candidate Cell State ($\tilde{C}_t$)

- **Purpose**: The candidate cell state represents new information that could potentially be added to the cell state. This is the information that the input gate will decide to store or discard.
- **How it works**: A `tanh` function is applied to the input and the previous hidden state to create a new candidate for the cell state. This candidate can then be added to the cell state based on the input gate's decision.
-

6. Output Gate (o_t)

- **Purpose**: The output gate controls which part of the cell state should be passed to the hidden state, which will then be used for making predictions. This gate decides how much of the current cell state should be exposed to the next layer or the final output.
- **How it works**: It takes the previous hidden state and current input, passes them through a sigmoid function, and multiplies the result by the `tanh` of the cell state to create the hidden state.
- **Formula**:

1. Why We Need LSTM:

- **Vanishing Gradient Problem:** Traditional RNNs suffer from the vanishing gradient problem, where gradients become too small, making it difficult to train the network effectively over long sequences.
- **Long-Term Dependencies:** LSTMs can learn and remember over long sequences, making them ideal for tasks that require understanding context over extended periods (e.g., language modeling, time series prediction).
- **Selective Memory:** LSTMs can decide what information to keep or forget, allowing them to maintain relevant information while discarding irrelevant data.

2. Where to Use LSTM:

- **Natural Language Processing (NLP):** Tasks like machine translation, sentiment analysis, and text generation.
- **Time Series Forecasting:** Predicting future values based on historical data (e.g., stock prices, weather forecasting).
- **Speech Recognition:** Understanding spoken language over time.
- **Video Analysis:** Analyzing sequential frames in video data.

3. Advantages of LSTM:

- **Handles Long Sequences:** LSTM's architecture is designed to manage long sequences without losing important information.

- **Prevents Vanishing Gradient:** By using gates and cell states, LSTMs mitigate the vanishing gradient problem, ensuring more stable training.
- **Flexible Memory:** The input, forget, and output gates allow LSTMs to be highly selective with the information they retain or discard.

4. Disadvantages of LSTM:

- **Complexity:** LSTM models are more complex than traditional RNNs, making them harder to train and requiring more computational resources.
- **Long Training Time:** Due to their complexity, LSTMs generally require more time to train compared to simpler models.
- **Difficulty in Tuning:** LSTM networks have many hyperparameters, making them challenging to optimize for specific tasks.

5. Key Components of LSTM:

- **Cell State:** The memory of the network, which runs through the entire LSTM unit. It helps in retaining and forgetting information.
- **Forget Gate:** Decides which information to discard from the cell state. It outputs a value between 0 and 1, where 1 means "keep" and 0 means "discard."
- **Input Gate:** Determines what new information to store in the cell state. It uses a sigmoid layer to decide which values to update and a tanh layer to create new candidate values.
- **Output Gate:** Controls what information to output from the LSTM unit. It uses the updated cell state and filters it using a sigmoid layer.

6. Comparison of LSTM with RNN:

- **RNN:**
  - Simple architecture with a single activation function (tanh).
  - Struggles with long-term dependencies due to vanishing gradients.
  - Less effective for tasks requiring memory over long sequences.
- **LSTM:**

- Complex architecture with multiple gates and cell states.
- Efficient in managing long-term dependencies.
- Handles vanishing gradient issues, making it suitable for tasks with extended sequences.

7. Example Use Cases:

- **Language Modeling:** Predicting the next word in a sentence.
- **Stock Price Prediction:** Forecasting future stock prices based on historical data.
- **Sentiment Analysis:** Determining the sentiment of a sentence based on the context provided by previous words.

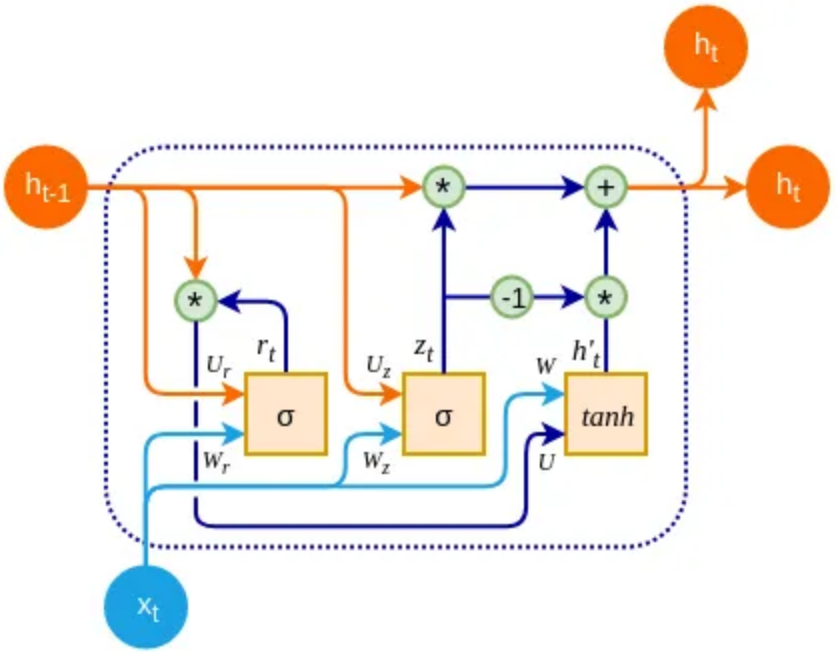
8. How LSTM Works:

- **Forget Gate:** Discards irrelevant information.
- **Input Gate:** Adds relevant new information.
- **Cell State Update:** Combines forget and input gate outputs to update the memory.
- **Output Gate:** Produces the next hidden state based on the updated cell state.

9. Conclusion:

- **LSTM Strengths:** Its ability to remember and forget over long sequences makes it powerful for sequential data tasks.
- **Overcoming RNN Limitations:** LSTMs solve the vanishing gradient problem and are more effective for complex, long-term dependency tasks.
- **Use with Caution:** Despite their advantages, LSTMs are complex and resource-intensive, requiring careful tuning and sufficient computational power for effective training.

GRU :



GRUs (Gated Recurrent Units) manage both **long-term** and **short-term memory** by using their two gates—**reset** and **update gates**—in a way that dynamically controls how much past information is retained or discarded. Here's how they work together to handle both types of dependencies:

1. Short-Term Memory (Focus on Recent Information)

- **Reset Gate (`r_t`)**: The reset gate helps the GRU focus on short-term memory by controlling how much of the previous hidden state should be **ignored** when processing the current input. If the reset gate value is close to 0, the model effectively **forgets** the previous hidden state (`h_{t-1}`), and instead focuses more on the current input (`x_t`).

  This mechanism is particularly useful when recent information is more relevant than older context, such as in tasks like predicting the next word in a sentence where immediate context is important.

  - **When to Use Short-Term Memory**: When the reset gate is active (close to 0), GRUs focus on short-term dependencies by disregarding distant past

information.

2. Long-Term Memory (Retaining Important Past Information)

- **Update Gate (`z_t`)**: The update gate controls how much of the previous hidden state (`h_{t-1}`) is carried forward to the current hidden state (`h_t`). When the update gate is close to 1, a larger portion of the **past hidden state is retained**, which helps the GRU preserve long-term dependencies. This ensures that important past information, such as context from several time steps ago, is not forgotten.

  By keeping the update gate open, the GRU can hold onto important historical context over many time steps, enabling it to remember long-term dependencies crucial for tasks like machine translation or time series forecasting.

  - **When to Use Long-Term Memory**: When the update gate is open (close to 1), GRUs focus on long-term memory by retaining useful past information and carrying it forward.

3. Balancing Long-Term and Short-Term Memory

The key to the GRU's effectiveness lies in how the **reset gate** and **update gate** balance between short-term and long-term dependencies:

- **Reset Gate (`r_t`)**: Determines **how much of the past should be ignored**. If `r_t` is close to 0, the model resets the hidden state, focusing on the most recent inputs. This allows the GRU to capture **short-term dependencies**.
- **Update Gate (`z_t`)**: Controls **how much of the new hidden state should be incorporated**. If `z_t` is close to 1, the GRU will rely more on the previous hidden state, effectively preserving **long-term dependencies** by not overwriting important past information.

When these two gates work together:

- If **both gates** decide to retain information, the GRU can **remember long-term dependencies**.
- If the **reset gate is active** and **the update gate is low**, the GRU focuses on **short-term dependencies**, essentially "forgetting" older information.

Conclusion: How GRU Handles Both Memories

- **Short-Term Memory**: By using the reset gate to "forget" past information and focus on the present.
- **Long-Term Memory**: By using the update gate to preserve useful information from earlier time steps.

Understanding Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) in Deep Learning

What is GRU?

- GRU stands for Gated Recurrent Unit, a type of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN).
- It is designed to model sequential data by allowing selective remembering or forgetting of information over time.
- GRU has a simpler architecture compared to LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory), with fewer parameters.

Why We Need GRU:

- **Efficient Training:** GRU is computationally efficient due to fewer parameters, making it faster to train, especially on smaller datasets.
- **Simpler Architecture:** The simpler structure makes it easier to implement and tune.
- **Handles Vanishing Gradient:** GRU effectively addresses the vanishing gradient problem in traditional RNNs.

When to Use GRU:

- **Limited Resources:** Ideal for scenarios where computational resources are limited.
- **Real-time Applications:** Suitable for real-time applications due to faster training times.

- **Shorter Sequences:** Works well with shorter sequences where explicit long-term memory is not critical.

How GRU is Better than LSTM:

- **Fewer Parameters:** GRU has fewer parameters, leading to faster training and less risk of overfitting.
- **Simpler Structure:** The absence of a separate memory cell state makes GRU easier to understand and implement.
- **Efficiency:** GRU often performs similarly to LSTM but with better efficiency, particularly in tasks with smaller datasets or where speed is crucial.

Advantages of GRU:

- **Computational Efficiency:** Faster training due to fewer parameters.
- **Effective Memory Management:** Selectively remembers and forgets information without a separate memory cell state.
- **Good Generalization:** Performs well across various tasks, including NLP, speech recognition, and time-series prediction.

Disadvantages of GRU:

- **Less Control Over Long-term Dependencies:** May not handle very long-term dependencies as effectively as LSTM.
- **Hyperparameter Tuning:** Requires careful tuning of hyperparameters to achieve optimal performance.
- **Prone to Overfitting:** More prone to overfitting compared to LSTM, especially on smaller datasets.

Difference Between LSTM and RNN :

1. **Architectural Complexity:**
    - LSTM: More complex with three gates (input, forget, output).
    - GRU: Simpler with two gates (reset, update).

2. **Number of Parameters:**
    - LSTM: More parameters due to additional gates.
    - GRU: Fewer parameters, making it easier to train.
3. **Memory Representation:**
    - LSTM: Has a separate cell state for long-term memory.
    - GRU: No separate cell state; directly updates the hidden state.
4. **Training Speed:**
    - LSTM: Slower due to more parameters.
    - GRU: Faster, ideal for real-time applications.