# 26 - Types of neural networks used in supervised learning Supervised Learning

| Input(x)          | Output (y)             | Application                        |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Home features     | Price                  | Real Estate Stall                  |
| Ad, user info     | Click on ad? (0/1)     | Online Advertising                 |
| Image             | Object (1,,1000)       | Photo tagging Cns)                 |
| Audio             | Text transcript        | Speech recognition \ \ \text{kmax} |
| English           | Chinese                | Machine translation                |
| Image, Radar info | Position of other cars | Autonomous driving كالمالية        |

### 31 - Backpropagation working 2

If the "W" value is changed to 4, notice the errors:

| Input | Desired<br>Output | Model<br>Output<br>(W=3) | Absolute<br>Error | Square<br>Error | Model<br>Output<br>(W=4) | Square<br>Error |
|-------|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 0     | 0                 | 0                        | 0                 | 0               | 0                        | 0               |
| 1     | 2                 | 3                        | 1                 | 1               | 4                        | 4               |
| 2     | 4                 | 6                        | 2                 | 4               | 8                        | 16              |

# How Backpropagation Algorithms Work

Note the output of the model when the "W" value is 3:

| Input | Desired Output | Model Output<br>(W=3) |  |  |
|-------|----------------|-----------------------|--|--|
| 0     | 0              | О                     |  |  |
| 1     | 2              | 3                     |  |  |
| 2     | 4              | 6                     |  |  |

Notice the difference between the actual output and the desired output:

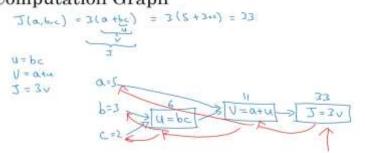
| Input | Desired<br>Output | Model Output<br>(W=3) | Absolute<br>Error | Square Error |
|-------|-------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| 0     | 0                 | 0                     | 0                 | 0            |
| 1     | 2                 | 3                     | 1                 | 1            |
| 2     | 4                 | 6                     | 2                 | 4            |

Backpropagation trains a neural network by assigning random weights to the algorithms and analyzing where the error in the system increases. When errors occur, the difference between the model output and the actual output is calculated. Once calculated, a different weight is assigned and the system is run again, to see if the error is minimized. If the error is not minimized, then an update of parameters is required

To update parameters, weights and biases are adjusted. Biases are located after weights and are in a different layer of a network, always being assigned the value of 1. After the parameters are updated, the process is run again. Once the error is at a minimum, the model is ready to start predicting.

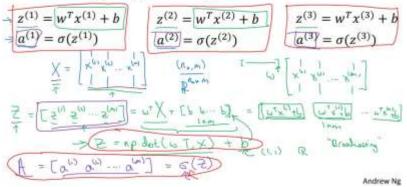
In looking at the diagram below, if "W" also known as weight is changed, then the error of the system goes up, if "W" is changed into a smaller number the error goes down. Once the error is as close to zero as possible that weight is set as the parameter and the model can start predicting.

### 31 - computational graph Computation Graph

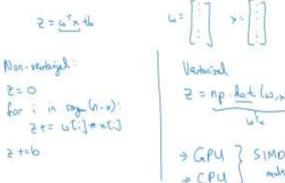


34 - vectorization 3

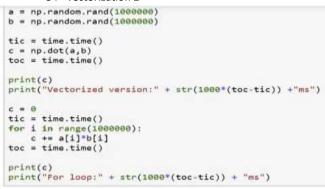
### Vectorizing Logistic Regression



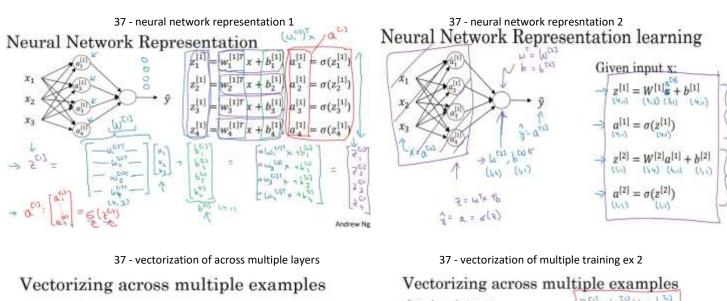
### 34 - vectorization

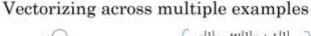


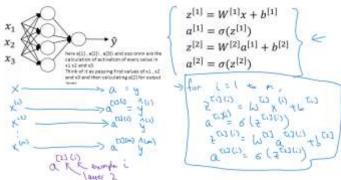
### 34 - vectorization 2

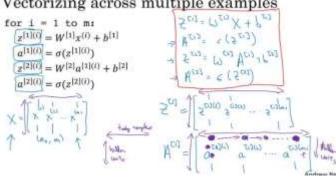


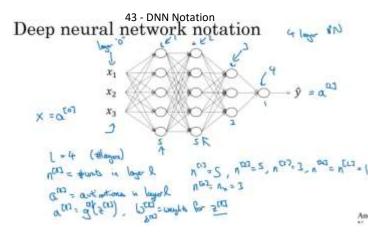
250286.989866 Vectorized version:1.5027523040771484ms 250286.989866 For loop:474.29513931274414ms



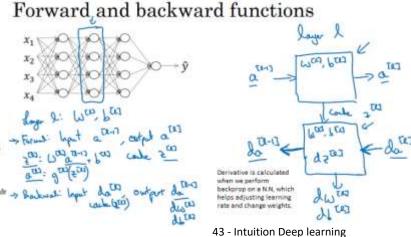




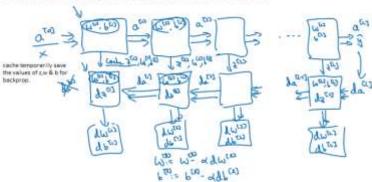




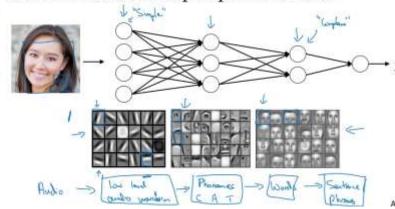
43 - Forward and Back Prop Intuition 1

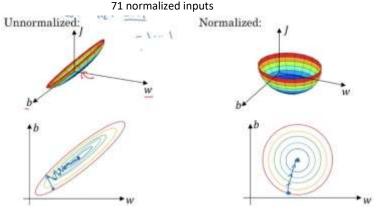


43 - Forward and Back Prop Intuition 2 Forward and backward functions



Intuition about deep representation





78 - gradient descent momentum. 1

### Implementation details

Van= 0, Vu=0

On iteration t:

Compute dW, db on the current mini-batch

$$\Rightarrow v_{dW} = \beta v_{dW} + (N - \beta) dW$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{db} = \beta v_{db} + (N - \beta) db$$

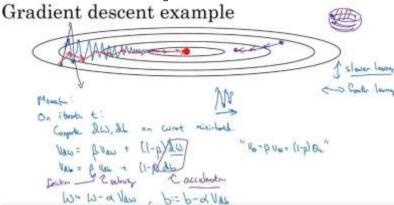
$$W = W - \alpha v_{dW}, \ b = b - \alpha v_{db}$$

Hyperparameters: 
$$\alpha, \beta$$

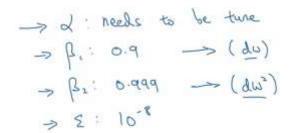
$$\beta = 0.9$$

# Bias correction $v_t = \beta v_{t-1} + (1-\beta)\theta_t$ $v_t = 0$ $v_t = 0$

78 - gradient descent momentum

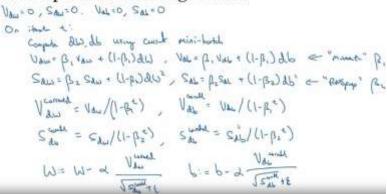


# Hyperparameters choice:

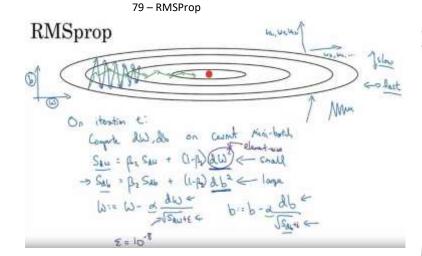


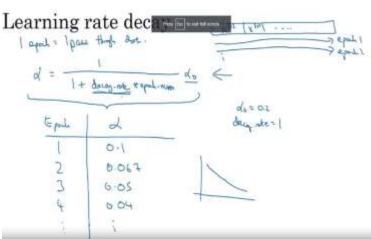
Adam: Adaptu momet estiration

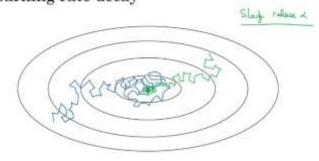
Adam optimization algorithm



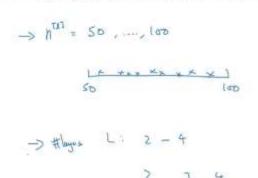
80 - learning rate decay 1



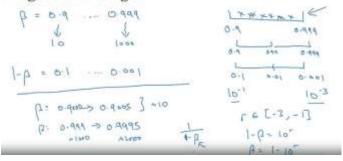




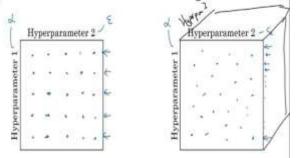
81 - 2Picking hyperparameters at random



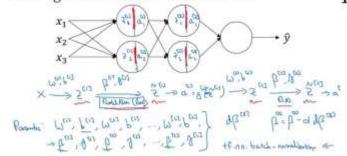
for exponentially Hyperparameters weighted averages



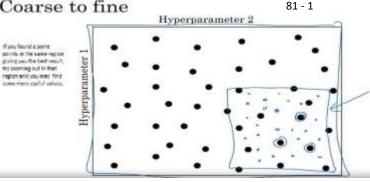
Try random values: Don't use a grid



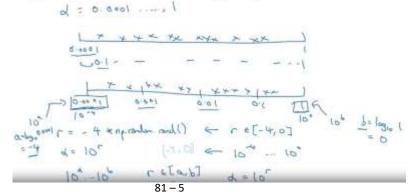
82 - implementation of batch norm in a n.n Adding Batch Norm to a network



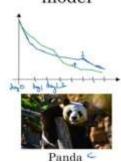
### Coarse to fine



Appropriate scale for hyperparameters

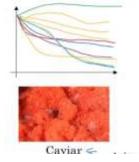


### Babysitting one model



82 - batch norm vs regularization Batch Norm as regularization

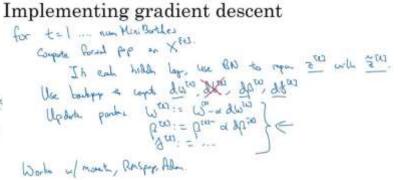
### Training many models in parallel

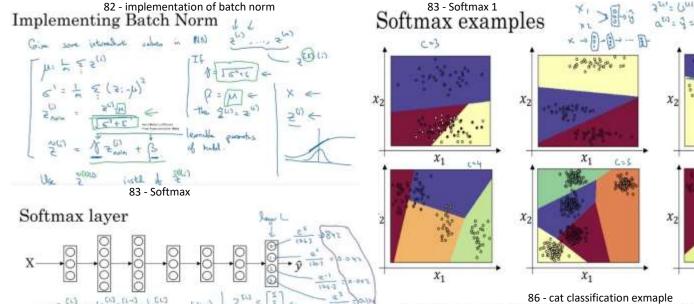


- Each mini-batch is scaled by the mean/variance computed on just that mini-batch.
- ullet This adds some noise to the values  $z^{\{l\}}$  within that minibatch. So similar to dropout, it adds some noise to each hidden layer's activations. 4, ==
- . This has a slight regularization effect.

Michaelle 69 - 512

### 82 - implementation of batch norm on gradient descent





88 - dev and test for inappropriate images

### Another example

Algorithm A: 3% error ✓ Algorithm B: 5% error ←



If doing well on your metric + dev/test set does not correspond to doing well on your application, change your metric and/or dev/test set.

### 89 - assumptions related to Supervised Learning The two fundamental assumptions of supervised learning

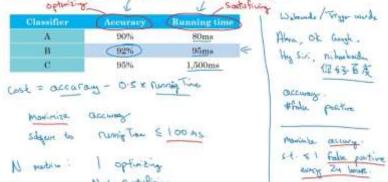
1. You can fit the training set pretty well.



2. The training set performance generalizes pretty well to the dev/test set.

prince B

Another cat classification example



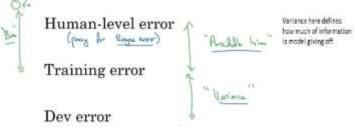
Andrew Ng

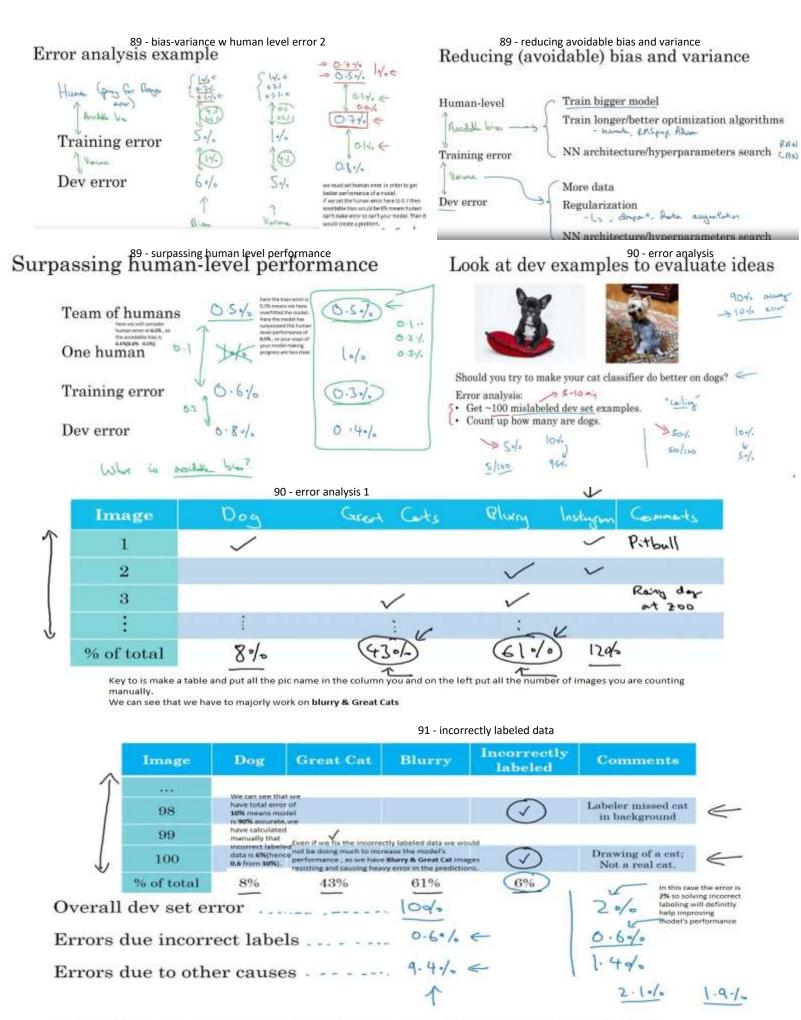
# Why compare to human-level performance

Humans are quite good at a lot of tasks. So long as ML is worse than humans, you can:

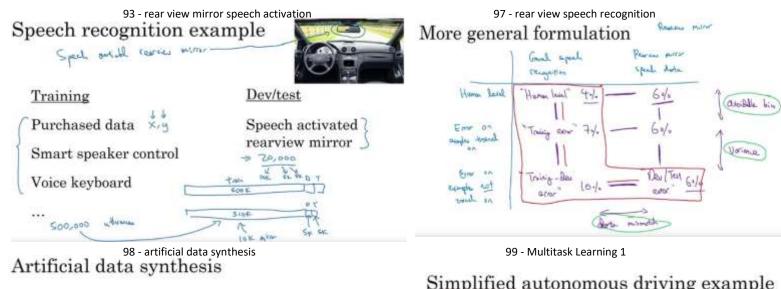
- Get labeled data from humans. (x,y)
- Gain insight from manual error analysis: Why did a person get this right?
- Better analysis of bias/variance.
  - 89 bias-variance w human level error 1

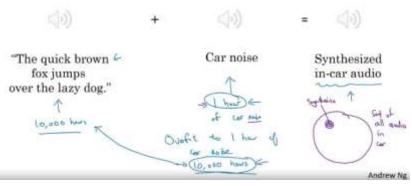
# Summary of bias/variance with human-level performance



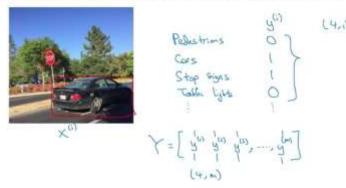


Goal of dev set is to help you select between two classifiers A & B.

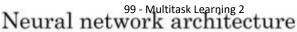


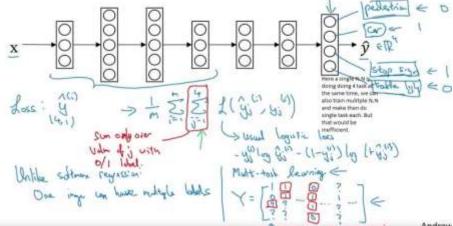


# Simplified autonomous driving example



99 - Multitask Learning 3





100 - end to end DL using face recognition

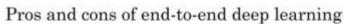
# When multi-task learning makes sense

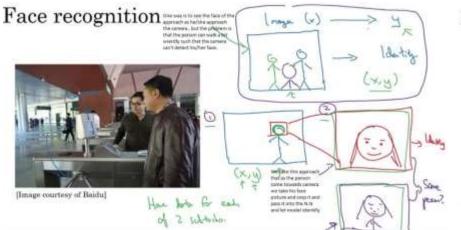
- Training on a set of tasks that could benefit from having shared lower-level features.
- · Usually: Amount of data you have for each task is quite similar.



· Can train a big enough neural network to do well on all the tasks.

100.1 - end to end DL Pros n Cons





Pros:

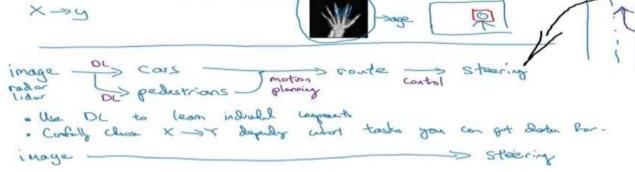
- Let the data speak
- Less hand-designing of components needed

- · May need large amount of data
- Excludes potentially useful hand-designed components

# Applying end-to-end deep learning

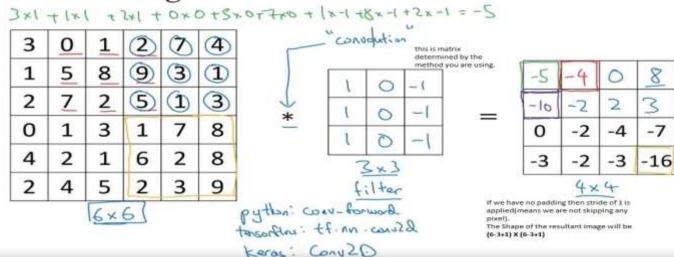
Key question: Do you have sufficient data to learn a function of the complexity needed to map x to y?

Andew said End to End DL approach is less promising than more sophisticated



103 - Edge detection In C.N.N

# Vertical edge detection

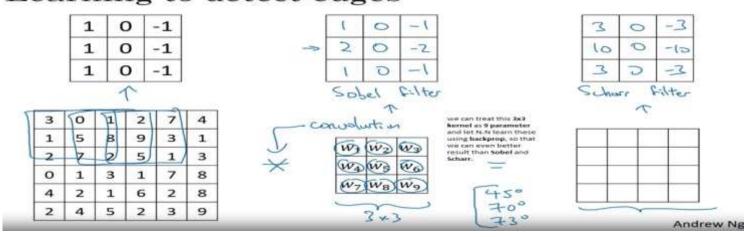


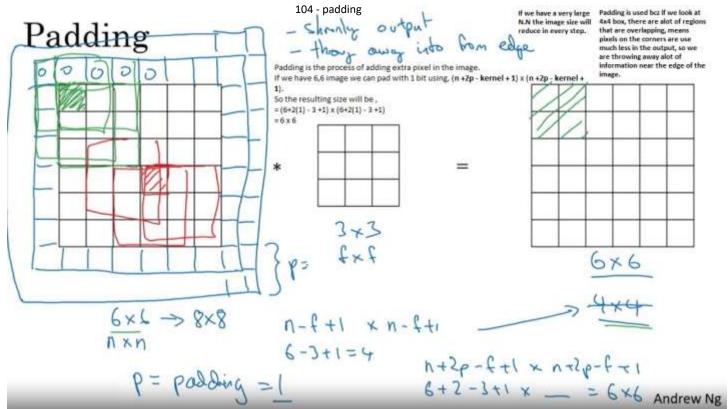
103 - Edge detection In C.N.N 1

# Vertical edge detection

| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 |      |   |      |    |   | 4 |    |     |   |
|----|----|-----|---|---|---|------|---|------|----|---|---|----|-----|---|
| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 |      |   | 1    |    |   | 0 | 30 | 30  | 0 |
| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 | ale: | 1 | 0    | 1  |   | 0 | 30 | 30  | 0 |
| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 | *    | 1 | 0    | -1 | = | 0 | 30 | 30  | 0 |
| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 |      | 1 | 3 ×3 |    |   | 0 | 30 | 30  | 0 |
| 10 | 10 | 10  | 0 | 0 | 0 |      |   |      |    |   |   | 1  | 4×4 |   |
|    |    | 6 x |   |   |   | *    |   |      | L  |   |   |    |     |   |

# Learning to detect edges

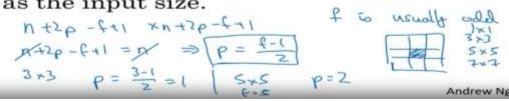




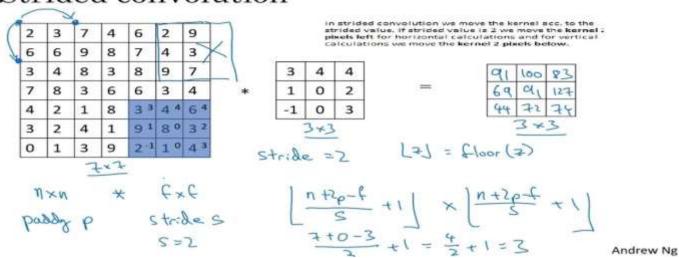
# Valid and Same convolutions

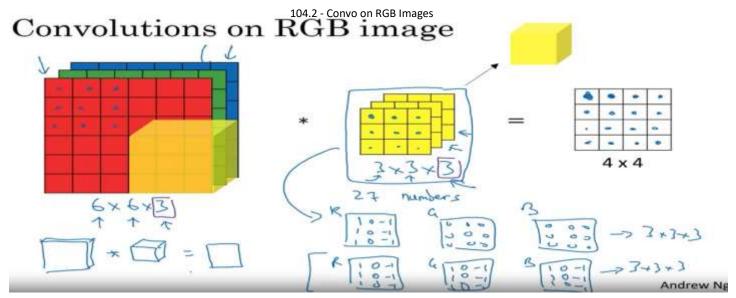


"Same": Pad so that output size is the same as the input size.



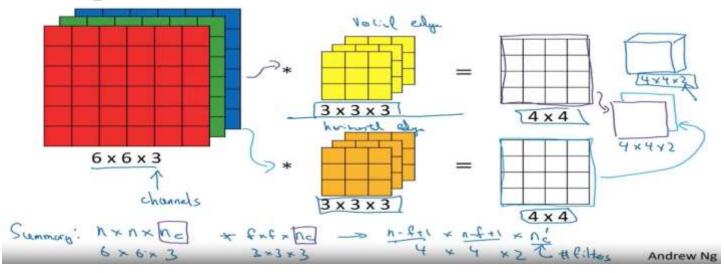
# Strided convolution 104 - strided convolutions



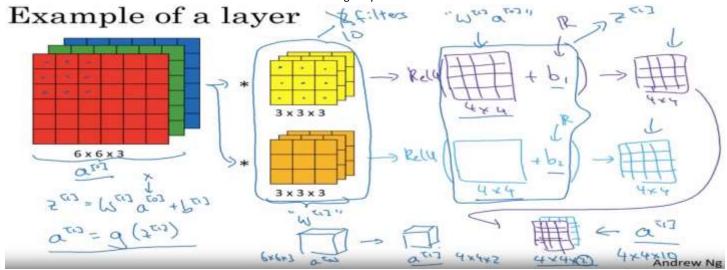


104.3 - Convo on RGB Images using multiple filters

# Multiple filters



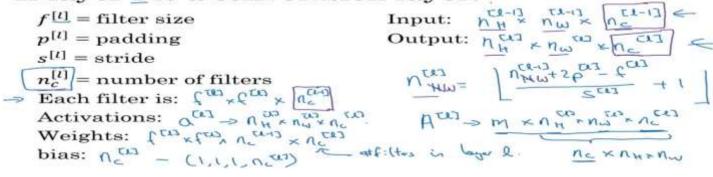
104.4 - Single layer of a C.N.N 1



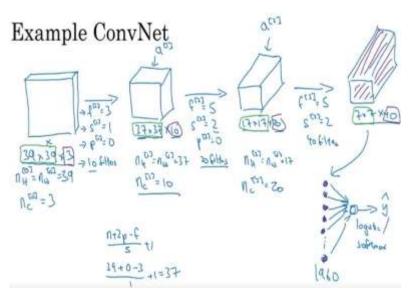
104.4 - Single layer of a C.N.N 2 notations

### Summary of notation

If layer 1 is a convolution layer:

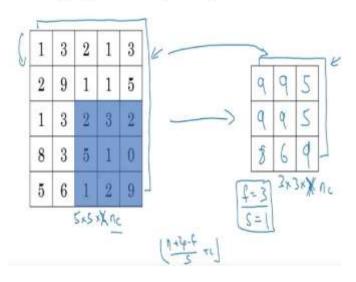


106.1 Simple C.N.N example



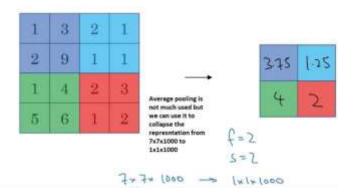
108 - Max pooling

# Pooling layer: Max pooling



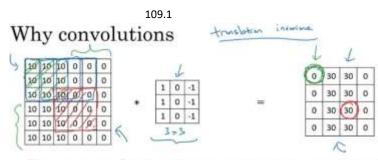
108.1 - average pooling 1

### Pooling layer: Average pooling



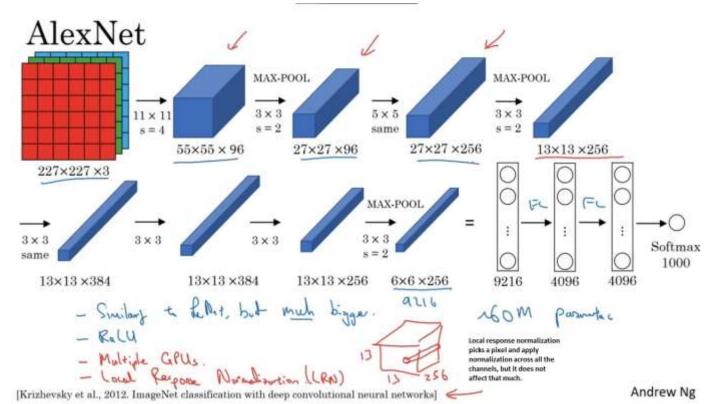
### Neural network example

|                  | Activation shape | Activation Size         | # parameters |
|------------------|------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| Input:           | (32,32,3)        | _ 3,072 a <sup>53</sup> | 0            |
| CONV1 (f=5, s=1) | (28,28,6)        | 4,704                   | 456 <        |
| POOL1            | (14,14,6)        | 1,176                   | 0 <          |
| CONV2 (f=5, s=1) | (10,10,16)       | 1,600                   | 2,416←       |
| POOL2            | (5,5,16)         | 400                     | 0 ←          |
| FC3              | (120,1)          | 120                     | 48,120 7     |
| FC4              | (84,1)           | 84                      | 10,164       |
| Softmax          | (10,1)           | 10                      | 850          |

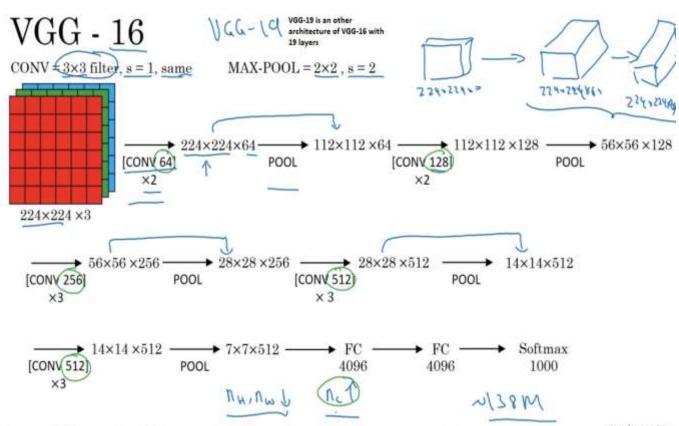


**Parameter sharing:** A feature detector (such as a vertical edge detector) that's useful in one part of the image is probably useful in another part of the image.

Sparsity of connections: In each layer, each output value depends only on a small number of inputs.

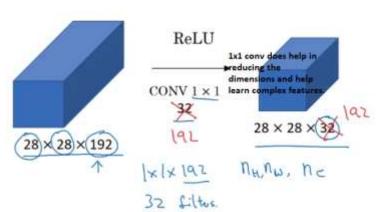


115 - VGG-16

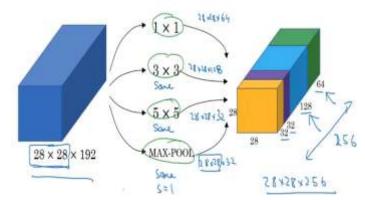


### 121.1

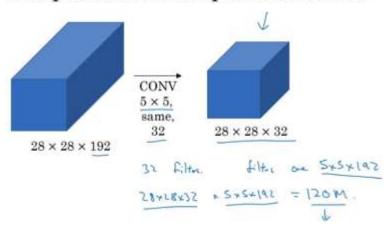
# Using 1×1 convolutions

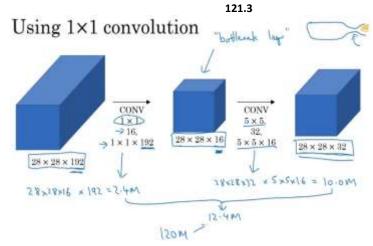


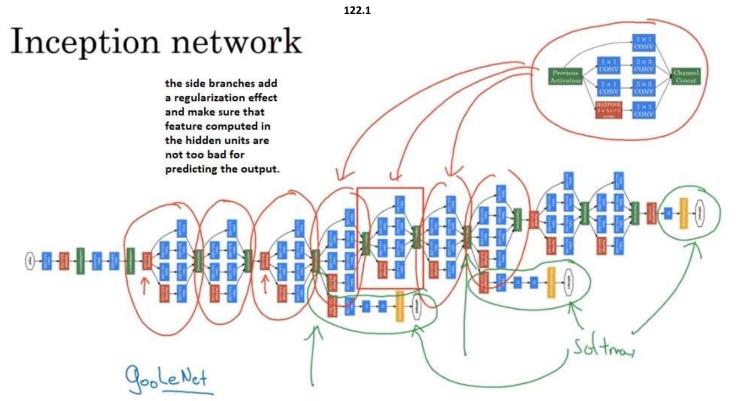
# Motivation for inception network

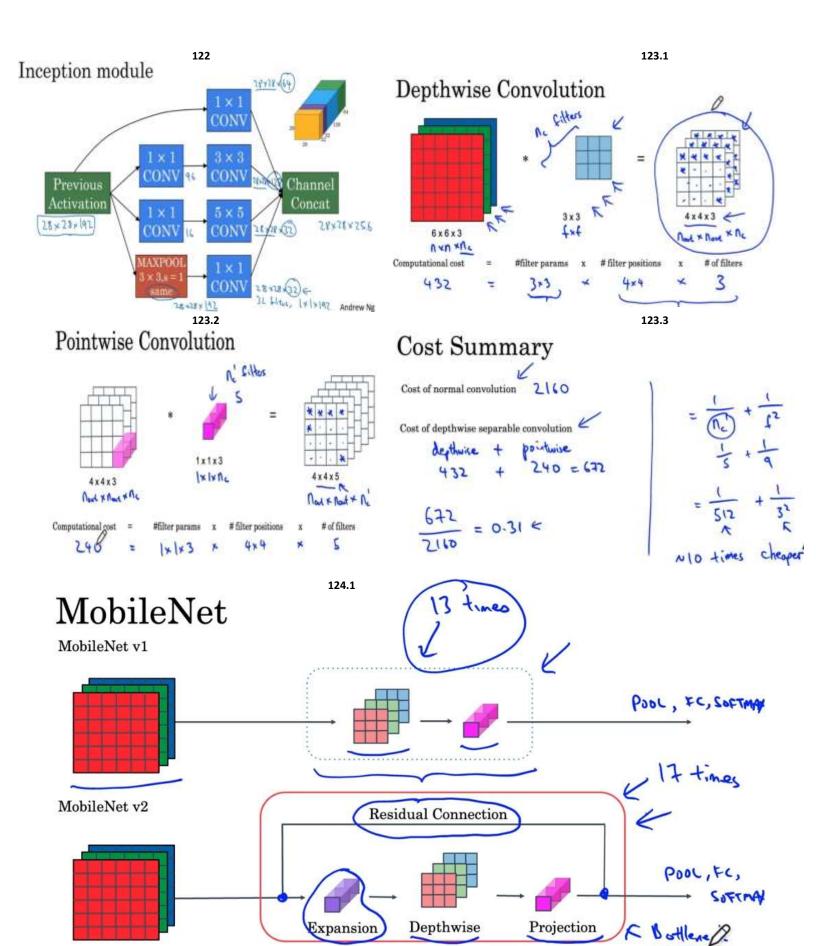


The problem of computational cost Using 1×1 convolution

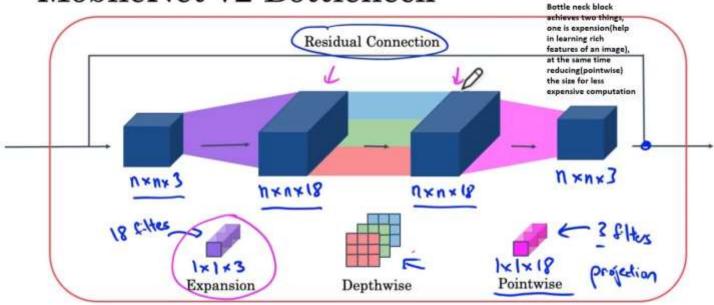


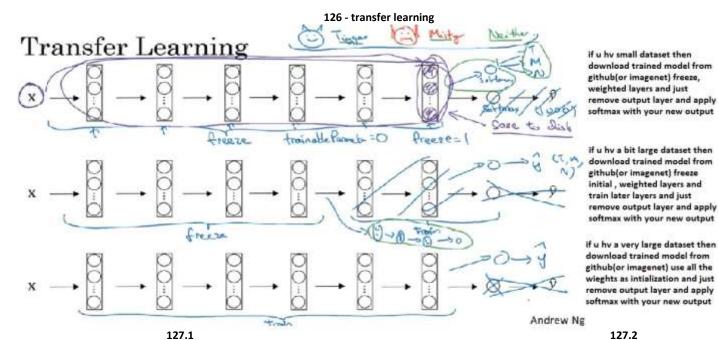


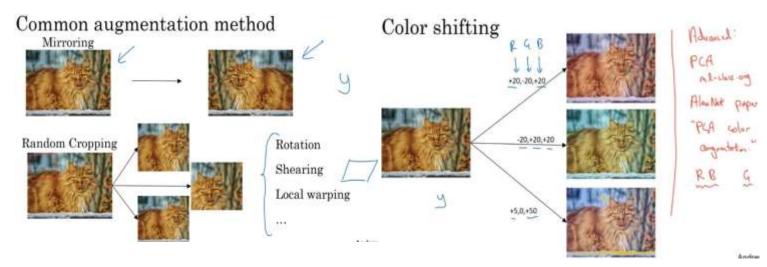




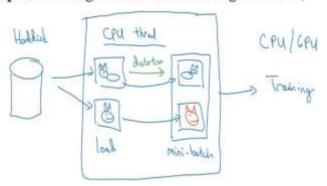
# MobileNet v2 Bottleneck







# Implementing distortions during trainin;



Landmark detection



computer vision task that involves detecting and localizing specific points or landmarks on a face, such as the eyes, nose, mouth, and chin. The goal is to accurately identify these landmarks in images or videos of faces in real-time and use them for various applications, such as face recognition, facial expression analysis, and head pose estimation.

 $b_x, b_y, b_h, b_w$ 

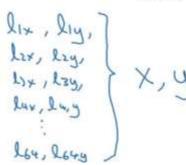


we can label the point

in order to identify the

landmarks, whether

the landmarks belong to face or legs or arms



lix, liy,

i

lzi, lzi

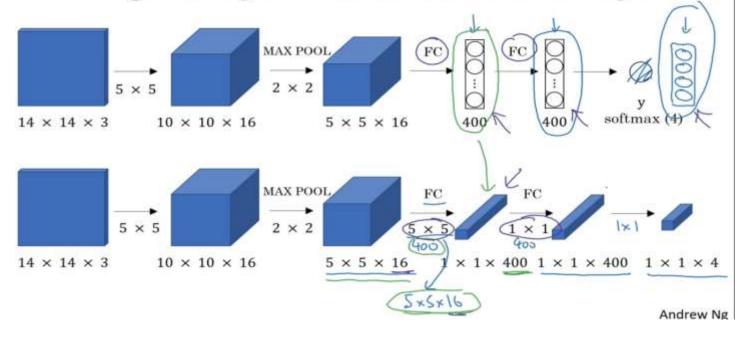
And

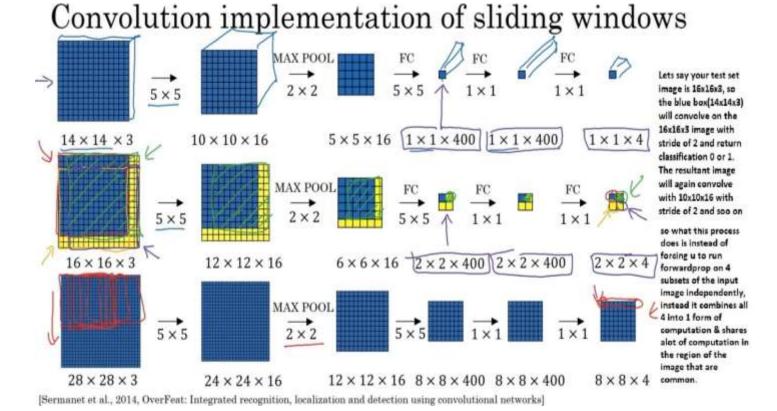
132.1

Some.

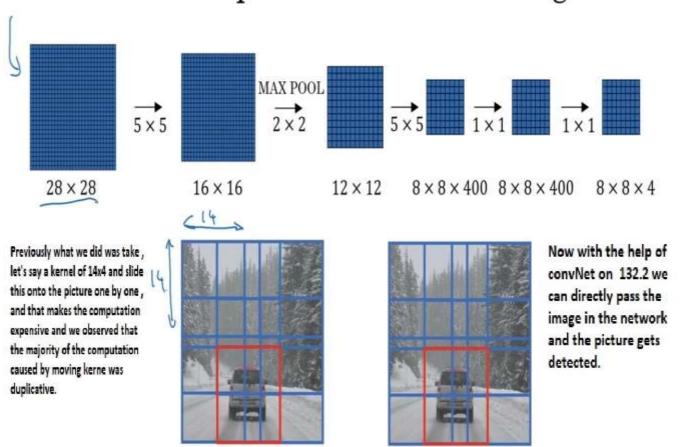
129

Turning FC layer into convolutional layers





# Convolution implementation of sliding windows



# Specify the bounding boxes

100 (1,1) 100 (1

Here's how YOLO works in more detail: 133.3

Input image: YOLO takes an input image of any size and divides it into a grid of cells.

Anchor boxes: Each grid cell predicts a fixed number of anchor boxes, which are predefined boxes of different shapes and sizes. Each anchor box is represented by its center coordinates, width, height, and a confidence score, which represents the probability that the box contains an object.

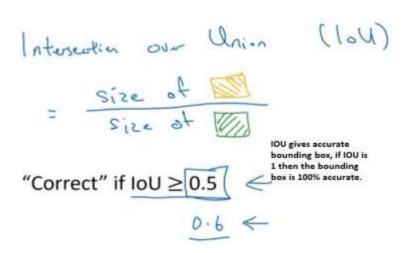
Class probabilities: For each anchor box, YOLO predicts class probabilities for each object class that the model has been trained to detect. These probabilities represent the probability that the object inside the box belongs to a particular class.

Non-max suppression: After prediction, YOLO applies non-maximum suppression (NMS) to remove overlapping bounding boxes and keep only the most confident predictions.

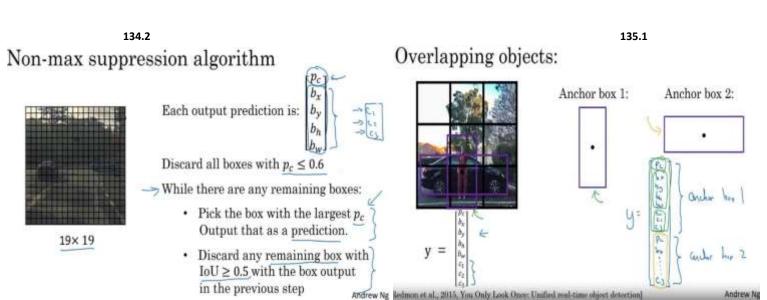
Output: The final output of YOLO is a set of bounding boxes and class probabilities for each object detected in the input image.

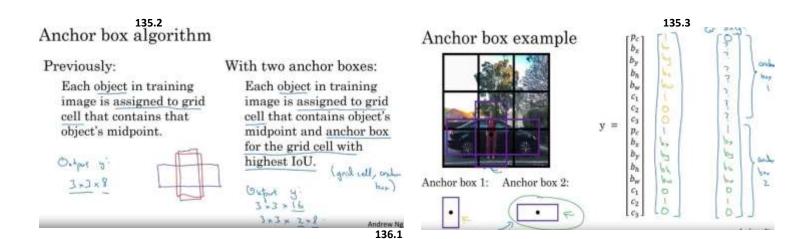
# Evaluating object localization

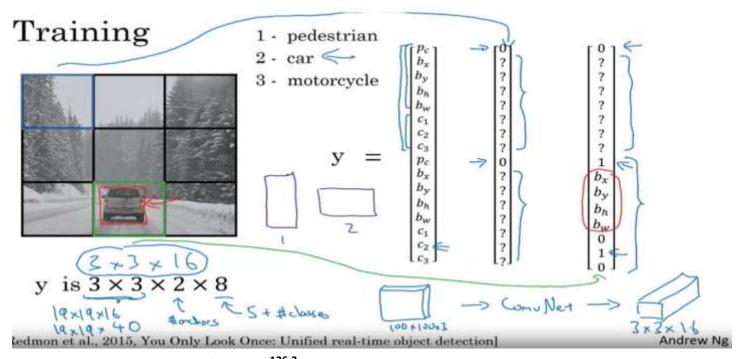




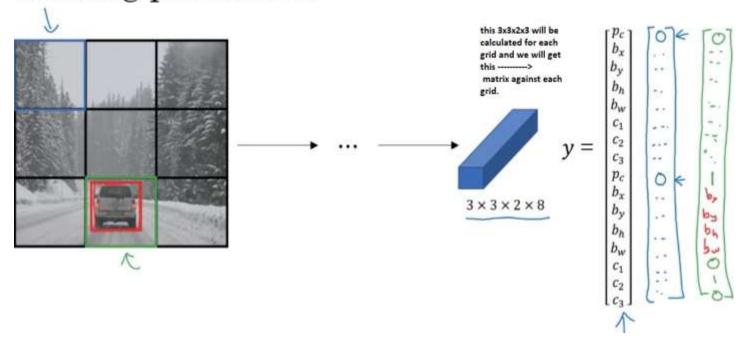
More generally, IoU is a measure of the overlap between two bounding boxes.







# Making predictions



# Outputting the non-max supressed outputs



For each grid call, get 2 predicted bounding

Each grid will have 2 anchor boxes of different class.



Get rid of low probability predictions.



· For each class (pedestrian, car, motorcycle) use non-max suppression to generate final predictions.

Here's how RCNN works in more detail:

Region proposal: The first step in RCNN is to generate a set of region proposals using a separate algorithm, such as Selective Search. Selective Search combines low-level and high-level image features to identify regions that are likely to contain objects.

Feature extraction: For each proposed region, RCNN uses a deep convolutional neural network (CNN) to extract a fixed-length feature vector. This feature vector captures the salient features of the proposed region.

136.4

Classification: The feature vector is then fed into a set of fully connected layers, which are trained to classify the object in the proposed region into one of several classes. These classes typically correspond to different object categories, such as "car", "person", "dog", etc.

Bounding box regression: In addition to classifying the object, RCNN also predicts the object's bounding box coordinates (i.e., the object's location and size within the proposed region) using a separate set of fully connected layers.

Non-maximum suppression: After classification and bounding box regression, RCNN applies nonmaximum suppression (NMS) to remove overlapping bounding boxes and keep only the most confident predictions.

detected in the input image.

Output: The final output of RCNN is a set of bounding boxes and class probabilities for each object

Conlvolving an image is an expensive task, so what R-CNN does is it applies the segmentation algorithm and creates multiple segments of an image, which makes it easier to identify objects since it makes

# Region proposal: R-CNN



136.5

multiple blobs which reduces the effort to find Segnestatul algorithm

000 J N

Girshik et. al, 2013, Rich feature hierarchies for accurate object detection and semantic segmentation] Andrew Ng

# Faster algorithms

136.6

137.1

→ R-CNN:

Propose regions. Classify proposed regions one at a

time. Output label + bounding box.

Proposal generation: Like other region-based methods, Fast R-CNN relies on a separate algorithm to generate region proposals, such as Selective Search, which

Fast R-CNN:

Propose regions. Use convolution implementation of sliding windows to classify all the proposed

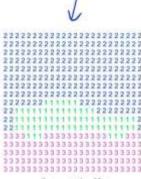
regions.

Faster R-CNN: Use convolutional network to propose regions.

### Per-pixel class labels



1. Car 2. Building 3. Road



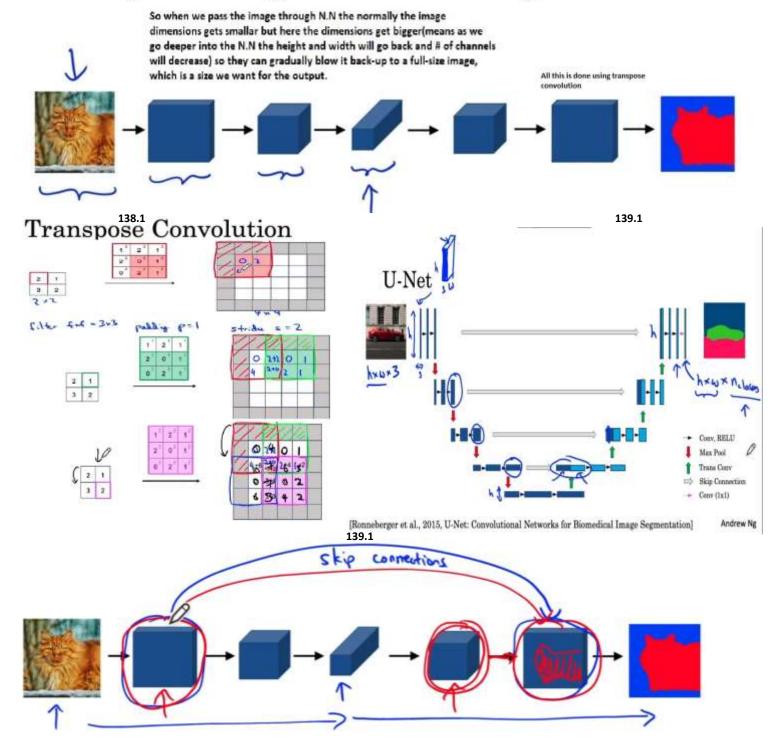
Segmentation Map

[Girshik et. al, 2013. Rich feature hierarchies for accurate object detection and semantic segmentation] [Girshik, 2015, Fast R-CNN]

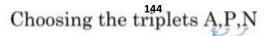
[Ren et. al, 2016. Faster R-CNN: Towards real-time object detection with region proposal networks]

Andrew Ng

# Deep Learning for Semantic Segmentation



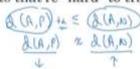
By reducing the channels we againmake picture bigger using transpose convolution and by skipping connection we are making sure that N.N knows where in the original image the cat located.



During training, if A,P,N are chosen randomly,  $d(A, P) + \alpha \le d(A, N)$  is easily satisfied.

I COO-COID, + x = [C(4)-CONY,

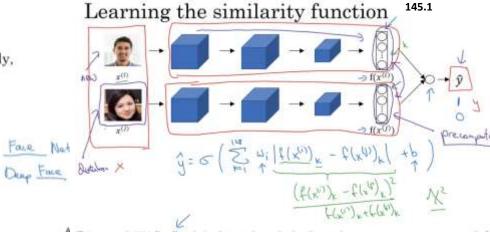
Choose triplets that're "hard" to train on.



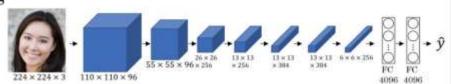
Schroff et al., 2015, FaceNet: A unified embedding for face recognition and clustering



Taigman et. al., 2014. DeepFace closing the gap to human level performance.



# Face verification supervised learning Visualizing what a deep network is learning



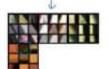
Pick a unit in layer 1. Find the nine image patches that maximize the unit's activation.

Repeat for other units.



146.2

147.2



Zeiler and Fergus., 2013, Visualizing and understanding convolutional networks]

Andrew Ng

# Visualizing deep layers



Layer 1







Style(S)

Layer 2





Layer 3



Layer 4



Layer 5

Content cost function

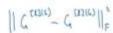
 $J(G) = \alpha J_{content}(C, G) + \beta J_{style}(S, G)$ 

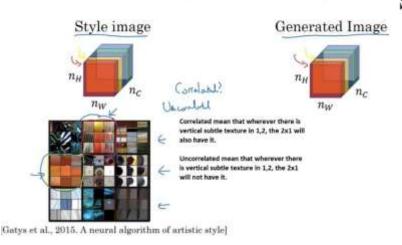
- Say you use hidden layer l to compute content cost.
- Use pre-trained ConvNet. (E.g., VGG network)
- Let  $a^{[l](C)}$  and  $a^{[l](G)}$  be the activation of layer lon the images
- If  $a^{[l](C)}$  and  $a^{[l](G)}$  are similar, both images have similar content  $\int_{C_{1}} \int_{C_{2}} \int_{C_{1}} \int_{C_{2}} \int_{C_{2$

If J(C,G) is greater, this reprsents that the generated image will be more similar to content image, and if J(S,G) is greater then this reprsents that the generated image will be more similar to Style image, the hyperparameters are there to incentivize these J(C,G) and J(S,G).

# Intuition about style of an image

# Style cost function



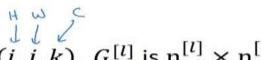


$$\begin{split} J_{style}^{[l]}(S,G) &= \\ \frac{1}{(2n_H^{[l]}n_W^{[l]}n_C^{[l]})^2} \sum_k \sum_{k'} \left( G_{kk'}^{[l](S)} - G_{kk'}^{[l](G)} \right)^2 \\ &= \int_{\text{Style}} \left( \text{S,G} \right) = \sum_k \sum_{k'} \int_{\text{Style}}^{\text{TL}} \left( \text{S,G} \right) \end{split}$$

149.2

148.3

# Style matrix



Let  $\mathbf{a}_{i,j,k}^{[l]} = \text{activation at } (i,j,k). \quad \underline{G^{[l]}} \text{ is } \underline{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{c}}^{[l]}} \times \underline{\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{c}}^{[l]}}$ 

148.2

$$\Rightarrow C_{kk'} = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} C_{ijk} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'} C_{ijk'}$$

 $G_{kk'}^{[l](G)}=\sum_{i=1}^{n_H}\sum_{j=1}^{n_W}a_{i,j,k}^{[l](G)}a_{i,j,k'}^{[l](G)}$   $rac{\int_{\mathsf{Calculates\ how\ correlated\ the\ activations\ are\ in}}{}$ 

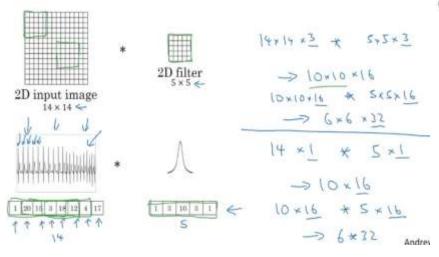
$$\int_{\text{Style}} \left( S \right) = \left\| \left( C_{LD}(C) - C_{LD}(C) \right) \right\|_{E}^{E}$$

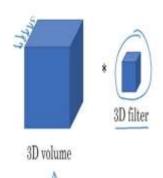
$$= \frac{\left( C_{LD}(C) - C_{LD}(C) \right)}{\left( C_{LD}(C) - C_{LD}(C) \right)^{2}} = \frac{\left( C_{LD}(C) - C_{LD}(C) \right)^{2}}{\left( C_{LD}(C) - C_{LD}(C) \right)^{2}}$$

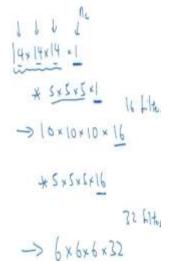
149.1

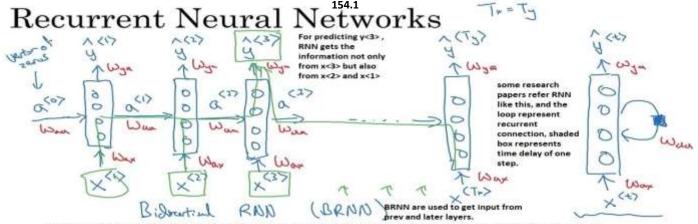
### Convolutions in 2D and 1D

# 3D convolution





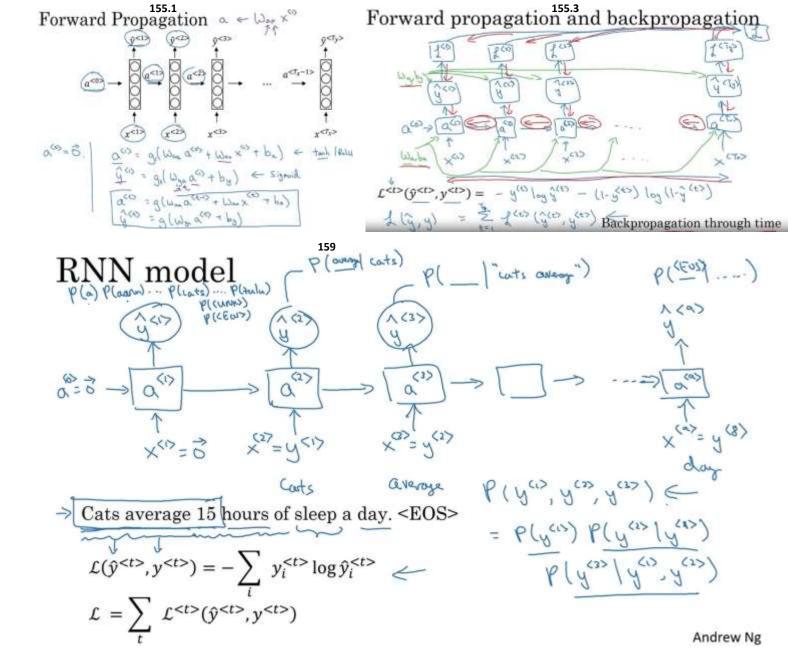


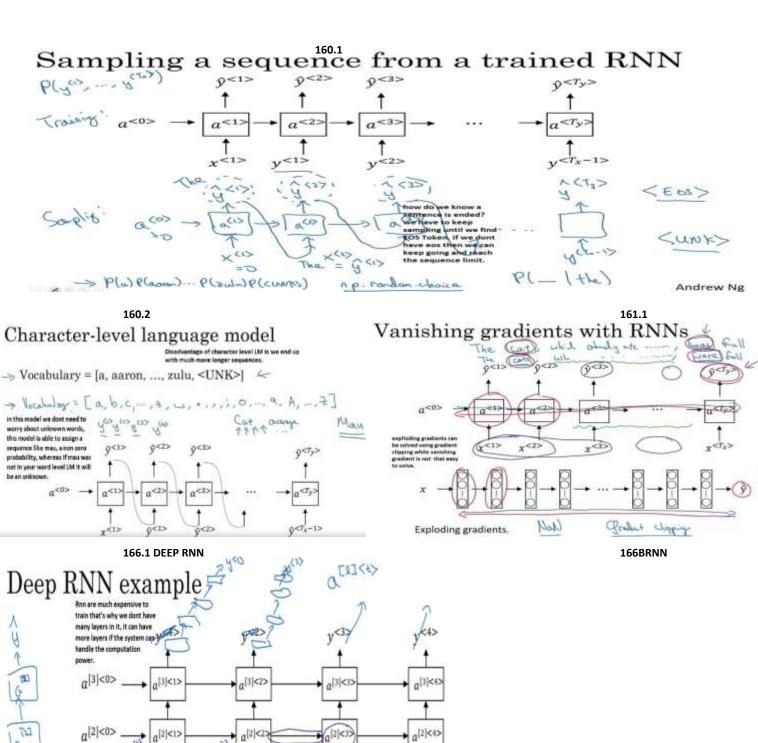


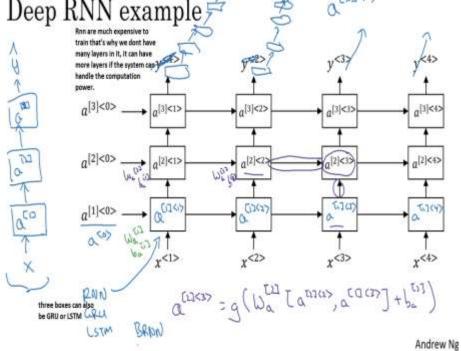
Downside is that RNN only uses the info that is in the erlier in the seq to predict y<3>, it does not use info from x<4>,x<5> and so on Below we can see given the first three words it not possible to predict whether teddy is part of a person's name. In the first eg it is, in the 2nd it is not.

He said, "Teddy Roosevelt was a great President."

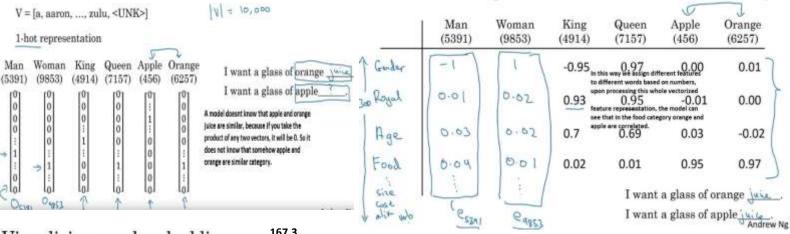
He said, "Teddy bears are on sale!"







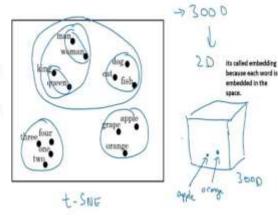
# Featurized representation: word embedding



### Visualizing word embeddings

167.3

The t-SNE algorithm calculates a similarity measure between pairs of instances in the high dimensional space and in the low dimensional space. It then tries to optimize these two similarity measures using a cost function.



### 168.1 Transfer learning and word embeddings

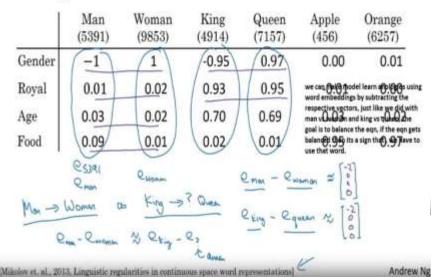
- 1. Learn word embeddings from large text corpus. (1-100B words)
  - (Or download pre-trained embedding online.)
  - 2. Transfer embedding to new task with smaller training set, (say, 100k words) -) 10,000
    - 3. Optional: Continue to finetune the word embeddings with new

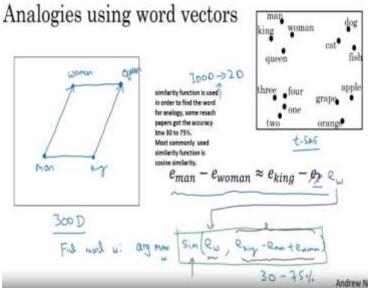
Andrew Ng

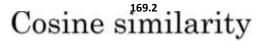
169.1

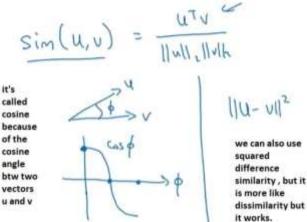
# 168.2 Analogies

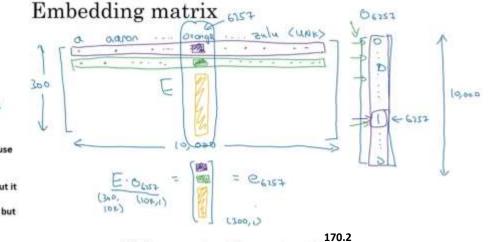
can Jee Master and History, 2008. Visualizing data using t-SNE



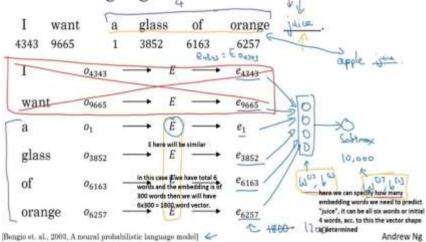




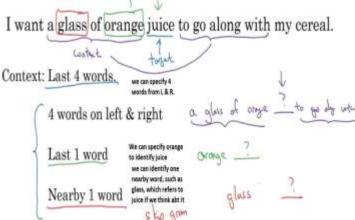




# Neural language model



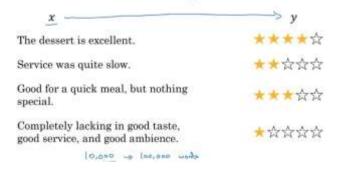




# Model 178.1 Minimize $\sum_{i=1}^{12,100} \sum_{i=1}^{12,100} \sum_{i=1}^{12,100}$

Sentiment classification problem

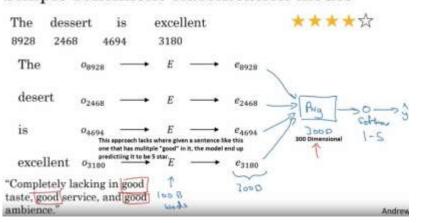
179.1

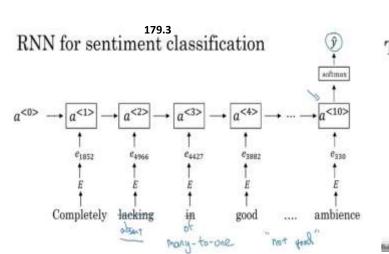


# A note on the featurization view of word embeddings

| ·      |        | Woman<br>(9853)                             |             | COLUMN TO SECURE OF THE SECURE |   | E Trans                  |        |
|--------|--------|---|-------------|--|---|--------------------------|--------|
| Gender | -1     | 1   | -0.95       | 0.97   | - |                          | -72 WI |
| Royal  | 0.01   | 0.02  | 0.93        | 0.95   | < | 1                        |        |
| Age    | 0.03   | 0.02  | 0.70        | 0.69   | 4 | 1                        | ander  |
| Food   | 0.09   | 0.01  | 0.02        | 0.01   | - |                          | 4      |
| minir  | nize ∑ | 10,000 Σ <sup>1</sup><br>(=1 Σ <sup>1</sup> | 0,000<br>=1 | $(X_{ij})(\theta$  |   | $-b_j' - \log X_{ij})^2$ | a      |

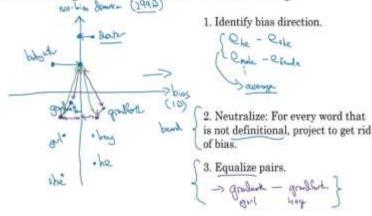
# Simple sentiment classification model





### 180.2

# Addressing bias in word embeddings



### The problem of bias in word embeddings

Man:Woman as King:Queen

Man:Computer\_Programmer as Woman: Homemaker X

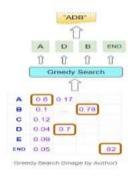
Father:Doctor as Mother: Nurse X

Word embeddings can reflect gender, ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, and other biases of the text used to train the model.

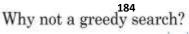
### **Greedy Search**

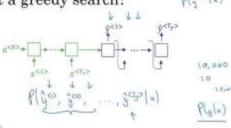
184.1

A fairly obvious way is to simply take the word that has the highest probability at each position and predict that. It is quick to compute and easy to understand, and often does produce the correct result.



In fact, Greedy Search is so easy to understand, that we don't need to spend more time explaining it (D). But can we do better?

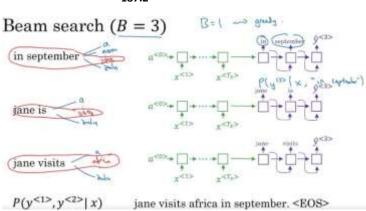


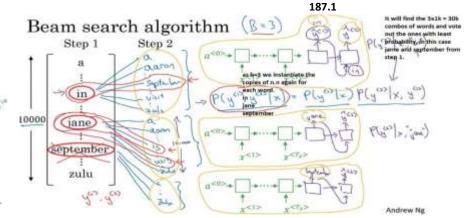


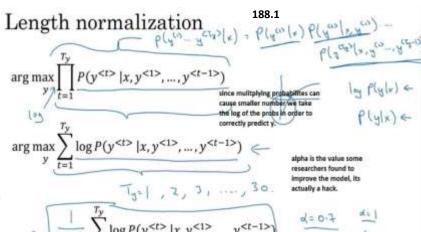
- Jane is visiting Africa in September,
- Jane is going to be visiting Africa in September.

  γ() ω ω ω ω ω ν γ (ω) > γ() ω ω ω ω γ (ω)

187.2







Beam search discussion

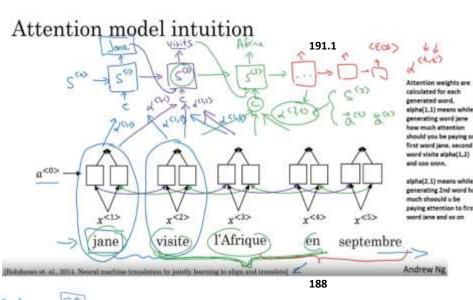
loge 16 hete restriction small 8: worm result, factor

-RNN

P(4 1/2)

P(9 |x)

Unlike exact search algorithms like BFS (Breadth First Search) or DFS (Depth First Search), Beam Search runs faster but is not guaranteed to find exact maximum for  $\arg \max_{y} P(y|x)$ .



### Example

Jane visite l'Afrique en septembre de overcome this problem we can calculate y\*
and y\* separately and compare their

Human: Jane visits Africa in September. (5)

Algorithm: Jane visited Africa last September.  $\binom{\circ}{2}$   $<\!\!<$ 

RNN comptes P(31,0) & P(31x)

### Error analysis on beam search

Human: Jane visits Africa in September. (y\*)

Algorithm: Jane visited Africa last September. (9)

Case I:  $P(y^*|x) > P(3|x) = -3 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(3|x)$ 

Beam search chose  $\hat{y}$ . But  $y^*$  attains higher P(y|x).

Conclusion: Beam search is at fault.

Case 2: Ply\*(x) & Plg(x) =

 $y^*$  is a better translation than  $\hat{y}$ . But RNN predicted  $P(y^*|x) < P(\hat{y}|x)$ 

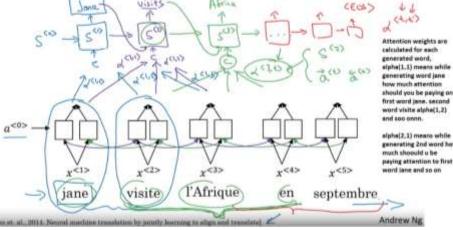
Conclusion: RNN model is at fault.

### Error analysis process

| Human   | Algorithm   | $P(y^* x)$ | $P(\hat{y} x)$ | At fault? |
|---|---|------------|----------------|-----------|
| Jano visits Africa in<br>September.             | Jane visited Africa<br>Inst September.  | 2.+12"     | × 10 ""        | 9         |
| increasing b value and<br>if RNN is making more | if most errors are by beam, then we can try increasing b value and tune other hyperpameters. If RBNN is making more errors then we can add regularization or get more training data and soo |            | -              | Q<br>R    |

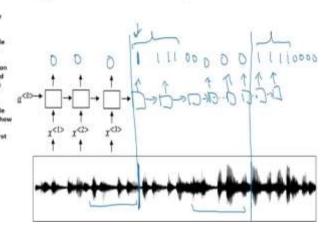
Figures out what fraction of errors are "due to" beam search vs. RNN model

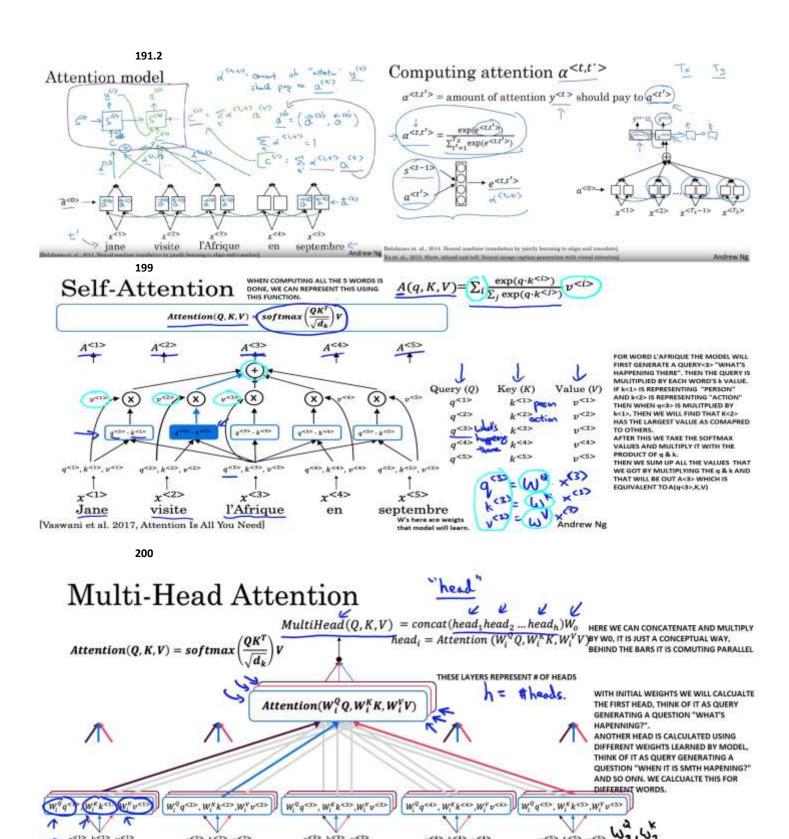
Attention model intuition



Trigger word detection algorithm

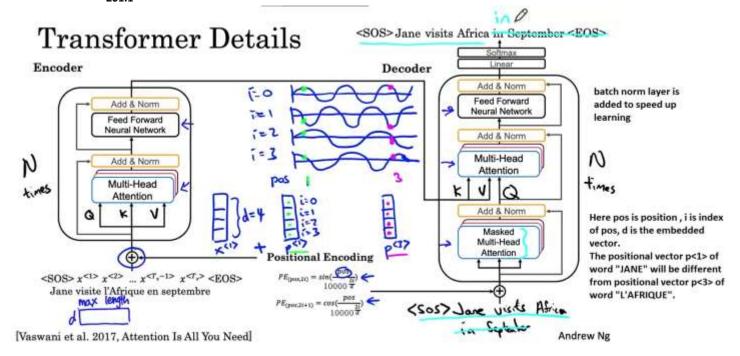
194





VISITA

[Vaswani et al. 2017, Attention Is All You Need]



201

