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Non-Smooth Regularization: Improvement to Learning Framework through Extrapolation

Sajjad Amini, Mohammad Soltanian, Mostafa Sadeghi, and Shahrokh Ghaemmaghami, Senior Member, IEEE

Abstract—Deep learning architectures employ various regularization terms to handle different types of priors. Non-smooth regularization terms have shown promising performance in the deep learning architectures and a learning framework has recently been proposed to train autoencoders with such regularization terms. While this framework efficiently manages the non-smooth term during training through proximal operators, it is limited to autoencoders and suffers from low convergence speed due to several optimization sub-problems that must be solved in a row. In this paper, we address these issues by extending the framework to general feed-forward neural networks and introducing variable extrapolation which can dramatically increase the convergence speed in each sub-problem. We show that the proposed update rules converge to a critical point of the objective function under mild conditions. To compare the resulting framework with the previously proposed one, we consider the problem of training sparse autoencoders and robustifying deep neural architectures against both targeted and untargeted attacks. Simulations show superior performance in both convergence speed and final objective function value.

Index Terms—Deep neural networks, training, regularizer, extrapolation, robustness, sparsity, proximal operator.

I. INTRODUCTION

Deep learning is responsible for the most of recent advances in machine vision [1], [2], natural language processing [3], and time series prediction [4]. In contrast to traditional learning architecture, deep learning architectures are equipped with a hierarchy of layers that gradually transfer input pattern representation from low level ones in the starting layers to more abstract representations at the higher layers of architecture [5].

Although the idea of learning via a hierarchy of layers was traditionally in use, basic difficulties in the learning of these architectures, such as gradient vanishing and random weight initialization blocked their applicability [6]. This condition continued until 2006 when Hinton proposed a smart initialization method for deep generative models using repetitive utilization of a shallow generative model named restricted Boltzmann machine (RBM) [7]. In the sequel, deterministic models based on autoencoders were also introduced to initialize deep fully connected architectures [8].

Deep neural networks can be categorized into recurrent and feed-forward. While data flow for inference is unidirectional in feed-forward neural networks (FFNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs) have at least one loop [5]. FFNNs include two main groups, namely generative and discriminative models. Variational autoencoders (VAEs), generative adversarial networks (GANs) are among generative FFNNs, while fully-connected and convolutional neural networks (FCNNs and CNNs) are examples of discriminative FFNNs [8].

Different types of regularization have been proposed to enhance the efficiency of FFNNs. Introduction of sparsity regularizer has successfully improved the initialization quality of deep fully-connected neural networks [9], [10]. Low-coherence regularization has also shown impressive results in improving CNNs accuracy [11], which was previously explored for dictionary learning [12]. Different regularization strategies have also been proposed in the literature targeting the robustification of CNNs [13], [14]. The aforementioned examples can be considered as mathematical regularizers, while various structural regularization schemes are also widely used in different architectures such as dropout, batch normalization and batch re-normalization [15].

Smooth mathematical regularizers are preferable in the sense that they meet smoothness constraint assumed by many optimization algorithms used to learn network parameters [6]. Recently, a new learning framework has been proposed which aims at eliminating the smoothness constraint for the regularizers [9]. In this framework, instead of smoothness, the regularizer must be proximable which makes many non-smooth regularizers applicable to the problem of training FFNNs. This framework has shown impressive results for training sparse AEs [9] and robustifying CNNs [13].

However, the framework proposed in [9] is limited to AE architecture and does not consider a general framework for the class of FFNNs. It also suffers from low convergence speed. In this paper, we extend the framework given in [9] by making the following improvements:

- While the framework introduced in [9] is limited to autoencoders, in this paper we propose a new framework applicable to the general category of feed-forward neural networks, including fully-connected and convolutional neural networks.
- The framework proposed in [9] exhibit slow convergence speed which necessitates numerous iterations that limits its application for large scale datasets. In contrast, in this paper an extrapolation strategy is developed that results in much fewer iterations for training and expands the applicability of the resulting framework. The convergence analysis of the proposed framework is also established, which is not trivial with respect to [9] in the case of extrapolated variables.
Conducting extensive experiments by distinct regularizers and over different datasets, the performance of the proposed framework is tested especially against the framework proposed in [9], and its superiority in terms of objective function value and convergence speed is demonstrated for extrapolated variables.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The notation used throughout the paper and preliminaries are reviewed in Section II. We review the regularizers proposed in the literature for training sparse AEs and robustifying CNNs in Section III and define the modifications to the framework for the general case of FFNN with non-smooth regularization and extrapolation in Section IV. In Section V, we investigate performance of the modified framework for sparse AE training and robustifying CNNs and compare it to the original framework and the previously proposed methods over different benchmark datasets. We conclude the paper in Section VI.

II. NOTATIONS AND PRELIMINARIES

In this paper, bold uppercase and bold lowercase letters are used to show matrices and vectors, respectively. The \( t \)-th element of vector \( x \) is denoted by \( x_t \) and \( w_{ij} \) denotes the \( (i,j) \)-element of matrix \( W \). vec(\( \cdot \)) indicates vectorizing operator that produces column-wise concatenation of a matrix. Column-wise concatenation of \( m \) vectors is denoted by \( y = [y_1, \ldots, y_m] \). As for norms, \( \| \cdot \|_2 \) and \( \| \cdot \|_k \) indicate the \( \ell_k \) vector norm and matrix Frobenius norm, respectively.

In this section, we introduce some definitions and lemmas needed throughout the paper.

**Definition 1 (Proximal Operator [16]).** Let \( f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \) be a proper and lower semi-continuous convex function. The proximal operator (mapping) \( \text{Prox}_f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \) of \( f \) at \( v \) is defined as: \[ \text{Prox}_f(v) = \arg \min_x f(x) + \frac{1}{2} \| x - v \|_2^2 \]

Based on the above definition, we can calculate proximal operator for different functions.

**Lemma 1 (Proximal operator for \( \ell_\infty \) norm [16]).** Let \( f(x) \) be scaled \( \ell_\infty \) norm defined as \( f(x) = \lambda \max_i |x_i| \). The proximal operator for \( f \) is defined as \( \text{Prox}_f(v) = v - \mathcal{P}_{B_\infty}(v) \) where \( \mathcal{P}_{B_\infty}(\cdot) \) is the projection onto \( \ell_1 \) norm ball with radius \( \lambda \).

**Lemma 2 (Proximal operator for \( \ell_\infty \) indicator norm [13]).** Let \( f(x) \) be the scaled \( \ell_\infty \) indicator norm defined as \( \lambda > 0 \): \[ f(x) = \lambda I \{ \| x \|_\infty \leq \xi \} \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \| x \|_\infty \leq \xi \\ \infty & \text{if } \| x \|_\infty > \xi \end{cases} \]

The proximal operator for \( f(x) \) is denoted \( \text{Prox}_f(v) = u \) where \( u \) is:

\[
    u_i = \begin{cases} 
        v_i & \text{if } |v_i| \leq \xi \\
        \text{sgn}(v_i)\xi & \text{if } |v_i| > \xi 
    \end{cases}
\]

**Definition 2 (Lipschitz Gradient [17]).** A function \( f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} \) has a Lipschitz gradient if \( \| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y) \| \leq L \| x - y \| \) for all \( x \) and \( y \). The smallest constant \( L \) that satisfies the inequality, is the Lipschitz constant of the gradient.

A twice differentiable function \( f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} \) with Hessian matrix denoted \( H \) has Lipschitz gradient if \( M = LI - H \) is positive semi-definite. The smallest \( L \) making \( M \) positive semi-definite is the Lipschitz constant of the gradient [18].

**Definition 3 (Critical Point [19]).** A point \( x^* \) is called a critical point of \( f \) if \( 0 \in \partial f(x^*) \) where \( \partial f(x^*) \) is the limiting Fréchet subdifferential at \( x^* \).

In the convergence analysis presented in this work, to transfer from subsequence convergence to the whole sequence convergence, one key factor is the Kurdyka-Łojasiewicz property defined as follows.

**Definition 4 (Kurdyka-Łojasiewicz (KL) property [20]).** A function \( f(x) \) satisfies the KL property at point \( x \in \text{dom}(\partial f) \) if there exists \( \eta > 0 \), a neighborhood \( B_\rho(x) = \{ x : \| x - x \| < \rho \} \), and a concave function \( g(a) = c \cdot a^{1-\theta} \) for some \( c > 0 \) and \( \theta \in [0, 1) \) such that the KL inequality holds:

\[
    g(\| f(x) - f(x) \|) \cdot \text{dist}(0, \partial f(x)) \geq 1, \quad \forall x \in B_\rho(x) \cap \text{dom}(\partial f) \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) < f(x) + \| f(x) + \eta, \]

where \( \text{dom}(\partial f) = \{ x | \partial f(x) \neq \emptyset \} \) and \( \text{dist}(0, \partial f(x)) = \min \{ \| y \|_2 | y \in \partial f(x) \} \).

We use the resulting extended framework to robustify a deep CNN against untargeted attacks. We use four types of untargeted attacks, namely random perturbation (Random), regular perturbation (Regular) [21], fast gradient sign perturbation (Fast) [14], and projected gradient descent perturbation (PGD), which are defined as follows.

**Definition 5 (Regular adversary).** Let \( d(\tilde{y}, y) \) denote a loss function used to train a FFNN, which is usually a distance measure between target vector \( y \) and network output vector \( \tilde{y} \) corresponding to input pattern \( x \), and \( f(p, x) \) represents the mapping that evaluates output of the network based on input pattern \( x \), and network variables \( p \). The regular adversary \( \tilde{x} \) corresponding to clean pattern \( x \) is defined as [21]:

\[
    \tilde{x} = x + \epsilon \nabla_x d(f(p, x), y),
\]

where \( \epsilon \) controls the signal contamination in the sense of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). The resulting SNR is:

\[
    \text{SNR} = 20 \log_{10} \frac{\| x \|_2}{\epsilon \| \nabla_x d(f(p, x), y) \|_2}.
\]

Fast gradient sign method [14] uses the sign information of gradient to design perturbation as:

\[
    \tilde{x} = x + \epsilon \text{sign}(\nabla_x d(f(p, x), y)).
\]

To design the perturbation in PGD method, (1) is iteratively applied while the resulting \( \tilde{x} \) is projected on the feasible input pattern range. In the Random method, the perturbation is designed irrespective of the network architecture using a predefined distribution, e.g., normal.

III. PRIOR ART

FFNNs play an important role in learning hidden structures of patterns such as images where all the samples are processed simultaneously [8]. Various priors are introduced in the literature which are generally imposed through regularizers aiming
at improving the different performance metrics of FFNNs such as generalizations error, robustness, etc. [14], [11], [13]

Autoencoder, an encoder-decoder fully-connected neural network, is among the well-known FFNNs suitable for the initialization of deep fully-connected networks. Due to the high capacity of fully-connected layers, autoencoder provides high capacity for learning which necessitates architecture regularization, e.g., sparse autoencoders [22]. Although the \( \ell_0 \) (pseudo) norm is the first option to impose sparsity, the resulting optimization problem is hard to deal with, due to the discrete nature of the \( \ell_0 \) norm [23]. So, smooth and continuous approximations are considered in the literature, e.g., Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD) [22] and Student-t distribution approximation [24]. The cooperative effect of non-negativity of weight matrices in the sparsity of representation in an autoencoder based on KLD has also been shown in [25]. Besides, smooth approximations of sparsity, \( \ell_1 \) norm, as the tightest norm below \( \ell_0 \) on any \( \ell_p \)-unit ball \((p \in [1, \infty])\) [26], has shown promising results in sparse representation and dictionary learning [23]. Because of non-smoothness, many learning frameworks of FFNNs are not able to handle this term [8]. In [27], an algorithm to train sparse autoencoder based on \( \ell_1 \) norm regularization of code vectors has been proposed. A general purpose framework to regularize autoencoders based on non-smooth regularization was proposed in [9] where warm start [28] is used to gradually impose the regularizer term.

In addition to the sparse autoencoder, robustification of deep CNNs is also a potential problem, to which non-smooth regularizer can be impressive [13]. Error back-propagation, an effective method to evaluate the derivative of objective function with respect to network parameters, can expose CNNs to potential adversarial attacks, aiming at maximally changing the network output by imperceptibly manipulating the input patterns [21], [29], [30]. Regular, Fast and PGD are examples of such attacks. A review of different attack scenarios can be found in [31].

Several algorithms have been proposed to robustify an FFNN. The first idea was based on enriching the training patterns using adversarial samples known as Adversarial Training [21], [29]. Constraining the network to output similar representations for a pattern and its adversarial counterpart was proposed in virtual adversarial training [32]. Stability training also utilizes a stability objective \( \ell_{\text{objective}} \) to enforce similarity between the outputs of training patterns and their adversarial counterparts [33]. Among other methods for robustification of deep architectures are Adversarial Noise Propagation [34], input transformations [35], total variation norm regularization [35], input super-resolution [36] and knowledge Distillation [37].

Formulation of regular adversary in (1) indicates that regularizing \( \| \nabla x^d f(p, x, y) \|_2^2 \) defined in (1), could be a generic way for deep architectures robustification [38], which would increase the smoothness of network input-output mapping. Similarly, constraining the Lipschitz constant of the network was also proposed to improve robustness [21], but no practical method to evaluate the Lipschitz constant was presented. In [14] the idea to control the Lipschitz constant of a network for robustification was followed and Parseval Networks were proposed. In Parseval networks, convolutional and fully-connected layers are formulated by a matrix product notation as \( z^{(l)} = W^{(l)} z^{(l-1)} + b^{(l)} \), where \( z^{(l)} \) is the vectorized representation in layer \( l \), and \( W^{(l)} \) and \( b^{(l)} \) are weight matrix and bias vector, respectively. The authors argue that the Lipschitz constant of a network can be limited by controlling the layer-wise spectral norm of weight matrices in convolutional and fully-connected layers. Therefore, they suggest the following regularizer for these layers:

\[
R_{\beta}(W^{(l)}) = \frac{\beta}{2} \| W^{(l)}^T W^{(l)} - I \|_2^2, \tag{4}
\]

where, \( I \) is the identity matrix and \( \beta \) is the regularization hyper-parameter.

In [13] two formulations, namely InfNorm and InfInd are proposed to robustify the deep architecture by controlling the spectral norm of weight matrices in each layer. InfNorm and InfInd use \( \ell_\infty \) norm and \( \ell_{\infty} \) indicator norm, respectively, to impose Parseval tightness over weight matrices and control the overall Lipschitz constant. These regularizers are non-smooth and a variant of the framework proposed in [9] is utilized to train the network parameters. Both the proposed methods present impressive results for targeted and unwanted attacks, but at the expense of increased training time.

In the sequel of this section, we focus on reviewing the framework proposed in [9] as the building block for the improvements proposed in this paper. The general form of the problem to train an autoencoder under non-smooth regularization can be written as:

\[
\min_{\mathbf{p}} E_p \left( \left\{ F(p, x_i) \right\}_{i=1}^{N}, \left\{ y_i \right\}_{i=1}^{N} \right) + r_1(g(p)), \tag{5}
\]

where \( \mathbf{p} \) is the autoencoder variables vector, \( x_i \) is the \( i \)-th input training pattern, \( F(p, x_i) \) is the autoencoder output represented by \( \bar{y}_i \) for the input pattern \( x_i \). \( E_p(\cdot, \cdot) \) is a distance metric used to calculate the distance between network output vector \( \bar{y}_i \) and target vector \( y_i \). \( N \) is the number of training patterns, \( r_1(\cdot) \) is a non-smooth regularizer, and \( g(\cdot) \) is a function that selects a subset of network variables or parameters. To simplify the notation, the first term in Problem (5) is shown by \( E_p(p) \). Then Problem (5) is modified using the following steps to obtain a new relaxed version.

**Step 1:** Introduce a new vector variable \( s \) as:

\[
\min_{\mathbf{p}, s} E_p(p) + r_1(s) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad g(p) = s. \tag{6}
\]

Problem (6) is equivalent to Problem (5).

**Step 2:** Relax Problem (6) based on quadratic penalty method as:

\[
\min_{\mathbf{p}, s} E_p(p) + r_1(s) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \| g(p) - s \|_2^2, \tag{7}
\]

where \( \mu \) is a penalty parameter. We solve a series of subproblems, corresponding to a decreasing sequence of \( \mu \). If we denote the solutions to the Problem (7) by \( p^{(\mu)} \) and \( s^{(\mu)} \), and the solution to the Problem (5) by \( p^* \), given that we find the global minimizer of each subproblem, then [19, Theorem 17.1]:

\[
\lim_{\mu \to 0} p^{(\mu)} = p^*, \quad \lim_{\mu \to 0} s^{(\mu)} = g(p^*).
\]
Step 3: For convergence purposes, the amplitudes of the network variables are limited by adding the indicator function of the $\ell_{\infty}$ norm to the variables vector $p$ as follows:

$$
\min_{p,s} T_{\mu}(p, s) = E_{\mu}(p, s) + r_1(s) + r_2(p),
$$

where $E_{\mu}(p, s) = E_p(p) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \|g(p) - s\|_2^2$ contains all the smooth terms of the objective function, and $r_2(\cdot)$ is defined as:

$$
r_2(p) = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } \|p\|_{\infty} \leq M \\
\infty & \text{if } \|p\|_{\infty} > M.
\end{cases}
$$

The authors in [9] use an alternating minimization method over the two vector variables to solve Problem (8). For each vector variable, minimization of an upper bound for the second order approximation of the objective function is used to update the variables which results in the following update formulas:

$$
s_{k+1} = \arg \min_{s} \nabla^2_s E_{\mu}(p_s, s_k) (s - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_{s,k}} \|s - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s),
$$

$$
p_{k+1} = \arg \min_{p} \nabla^2_p E_{\mu}(p_{k+1}) (p - p_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_{p,k}} \|p - p_k\|^2 + r_2(p),
$$

where $\mu_{s,k} \in (0, 1/L_{s,k}]$ and $\mu_{p,k} \in (0, 1/L_{p,k})$, and $L_{s,k}$ and $L_{p,k}$ are the Lipschitz constants for $\nabla_s E_{\mu}(p, s)$ and $\nabla_p E_{\mu}(p, s)$, respectively.

The above framework can be extended in two directions. The first extension is to include a general FFNN, instead of autoencoders, as the architectures that the framework supports. The second extension deals with variable extrapolation to speed up convergence. The effect of extrapolation on convergence speed is studied extensively in [39], [17]. In this paper, we follow the above directions and develop an extrapolation-based learning framework to train FFNNs in the presence of non-smooth regularizers. We then evaluate the new framework comparatively for training sparse autoencoders and robustifying deep CNNs.

### IV. PROPOSED METHOD

The problem of training an FFNN can be formulated as the problem shown in (5). For the sake of completeness, we restate this problem here:

$$
\mathcal{P} : \min_p E_p \left( \{ F(p, x_i) \}_{i=1}^N, \{ y_i \}_{i=1}^N \right) + r_1(g(p)).
$$

Following similar steps mentioned in the previous section for reaching to (8) starting from Problem (5), we can define a relaxed version of problem $\mathcal{P}$ in (11) based on quadratic penalty method as:

$$
\mathcal{P}_{\mu} : \min_{p,s} T_{\mu}(p, s) = E_{\mu}(p, s) + r_1(s) + r_2(p).
$$

In the new framework, we extend the update formulas in (10) by using an extrapolated version of variables. Doing so, the new problem for updating variable $s$ is:

$$
s_{k+1} = \arg \min_{s} \nabla^2_s E_{\mu}(p_k, s_k) (s - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_{s,k}} \|s - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s),
$$

where the extrapolation for variable $s$ is defined as:

$$
\widehat{s}_k = s_k + w_{s,k} \cdot (s_k - s_{k-1}).
$$

Here, $w_{s,k}$ is the extrapolation weight for $s$ at iteration $k$. The update formula for variable $p$ can be derived similarly. Adding a constant term $1/(2\mu_{s,k})\|\mu_{s,k} \nabla_s E_{\mu}(p_k, s_k)\|_2^2$ to the optimization Problem (13), we have the following equivalent form:

$$
s_{k+1} = \arg \min_{s} \frac{1}{2\mu_{s,k}} \|s - s_k\|_2^2 + \mu_{s,k} \|\nabla_s E_{\mu}(p_k, s_k)\|_2^2 + r_1(s).
$$

Using the definition of proximal mapping, the closed-form solution for the vector variables $s$ and $p$ can be written as:

$$
s_{k+1} = \text{Prox}_{\mu_{s,k}r_1}(s_k - \mu_{s,k} \nabla_s E_{\mu}(p_k, s_k)),
$$

$$
p_{k+1} = \text{Prox}_{\mu_{p,k}r_2}(p_k - \mu_{p,k} \nabla_p E_{\mu}(p_k, s_k)).
$$

In the following, we show that the sequence generated by the update rules in (16) for Problem (12) converges to a critical point of the objective function.

#### A. Convergence Analysis

In this paper, we consider an FFNN to be composed of fully-connected and convolutional layers, max and average pooling, batch normalization and batch re-normalization and residual modules (see [8] for definition of different elements of FFNN). The activation functions are also constrained to be analytic. As an exception and due to popularity of the non-analytic rectified linear units (ReLU) activation function, we discuss using it as the activation function. The regularizer $r_1(\cdot)$ is assumed to be proper lower semi-continuous and a KL function.

The first step is to show the Lipschitz continuity of the partial gradients of $E_{\mu}(p, s)$ in an FFNN.

**Proposition 1.** For a general FFNN with smooth input-output mapping, $E_{\mu}(p, s)$ has Lipschitz gradients with respect to $p$ and $s$.

**Proof:** Following the same procedure as the one in Proposition 1 in [9], one can easily show that for an FFNN without max pooling layer and ReLU activation function, $E_{\mu}(p, s)$ is twice differentiable with respect to $p$ and $s$. ■

It is to be noted that Proposition 1 limits the application of ReLU activation function and max pooling layer, but one can easily replace them with their smooth approximations, i.e., softplus activation function and Log-Sum-Exp function, respectively [40].

The next step is to show the absolute summability of the sequence generated by the proposed update rules in (16). To proceed, we need the following lemma which can be trivially proved.

**Lemma 3.** Let $x$, $y$ and $z$ be arbitrary vectors in $\mathbb{R}^p$. Then, the following equality holds:

$$
\|x - z\|_2^2 - \|y - z\|_2^2 = 2(x - y)^T(y - z) + \|x - y\|_2^2.
$$
**Proposition 2.** Let \( \{p_k, s_k\} \) be the sequence generated by the update rules given in (16), then we have:

\[
\alpha_k \|p_{k+1} - p_k\|^2 + 2 \beta_k \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2 < \infty \quad (17)
\]

for non-negative \( \alpha_k = \frac{1}{8} L_{p,k} \) and \( \beta_k = \frac{1}{8} L_{s,k} \).

**Proof:** To show the absolute summability of the sequence generated by the proposed update rules in (16), we use different lemmas presented in [17]. From the Lipschitz continuity of the gradient of \( E_p(p, s) \) with respect to \( s \), we have:

\[
E_u(p, s) = \nabla_s^T e_u(p, s)(s_{k+1} - s_k) + \frac{L_{s,k}}{2} \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2.
\]

From (13), we get:

\[
\nabla_s^T e_u(p, s)(s_{k+1} - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\beta_k} \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s_k+1)
\]

\[
\nabla_s^T e_u(p, s)(s_k - s_{k+1}) + \frac{1}{2\beta_k} \|s_k - s_{k+1}\|^2 + r_1(s_k+1).
\]

Summing the inequalities in (18) and (19) while assuming \( \mu s, k \leq \frac{1}{2L_{s,k}} \), we have:

\[
E_u(p, s) = \nabla_s^T e_u(p, s)(s_{k+1} - s_k) + \frac{L_{s,k}}{2} \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2 + 2L_{s,k} \|s_k - s_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

Summing up the two sides of inequalities in (22) and (23) results in the following inequality:

\[
T_u(p_k, s_k) - T_u(p_{k+1}, s_{k+1}) \geq \frac{1}{4} L_{s,k} \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2 - \frac{1}{8} L_{s,k-1} \|s_k - s_{k-1}\|^2 + \frac{1}{4} L_{p,k} \|p_{k+1} - p_k\|^2 - \frac{1}{8} L_{p,k-1} \|p_k - p_{k-1}\|^2.
\]

Then, the inequality (17) is followed from (25) for \( \alpha_k = \frac{1}{8} L_{p,k} \) and \( \beta_k = \frac{1}{8} L_{s,k} \), if \( K \to \infty \).

According to Proposition 2, we can conclude that the Euclidean distance between values of each vector variable in successive iterations will tend to zero as \( k \to \infty \).

**Proposition 3.** The sequence \( \{p_k, s_k\} \) generated by the update rules (16) is bounded.

**Proof:** As given in [9], the sequence \( p_k \) is bounded due to the constraint applied by \( r_2(p) \). For the sequence \( s_k \), we start by simplifying the update rule. Using the definition of \( E_p(p, s) \) in (12), we can easily show that \( \nabla_s E_p(p, s) = \frac{1}{\mu} (s - g(p)) \) and write:

\[
s_{k+1} = \text{Prox}_{\mu s, w}(s_k - \frac{\mu s, k}{\mu}(s_k - g(p)))
\]

\[
= \text{Prox}_{\mu s, w}(\frac{\mu s, 0}{\mu} g(p_k)).
\]

The boundedness of the \( s_k \) sequence can be shown through an inductive reasoning. Assuming \( s_0 = s_{-1} = 0 \), we can show:

\[
s_1 = \text{Prox}_{\mu s, w}(\frac{\mu s, 0}{\mu} g(p_0)),
\]

and due to the boundedness of \( \{p_k\} \), \( g(p_k) \) is bounded and so is \( s_1 \).

Now, having \( s_k \) and \( s_{k-1} \) bounded, then \( s_{k+1} \) is also bounded. Boundedness of \( \{p_k\} \) also guarantees \( g(p_k) \) to be bounded. As \( \mu s, k \leq \frac{1}{2L_{s,k}} \) and \( L_{s,k} = \frac{1}{k^2} \), we can easily show that the following inequality holds:

\[
\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{\mu - \mu s, k}{\mu} < 1, \quad 0 < \frac{\mu s, k}{\mu} \leq \frac{1}{2}
\]

Due to the boundedness of \( s_k \) and \( g(p_k) \), and the inequalities in (28), the argument of proximal mapping in (26) is bounded which implies the boundedness of \( s_{k+1} \).

Now, we prove that using the update rule with extrapolation in (16), there exists a subsequence \( \{p_k, s_k\}_{k \in Z} \) converging to a critical point of the objective function, where \( I \) stands for the subsequence index set.

**Theorem 1.** Let \( \{p_k, s_k\}_{k \geq 1} \) be a sequence generated by the update rules (16). Then:

1. There exists a finite limit point (namely \( \{\hat{p}, \hat{s}\} \)) for the sequence.
2. Regularizers satisfy the following relations:

\[
\lim_{\exists k \to \infty} r_1(s_k) = r_1(\hat{s}), \quad \lim_{\exists k \to \infty} r_2(p_k) = r_2(\hat{p}).
\]
3) Any limit point of the sequence is a critical point of $T_p(p, s)$ (defined in (12)).
4) If a subsequence $\{p_k, s_k\}_{k \in \mathcal{I}}$ converges to $\{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}$, then
   $$\lim_{k \to \infty} T_p(p_k, s_k) = T_p(\bar{p}, \bar{s}).$$

   **Proof:** Each part of the theorem is proved separately.
1) Due to boundedness of the sequence generated by the update rules (16), Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem [42] implies
   the existence of a finite limit point for the sequence.
2) $\{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}$ is a limit point of $\{p_k, s_k\}$, thus there exists a subsequence $\{p_{k+\gamma}, s_{k+\gamma}\}_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}}$ converging to $\{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}$. From Proposition 2, we have
   $$\|p_{k+1} - p_k\| \to 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \|s_{k+1} - s_k\| \to 0.$$ This suggests that for any integer $\gamma \geq 0$, we have:
   $$\{p_{k+\gamma}, s_{k+\gamma}\}_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \to \{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}.$$ (29)

   From (13), the update problem for $s$ is:
   $$s_{k+1} = \arg \min_s \nabla^T E_p(p_k, s_k)(s - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_k} \|s - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s).$$ (30)

   Thus we have:
   $$\nabla^T E_p(p_k, s_k)(s_{k+1} - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_k} \|s_{k+1} - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s_{k+1}) \leq \nabla^T E_p(p_k, s_k)(s - s_k) + \frac{1}{2\mu_k} \|s - s_k\|^2 + r_1(s) \quad \forall s.$$ (31)

   As $\mathcal{I} \ni k \to \infty$, the extrapolation term $s_{k} - s_{k-1}$ tends to zero in the $\ell_2$ norm sense and thus similar to [9], we have:
   $$\lim_{k \to \infty} r_1(s_{k+1}) \leq \nabla^T E_p(p, s)(s - s) + \frac{1}{2\mu} \|s - s\|^2 + r_1(s) \quad \forall s.$$ (32)

   where $\mu$ is a constant in the interval $[0, 1/2\bar{L}_s]$ and $\bar{L}_s$ is the Lipschitz constant of $\nabla E_p(p, s)$ at $p = \bar{p}$ and $s = \bar{s}$. Inequality (32) for $s = \bar{s}$ results in the following inequality:
   $$\lim_{k \to \infty} r_1(s_{k+1}) \leq r_1(\bar{s}).$$ (33)

   Using (33), along with the lower semi-continuity assumption for $r_1(\cdot)$, leads:
   $$\lim_{k \to \infty} r_1(s_k) = r_1(\bar{s}).$$ (34)

   Similarly, we can show the following:
   $$\lim_{k \to \infty} r_2(p_k) = r_2(\bar{p}).$$ (35)

3) See Theorem 1 Part 3 in [9].
4) See Theorem 1 Part 4 in [9].

Theorem 1 proves that there exists a convergent subsequence to a critical point of $T_p(p, s)$ in the sequence generated by the update rule (16). To generalize subsequence convergence to whole sequence convergence, we show that the KL property holds for the objective function in (12).

**Proposition 4.** The objective function $T_p(p, s)$, defined in (12), is a KL function.

**Proof:** Based on the assumption for the architecture of a FFNN, the input-output mapping is analytic (see [9] for more
details). Thus, the smooth term $E_p(p, s)$ in (12) is analytic and has the KL property. Besides, $r_1(\cdot)$ in (11) has the KL property by assumption. $r_2(\cdot)$ is also the indicator function of a semi-algebraic set which guarantees its KL property [9]. Thus, all the terms in Problem (12) have KL property which means that $T_p(p, s)$ is a KL function.

**Algorithm 1 Final Algorithm**

1: procedure SOLVING PROBLEM $\mathcal{P}$ in (11)
2: Input: $\{x_i, y_i\}$, $\mu_{\text{max}}, \mu_{\text{min}}$, $s$ (scale value for $\mu$), $M$ in (9), termination threshold $(\zeta)$.
3: Initialization: $p_{0,0} = p_{-1,0} = x_{1,0}, s_{0,0} = s_{-1,0} = 0, i = 0$
4: Output: FFNN parameters
5: $k = 0$
6: while $k < N$ do
7: $\hat{s}_{k,i} = s_k + s_{k-1,i}$
8: $\hat{p}_{k,i} = p_k + p_{k-1,i}$
9: $\bar{s}_{k+1,i} = \text{Prox}_{\mu_{k,i}, r_2}(\hat{s}_{k,i} - \mu s_{k-1,i}, \nabla E_p(p_{k-1,i}, s_{k-1,i}))$
10: $\bar{p}_{k+1,i} = \text{Prox}_{\mu_{k,i}, r_2}(\hat{p}_{k,i} - \mu p_{k,i}, \nabla E_p(p_{k,i}, s_{k+1,i}))$
11: $k \leftarrow k + 1$
12: $p_{-1,i+1}, p_{0,i+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}N,i$
13: $s_{-1,i+1}, s_{0,i+1} \leftarrow s_{N,i}$
14: $i \leftarrow i + 1$
15: $\mu \leftarrow s \cdot \mu$
16: if $\mu < \mu_{\text{min}}$ then
17: $\mu \leftarrow \mu_{\text{min}}$
18: if $\|g(p_i) - s_i\|^2 \leq \zeta$ then
19: Flag $\leftarrow$ False

The next steps of the proof of convergence are similar to those in [9], which are repeated here to complete the proof. These steps are detailed in theorems 2 and 3 below.

**Theorem 2.** Consider Problem (12) where $T_p(p, s)$ is proper and bounded in $\text{dom}(T_p), E_p(p, s)$ is continuously differentiable, $r_1$ and $r_2$ are proper lower semi-continuous, $E_p(p, s)$ has Lipschitz gradient with respect to both $p$ and $s$, and the problem has a critical point $x^*$, where $0 \in \partial T(x^*)$. Let $\{p_k, s_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ be generated from the update rules (16). Assume:
1) $\{p_k, s_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ has a finite limit point $\{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}$,
2) $T_p(p, s)$ is a KL function.

Then:
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \{p_k, s_k\} = \{\bar{p}, \bar{s}\}.$$
solving a series of the problem $P_\mu$ with decreasing values for $\mu$ based on warm-start [28], as shown in Algorithm 1. In this algorithm, each problem $P_\mu$ is indexed by the variable $i$ and thus this variable appears in the update rules and extrapolated variable calculations.

It should be noted that while $L_{s,k}$ can easily be calculated, computing $L_{p,k}$ and consequently $w_{p,k}$ is not straightforward, due to the complex network architecture in FFNNs. This necessitates to employ a backtracking procedure. More implementation details could be found in [9].

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we evaluate the performance of the proposed framework summarized in Algorithm 1 to train the parameters of FFNNs. As also done in [9], sparse autoencoder training is used to measure efficiency of the framework. We also study the effect of extrapolation weight parameter in the update rules (16). In the sequel, we consider two more complex CNNs and use the updated framework for the robustification based on the formulations given in [13].

TABLE I: Performance comparison over clean test set for C-CNN architecture. $SN_{\text{max}}(l)$, $SN_{\text{min}}(l)$ represent the maximum and minimum spectral norm across all convolutional and fully-connected layers, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Parseval</th>
<th>InfInd</th>
<th>InfNorm</th>
<th>InfInd-Extra</th>
<th>InfNorm-Extra</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MNIST</td>
<td>93.07</td>
<td>93.14</td>
<td>93.42</td>
<td>93.40</td>
<td>93.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteration</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{max}}(l)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.010 (F1)</td>
<td>1.010 (F1)</td>
<td>1.010 (F1)</td>
<td>1.020 (C2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{min}}(l)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVHN</td>
<td>77.14</td>
<td>77.93</td>
<td>78.11</td>
<td>78.29</td>
<td>78.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteration</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{max}}(l)</td>
<td>1.010 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{min}}(l)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR-10</td>
<td>42.06</td>
<td>42.37</td>
<td>42.33</td>
<td>43.62</td>
<td>43.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteration</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{max}}(l)</td>
<td>1.030 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F1)</td>
<td>1.010 (F1)</td>
<td>1.020 (F1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN_{\text{min}}(l)</td>
<td>1.010 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
<td>1.000 (C1)</td>
<td>1.000 (F2)</td>
<td>1.000 (F3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Sparse Autoencoder

Training a sparse autoencoder can be formulated using problem $P$ in (11) with $r_1(\langle \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{p}) \rangle) = \lambda \sum_i \| \mathbf{z}_i \|_1$ and $\mathbf{z}_i$ being the code representation of the $i$-th training pattern. This option satisfies all the conditions needed for $r_1(\cdot)$ in the proposed framework. This means that we can use Algorithm 1 to train a sparse autoencoder. We use three benchmark datasets, MNIST [43], Fashion-MNIST [44] and SVHN [45], and train a sparse autoencoder over each of them using KLD [22], smooth approximation of $\ell_1$ norm by Student-t penalty (T-Student) [24], $\ell_1$ regularizer based on framework proposed in [9] (L1), and Algorithm 1 (L1-Extra).

In this experiment, the input vector size is 784 for the MNIST and Fashion-MNIST datasets and 1024 for the SVHN dataset. The code vector length is set to 144 for all datasets and the sigmoid function is used for the encoder and decoder activation functions. We use a multiplicative schedule to change learning rate and penalty parameter. The extrapolation weight of 0.9 is used in all datasets. Initial penalty parameter and penalty factor are 20 and 0.1, respectively, while penalty parameters is clipped at 0.01 for all datasets. Figure 1 shows the training results over three benchmark datasets using three different metrics (reconstruction error via root mean square error, sparsity via Hoyer measure [46], and convergence speed via epochs needed for convergence). Here, the extrapolation with weight 0.9 is used for the network variable vector $\mathbf{p}$ and the vector $\mathbf{s}$ is updated using the rule proposed in [9]. The updated algorithm significantly outperformance other methods in all three metrics on MNIST and Fashion-MNIST datasets, while it presents just almost equal sparsity in Hoyer measure, relative to L1, on SVHN. The performance improvement achieved confirms that using extrapolation, which results in a convergent learning framework, can also boost the learning convergence speed in the FFNNs architectures.

Figure 2 shows the learning curve of the framework proposed in [9] with updated version presented in this paper. It is clear that extrapolation has significantly decreased the number of iterations required for convergence and final value of the objective function. For instance, the numbers of iterations needed for SVHN-L1 and SVHN-L1-Extra to reach the same objective value are about 3500 and 500, respectively. This makes the updated framework more applicable to real world applications.

To explore effect of the extrapolation weight on the performance of the proposed framework, we adopt a $P_\mu$ problem with $\mu = 1$ and solve the resulting problem using the update rules proposed in (16). Figure 3 shows the learning curve over test samples for different datasets. As shown, fixing all parameters of the optimization, the learning performance in terms of convergence iterations and final objective function value is monotonically improved by increasing the extrapolation weight toward unity.

B. Robust CNNs

Thus far, we have shown how extrapolation can improve performance of the sparse autoencoder training. Now, we
continue with investigating the extrapolation performance in training robust CNNs. In [13], the framework proposed in [9] is used to impose Parseval tightness over weight matrices of convolutional and fully-connected layers to robustify the architecture similar to that of Parseval networks [14]. The regularizers used in [9] are:

**Infinity Norm Indicator:** \( r_1(g(p)) = \sum_{i \in S} \mathbb{I}(\|W^{(i)}T\|_\infty - I) \leq \xi \)

**Infinity Norm:** \( r_2(g(p)) = \lambda \sum_{i \in S} \|W^{(i)}T\|_\infty - I \|_\infty \),

where \( \lambda \) and \( \xi \) are hyperparameters, \( W^{(i)} \) is the weight matrix for convolutional and fully-connected layers in the vectorized setting, \( I \) is the identity matrix with proper dimension and \( S \) is the set of regularized layers. Both regularizers in (36) meet the conditions needed to apply Algorithm 1 and the proximal mapping presented in Lemma 1 and Lemma 2. Henceforth, the proposed framework can be employed to train robust CNNs.

We train a custom CNN (C-CNN) architecture over SVHN [45], CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 [47] datasets. Let \( Ck(D, N, F) \) represent convolutional layer \( k \) with depth \( D \), filter number \( N \), filter size \( F \), and let \( Fk(I, O) \) show fully connected layer \( k \) with input dimension \( I \) and output dimension \( O \). Using these notations, the architecture for C-CNN used in this paper consists of six layers \( C1(3,30,5), C2(30,100,5), C3(100,500,3), \) \( Fk(2000,500), Fk(500,100), \) and \( Fk(100,C) \), respectively, and each layer is followed by a batch normalization layer, where non-overlapping max-pooling with filter size of 2 is employed after the convolutional layers. Variable \( C \) in the last layer represents the number of classes in the dataset. Finally, the network is terminated by a SoftMax layer. The network is

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**TABLE II: Performance of robust training of C-CNN architecture against different untargted attacks over benchmark datasets.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attack type</th>
<th>Random</th>
<th>Fast</th>
<th>Regular</th>
<th>PGD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVHN</td>
<td>MNIST-L1</td>
<td>MNIST-L1-Extra</td>
<td>FashionMNIST-L1</td>
<td>FashionMNIST-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR-10</td>
<td>SVHN-L1</td>
<td>SVHN-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR100</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attack type</th>
<th>CIFAR10-PGD((D_0))</th>
<th>CIFAR10-PGD((D_0 + f_{\infty}))</th>
<th>CIFAR100-PGD((D_0))</th>
<th>CIFAR100-PGD((D_0 + f_{\infty}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR10</td>
<td>SVHN-L1</td>
<td>SVHN-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR100</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**TABLE III: Performance of robust training of Mobilenetv2 architecture against targeted attacks over benchmark datasets.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attack type</th>
<th>CIFAR10-PGD((D_0))</th>
<th>CIFAR10-PGD((D_0 + f_{\infty}))</th>
<th>CIFAR100-PGD((D_0))</th>
<th>CIFAR100-PGD((D_0 + f_{\infty}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
<td>Parseval-InfNorm-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR10</td>
<td>SVHN-L1</td>
<td>SVHN-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAR100</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR10-L1-Extra</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1</td>
<td>CIFAR100-L1-Extra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Fig. 2: Comparison of learning objective function with and without extrapolation.

Fig. 3: The effect of extrapolation weight in solving problem \( P_\mu \) defined in (12) over different datasets.
trained using a multiplicative schedule for both learning rate and penalty parameters. The triplet consisting of initial, final, and factor for the learning rate, respectively, is (103, 1, 0.3) for both methods over SVHN and InfNorm method over CIFAR10 dataset, while it is (102, 0.1, 0.3) for both methods over CIFAR100 and InfInd method over CIFAR10 dataset.

Table I shows the training and generalization performance over clean test set for different methods including Parseval [14], InfInd [13], InfNorm [13], InfInd-Extra (first regularizer in (36)) and InfNorm-Extra (second regularizer in (36)). All methods can almost perfectly recover the spectral norm throughout the layers with unit value, and the result of the proposed Algorithm 1 outperforms the result provided by the framework given in [13].

Table II compares different methods in terms of their robustness against untargeted attacks and random perturbation (Random) with Gaussian distribution for four SNR values of 40-70 dB. As shown, the result provided by Algorithm 1 outperforms the results of other methods on most of the datasets and the SNR values.

Figure 4 presents the spectral norm along with training epochs using different methods on all selected datasets. We observe that the learning starts by increasing the spectral norm, and then the regularizer plays its role to control the spectral norm and decrease it. An important point is that Algorithm 1 works better than the framework proposed in [9] and, in some cases, they present almost equal performance. This shows that extrapolation leads to improved convergence speed while the resulting accuracy over test samples and spectral norm are also improved, as compared to the Parseval network and results presented in [13].

In the sequel, we evaluate the performance of robust training algorithms over CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 datasets for Mobilenetv2 architecture proposed in [48] against PGD(ℓ0) and PGD(ℓ1 + ℓ∞) targeted adversarial attacks introduced in [49]. We regularize all convolutional and fully-connected layers in Mobilenetv2. To train Mobilenetv2 in all of the experiments, the values for ℓmax, ℓmin and w are 106, 102, and 0.95, respectively. The learning rate follows the cosine annealing schedule, with starting value of 0.01 and 0.012 for CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 datasets, respectively. For InfInd method, the value of ξ sets to 0.2 and 0.1 for CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 datasets, respectively, while in InfNorm method, the values of 0.1 is selected for λ in both datasets.

For CIFAR10, we randomly select 100 images per class and generate attacks to all 9 wrong labels which results in a total number of 9000 attacks. In the CIFAR100 dataset, we select 10 images per class and generate attacks to 10 randomly selected wrong labels resulting in 10000 attacks. Table III represents the accuracy of methods over clean test set and average attack metric over all attacks. The proposed methods present superior performance in accuracy over clean test samples. At the same time the adversary needs much more time to attack the architectures trained using the proposed methods while adversarial perturbation is more perceptible in the proposed methods in terms of different distortion metrics including ℓ0, ℓ1, ℓ2 and ℓ∞ norms in most of the cases.

### VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has improved the framework presented in [9] by equipping it with extrapolation to boost its learning performance. While the framework given in [9] is devoted to the case of autoencoders, our new framework extends it in two major directions. First, our framework can be employed in a general case of FFNN that may include the popular family of CNNs. Second, by using extrapolation for updating the learning parameters, the new framework significantly enhances the learning performance in terms of convergence speed and final objective function value. We evaluated the proposed framework in two applications, including sparse autoencoder training and robustifying CNNs, and compared the results with those of the previous frameworks [9], [13], over three benchmark datasets. The results of our comparative study show the superiority of our proposed framework based on certain measures of the system performance, including reconstruction error, Hoyer sparseness, convergence speed and robustness.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT
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REFERENCES