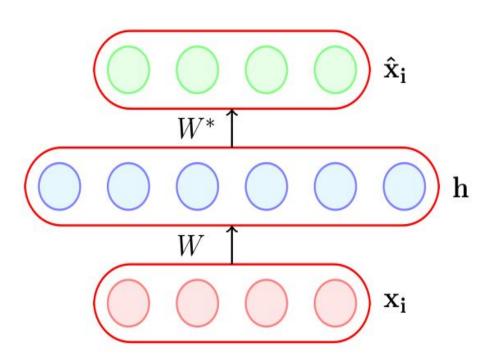
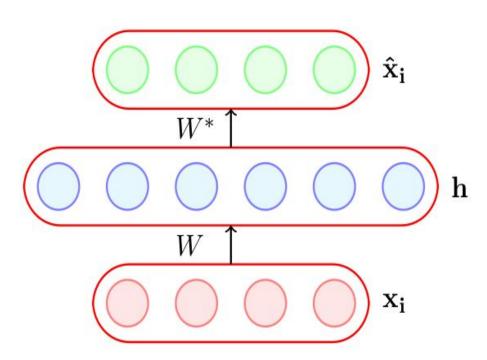
CS 349: Autoencoder Part-II

Asif Ekbal

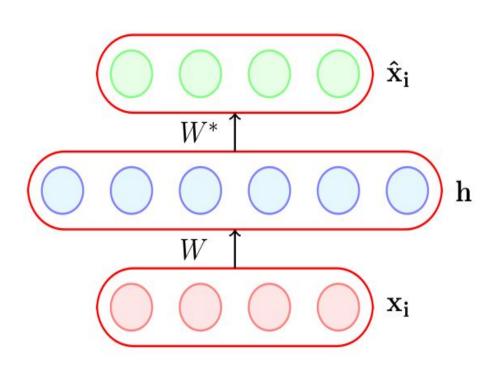
Department of Computer Science and Engineering Indian Institute of Technology Patna

Regularization in autoencoders (Motivation)

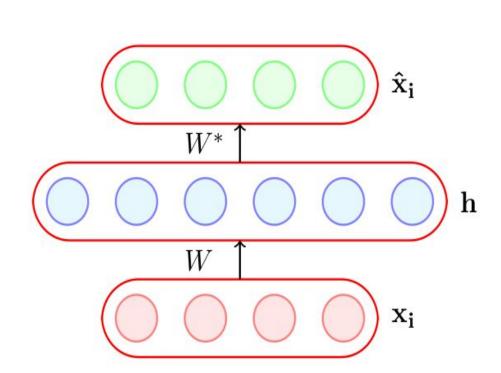




 While poor generalization could happen even in under-complete autoencoders, it is an even more serious problem for over-complete auto encoders

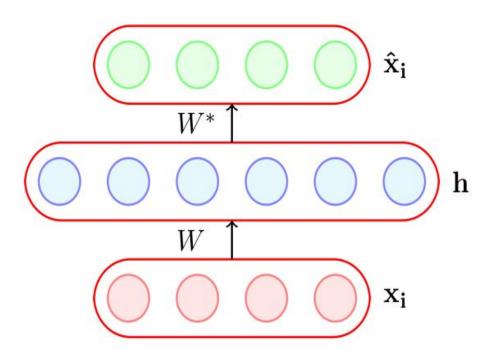


- While poor generalization could happen even in under complete autoencoders it is an even more serious problem for overcomplete auto encoders
- Here, (as stated earlier) the model can simply learn to copy \mathbf{x}_i to \mathbf{h} and then \mathbf{h} to $\mathbf{\hat{x}}_i$

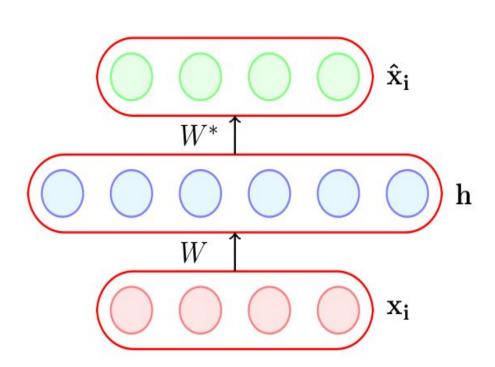


- While poor generalization could happen even in under complete autoencoders it is an even more serious problem for overcomplete auto encoders
- Here, (as stated earlier) the model can simply learn to copy x_i to h and then h to x̂_i
- To avoid poor generalization, we need to introduce regularization

The simplest solution is to add a L₂
 regularization term to the objective function



$$\min_{\theta, w, w^*, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\hat{x}_{ij} - x_{ij})^2 + \lambda \|\theta\|^2$$

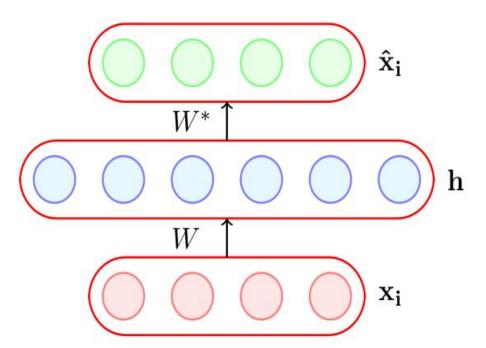


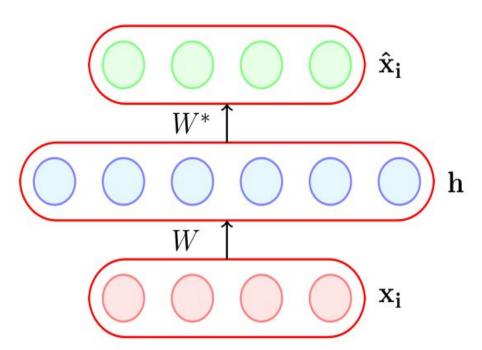
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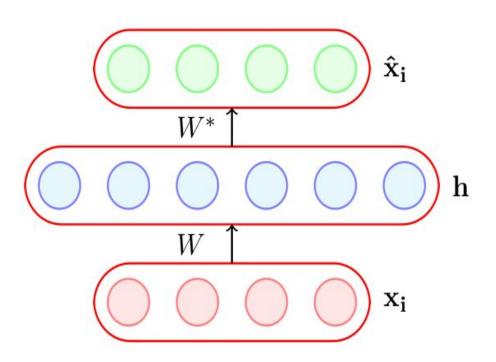
• This is very easy to implement and just adds a term λW to the gradient $\frac{\partial \mathscr{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$ (and similarly for other parameters)

Another trick is to tie the weights of the encoder and decoder



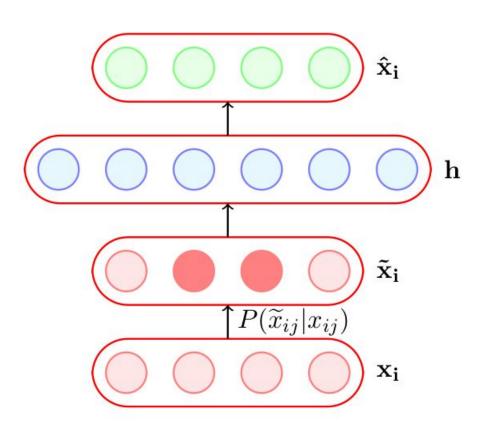


• Another trick is to tie the weights of the encoder and decoder i.e., $W^* = W^T$

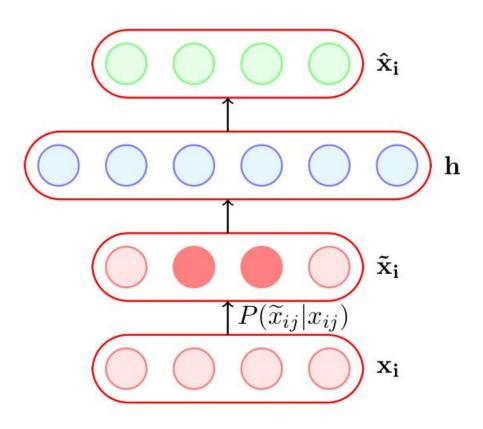


- Another trick is to tie the weights of the encoder and decoder i.e., $W^* = W^T$
- This effectively reduces the capacity of Autoencoder and acts as a regularizer

Denoising Autoencoders

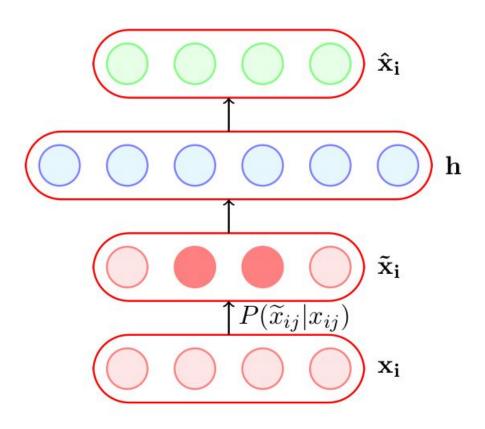


A denoising encoder simply corrupts the input data using a probabilistic process $(P(\widetilde{x}_{ij}|x_{jj}))$ before feeding it to the network



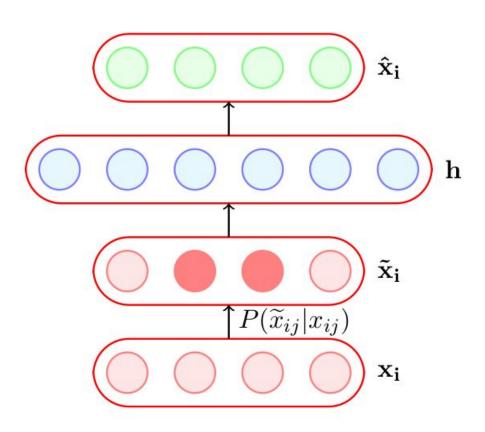
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 A simple ($P(\widetilde{x}_{ij} | x_{ij})$) used in practice is the following



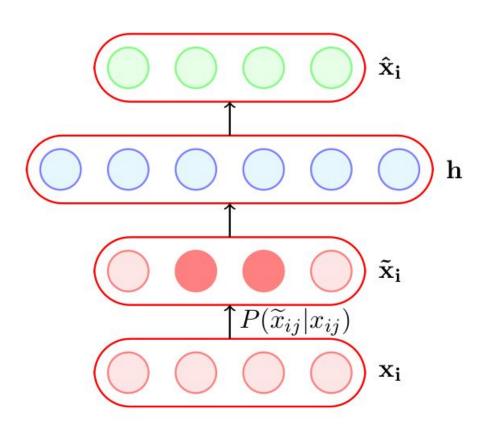
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$$P(\widetilde{x}_{ij} = 0 | x_{ij}) = q$$



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$$P(\widetilde{x}_{ij} = 0 | x_{ij}) = q$$
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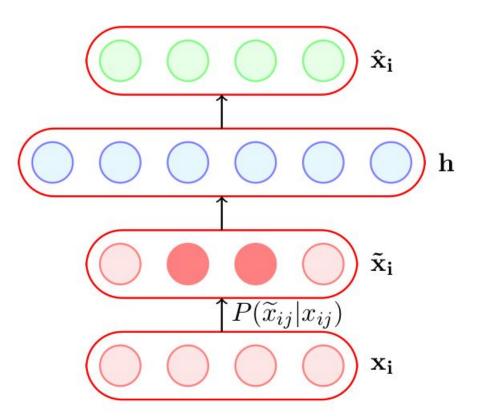


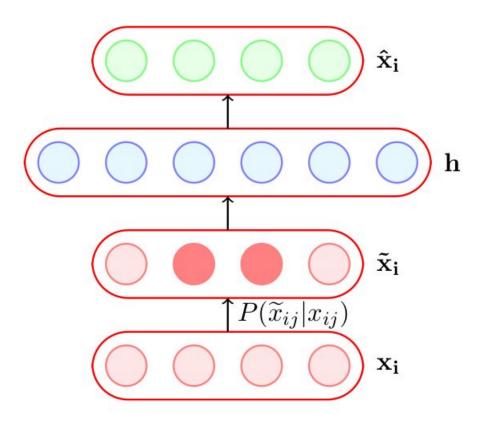
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 In other words, with probability q the input is flipped to 0 and with probability (1 − q) it is retained as it is

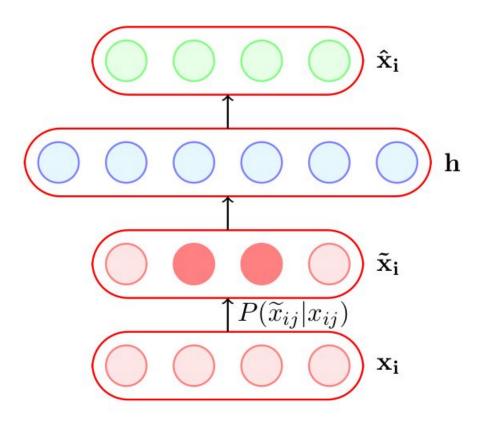
• How does this help?





- How does this help?
- This helps because the objective is still to reconstruct the original (uncorrupted) **x**_i

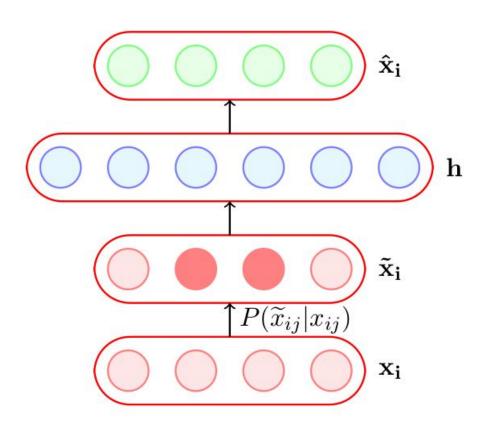
$$\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\hat{x}_{ij} - x_{ij})^{2}$$



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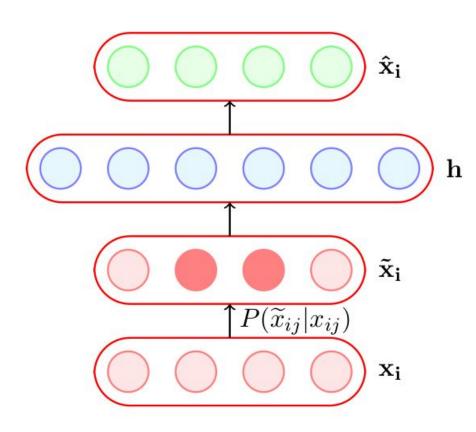
• It no longer makes sense for the model to copy the corrupted \widetilde{x}_i into $h(\widetilde{x}_i)$ and then into \hat{x}_i (the objective function will not be minimized by doing so)



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- Instead the model will now have to capture the characteristics of the data correctly

For example, it will have to learn to reconstruct a corrupted x_{ij} correctly by relying on its interactions with other elements of x_i

We will now see a practical application in which AEs are used and then compare Denoising Autoencoders with regular autoencoders

Task: Hand-written digit recognition

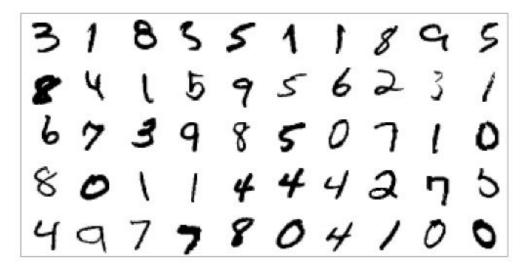


Figure: MNIST data

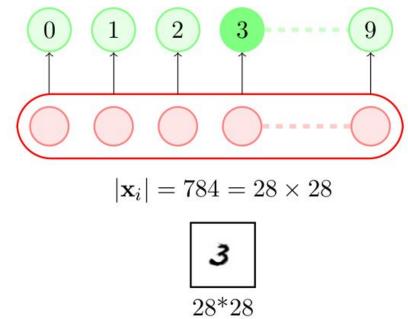


Figure: Basic approach(we use raw data as input features)

Task: Hand-written digit recognition



Figure: MNIST data

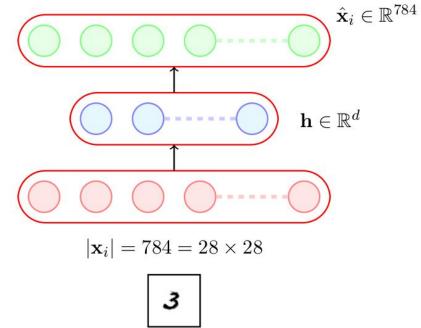


Figure: AE approach (first learn important characteristics of data)

Task: Hand-written digit recognition

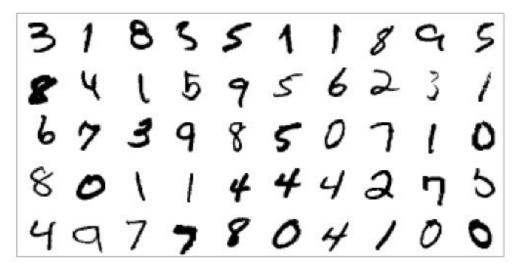


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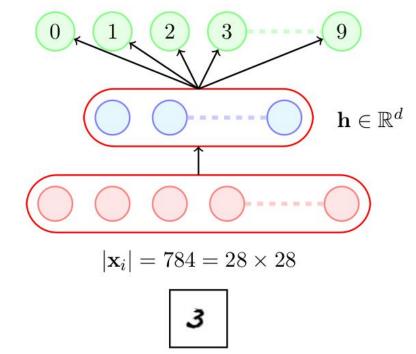
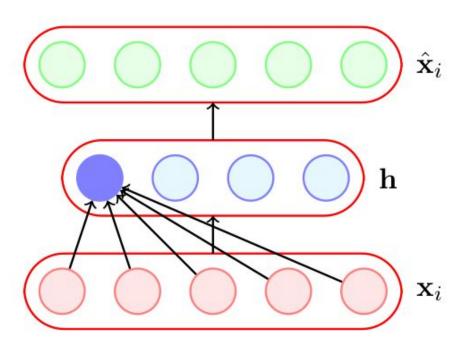
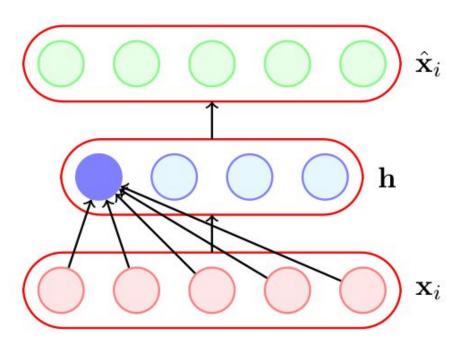


Figure: AE approach (and then train a classifier on top of this hidden representation)

We will now see a way of visualizing AEs and use this visualization to compare different AEs

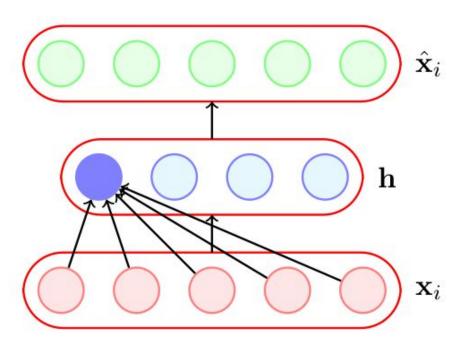


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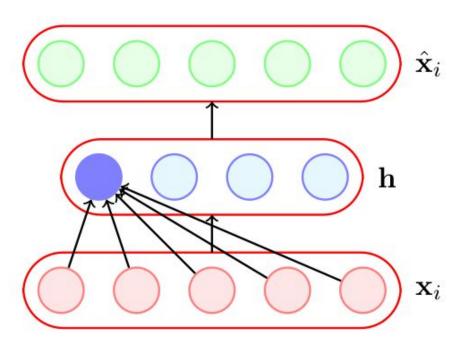
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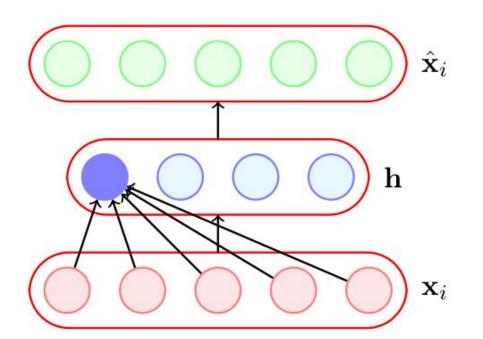
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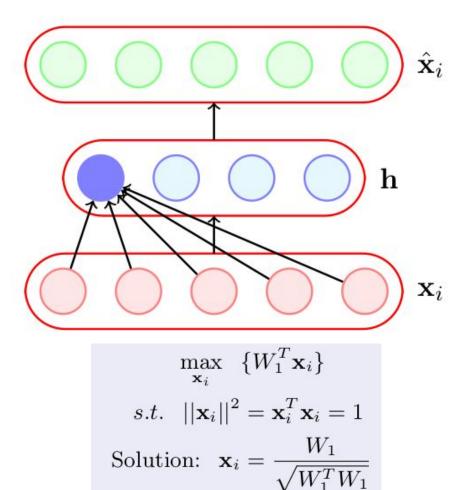
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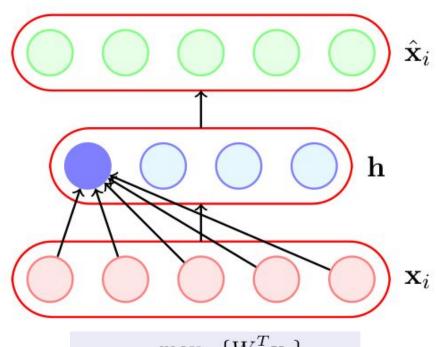
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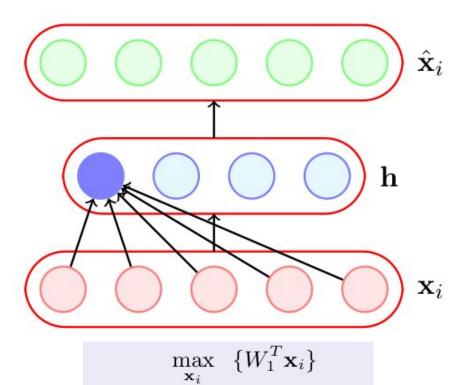
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$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{W_1}{\sqrt{W_1^T W_1}}$$

• Thus the inputs

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{W_1}{\sqrt{W_1^T W_1}}, \frac{W_2}{\sqrt{W_2^T W_2}}, \dots \frac{W_n}{\sqrt{W_n^T W_n}}$$

will respectively cause hidden neurons 1 to n to maximally fire



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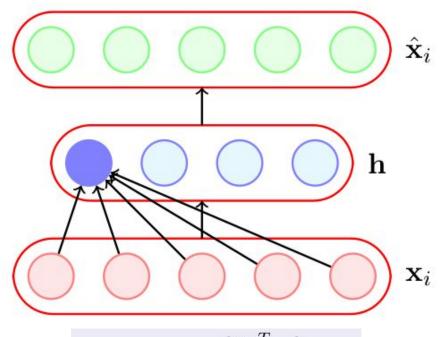
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Let us plot these images (x_i 's) which maximally activate the first k neurons of the hidden representations learned by a vanilla autoencoder and different denoising autoencoders



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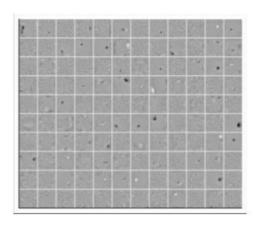
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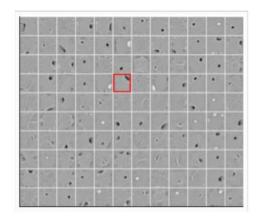
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- These x_i 's are computed by the above formula using the weights (W₁, W₂...W_k) learned by the respective autoencoders





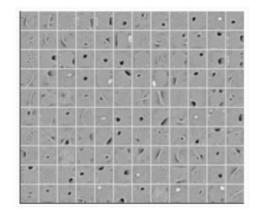
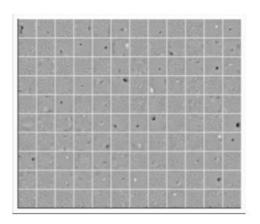


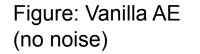
Figure: Vanilla AE (no noise)

Figure: 25% Denoising AE (q=0.25)

Figure: 50% Denoising AE (q=0.5)

Vanilla AE does not learn many meaningful patterns





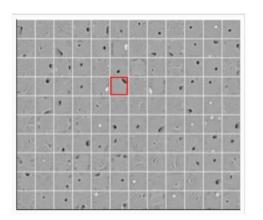


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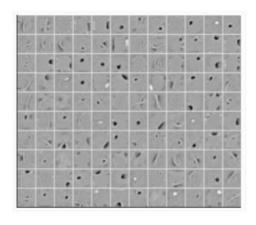
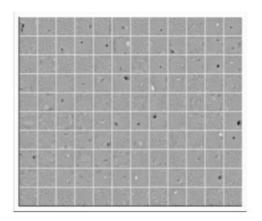
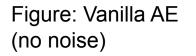


Figure: 50% Denoising AE (q=0.5)

- Vanilla AE does not learn many meaningful patterns
- The hidden neurons of the denoising AEs seem to act like pen-stroke detectors (for example, in the highlighted neuron the black region is a stroke that you would expect in a '0' or a '2' or a '3' or a '8' or a '9')





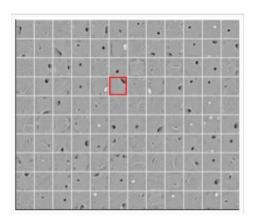


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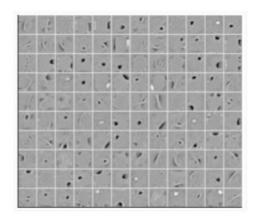
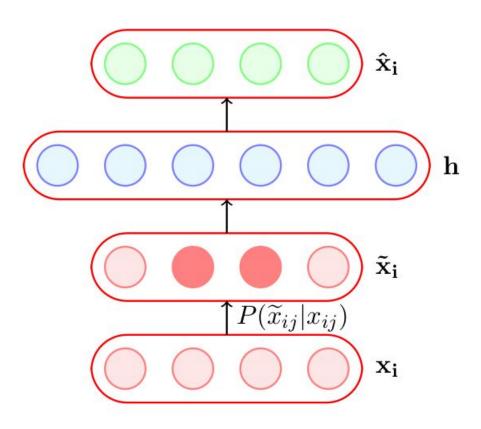
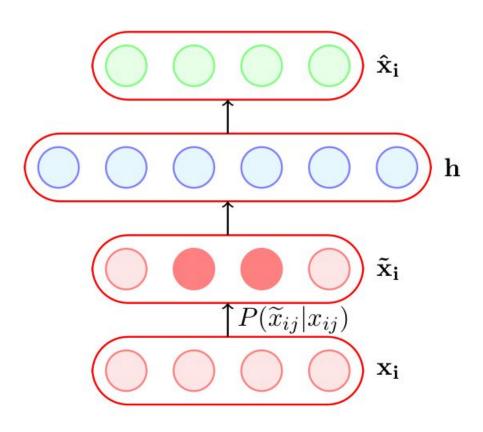


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- The hidden neurons of the denoising AEs seem to act like pen-stroke detectors (for example, in the highlighted neuron the black region is a stroke that you would expect in a '0' or a '2' or a '3' or a '8' or a '9')
- As the noise increases the filters become more wide because the neuron has to rely on more adjacent pixels to feel confident about a stroke

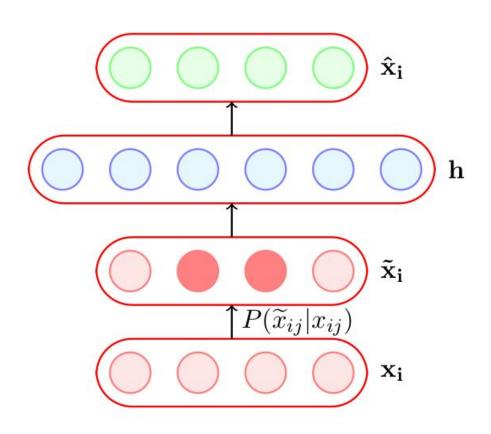


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- Another way of corrupting the inputs is to add a Gaussian noise to the input

$$\widetilde{x}_{ij} = x_{ij} + \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

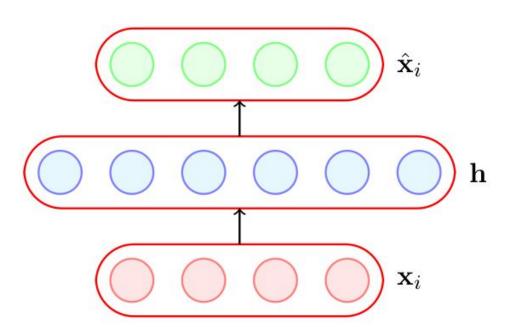


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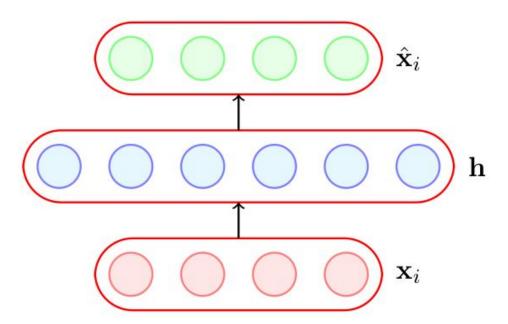
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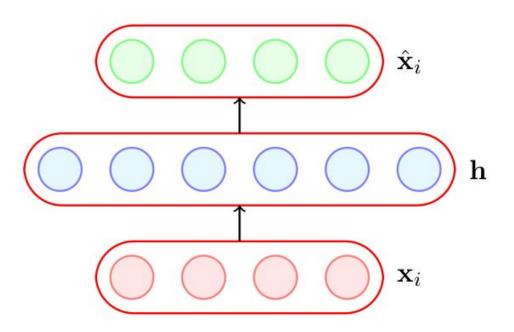
 We will now use such a denoising AE on a different dataset and see their performance

Sparse Autoencoders

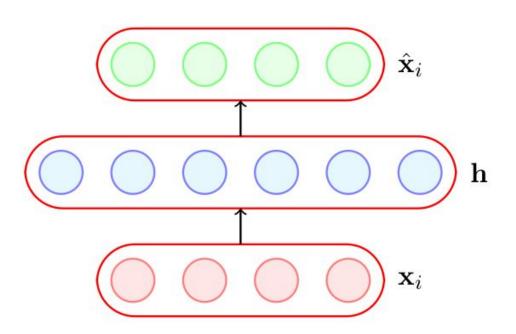


 A hidden neuron with sigmoid activation will have values between 0 and 1



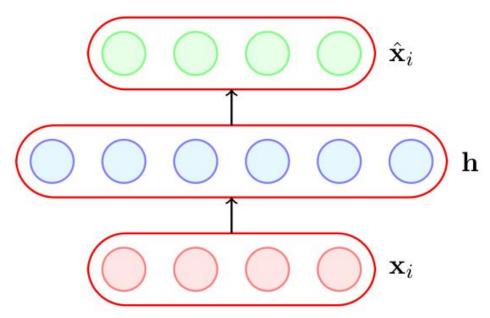


- A hidden neuron with sigmoid activation will have values between 0 and 1
- We say that the neuron is activated when its output is close to 1 and not activated when its output is close to 0.



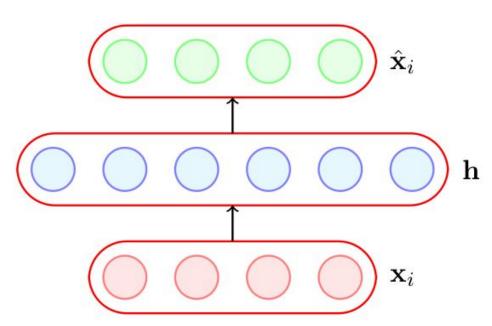
- A hidden neuron with sigmoid activation will have values between 0 and 1
- We say that the neuron is activated when its output is close to 1 and not activated when its output is close to 0.
- A sparse autoencoder tries to ensure that the neuron is inactive most of the times.

• If the neuron I is sparse (i.e. mostly inactive) then $\hat{\rho_l} \rightarrow 0$



The average value of the activation of a neuron I is given by

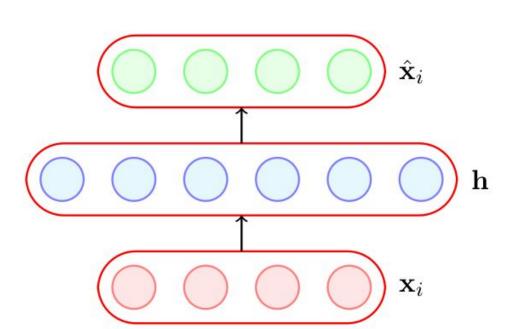
$$\hat{\rho}_l = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m h(\mathbf{x}_i)$$



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- If the neuron I is sparse (i.e. mostly inactive) then $\hat{\rho_i} \to 0$
 - A sparse autoencoder uses a sparsity parameter ρ (typically very close to 0, say, 0.005) and tries to enforce the constraint ρ_1 =

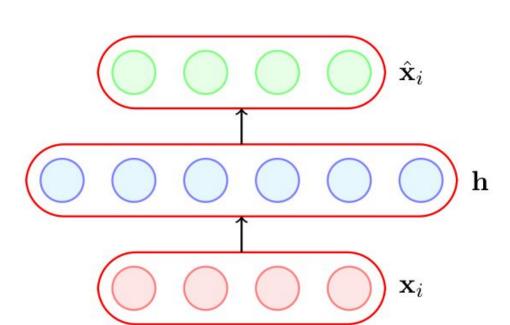


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- A sparse autoencoder uses a sparsity parameter ρ (typically very close to 0, say, 0.005) and tries to enforce the constraint $\rho_{\hat{l}} = \rho$
- One way of ensuring this is to add the following term to the objective function

$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l}$$



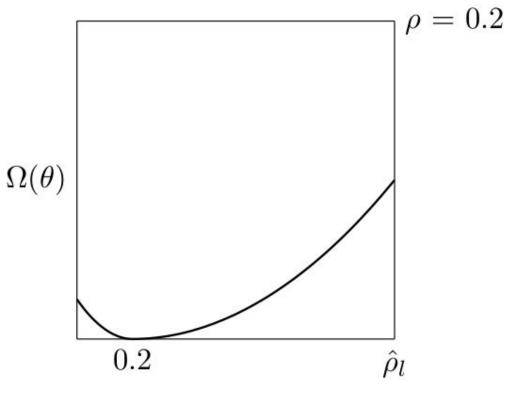
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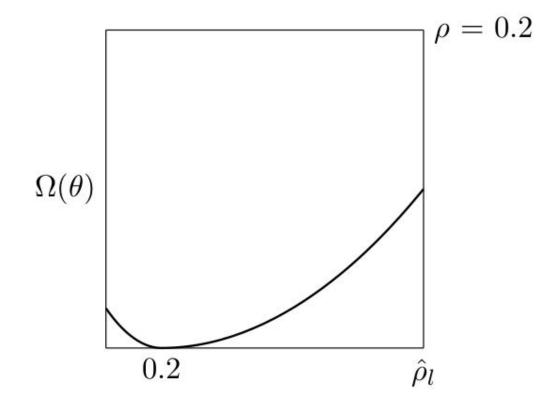
$$\hat{\rho}_l = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m h(\mathbf{x}_i)_l$$

- If the neuron I is sparse (i.e. mostly inactive) then $\hat{\rho_i} \rightarrow 0$
 - then $\rho_1 \rightarrow 0$ A sparse autoencoder uses a sparsity parameter ρ (typically very close to 0, say, 0.005) and tries to enforce the constraint ρ_1 =
- One way of ensuring this is to add the following term to the objective function

$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l}$$

 When will this term reach its minimum value and what is the minimum value? Let us plot it and check.





• The function will reach its minimum value(s) when $\hat{\rho_l} = \rho$.

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- We already know how to calculate

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• Let us see how to calculate $\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial V}$

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$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$$

Let us see now to calculate $\frac{\partial W}{\partial W}$

$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} \rho log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1-\rho)log \frac{1-\rho}{1-\hat{\rho}_l}$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{L}}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$$

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$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^k \rho log \rho - \rho log \hat{\rho}_l + (1-\rho)log(1-\rho) - (1-\rho)log(1-\hat{\rho}_l)$$
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$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l}$$

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By chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial W}$$

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 entropy loss and $\Omega(\theta)$ constraint.

• We already know how

By chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial W}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \Omega(\theta)} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial \Omega(\theta) & \partial \Omega(\theta) & \partial \Omega(\theta) \end{bmatrix}^{T}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} = \left[\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_1}, \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_2}, \dots \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}_k} \right]^T$$

$$\hat{\mathscr{L}}(\theta) = \mathscr{L}(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$$

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- Let us see how to calculate

$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{\kappa} \rho log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho)log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l}$$

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$$\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial \hat{\rho}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial W}$$

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For each neuron $I \subseteq 1 \dots k$ in hidden layer, we have

$$\hat{\mathscr{L}}(\theta) = \mathscr{L}(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$$

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- Let us see how to calculate $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$

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And $\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial W} = \mathbf{x}_i (g'(W^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}))^T$

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Now,

$$\hat{\mathcal{L}}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(\theta) + \Omega(\theta)$$

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We already know how to calculate $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W}$

Let us see how to calculate $\frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$ Finally,

 $\frac{\partial \hat{\mathcal{L}}(\theta)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial W} + \frac{\partial \Omega(\theta)}{\partial W}$

(and we know how to calculate both terms on R.H.S)

<u>Derivation:</u>

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial W} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_1}{\partial W} & \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_2}{\partial W} \dots \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_k}{\partial W} \end{bmatrix}$$

For each element in the above equation we can calculate $\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial W}$ (which is the partial derivative of a scalar w.r.t. a matrix = matrix). For a single element of a matrix W_{jl} :-

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_{l}}{\partial W_{jl}} = \frac{\partial \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} g(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l})\right]}{\partial W_{jl}}$$

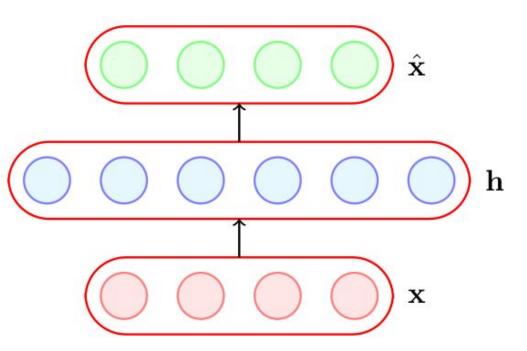
$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \left[g(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l})\right]}{\partial W_{jl}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} g'(W_{:,l}^{T} \mathbf{x_{i}} + b_{l})x_{ij}$$

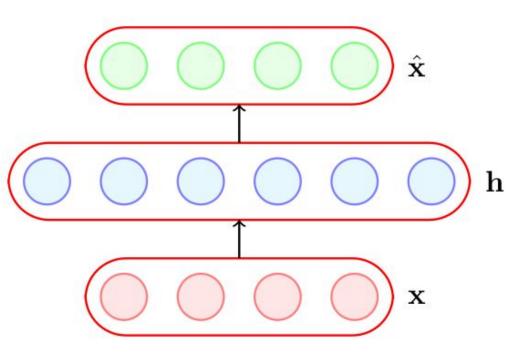
So in matrix notation we can write it as:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{\rho}_l}{\partial W} = \mathbf{x}_i (g'(W^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}))^T$$

Contractive Autoencoders

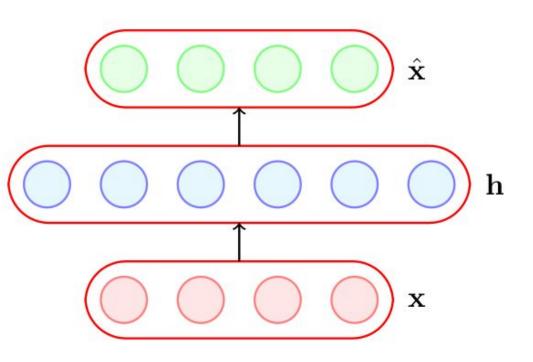


 A contractive autoencoder also tries to prevent an overcomplete autoencoder from learning the identity function.



- A contractive autoencoder also tries to prevent an overcomplete autoencoder from learning the identity function.
- It does so by adding the following regularization term to the loss function

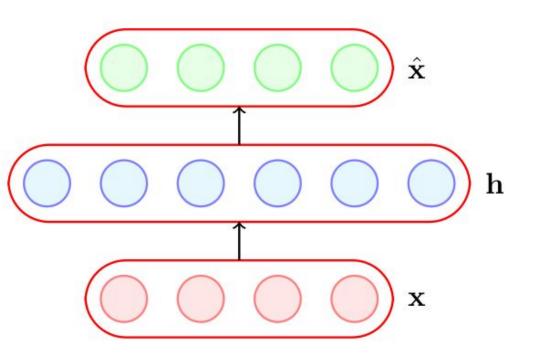
$$\Omega(\theta) = \|J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})\|_F^2$$



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$$\Omega(\theta) = ||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2$$

Where $J_x(\mathbf{h})$ is the Jacobian of the encoder



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- It does so by adding the following regularization term to the loss function

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Where $J_x(h)$ is the Jacobian of the encoder Let us see what it looks like.

 If the input has n dimensions and the hidden layer has k dimensions then

$$J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \dots & \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

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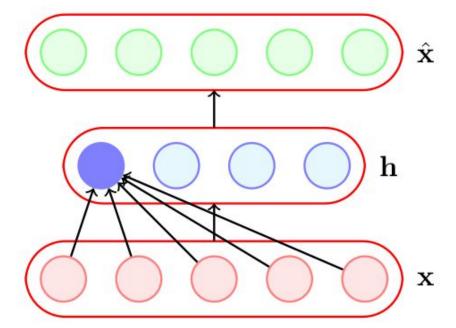
 | The first the content of the c
- In other words, the (I, j) entry of the Jacobian captures the variation in the output of the Ith neuron with a small variation in the jth input.

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 $||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$

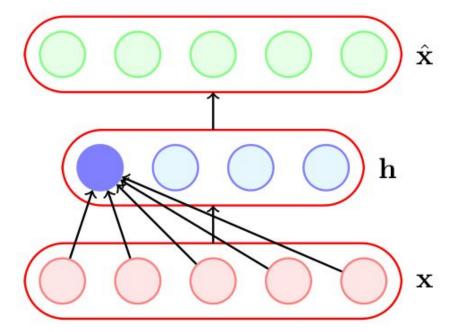
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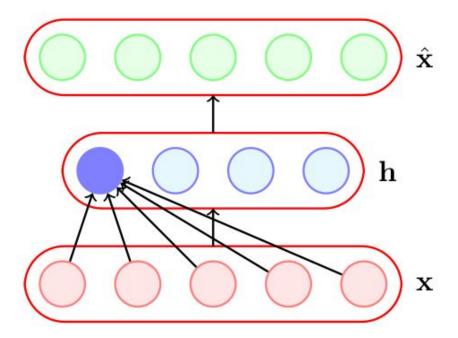
What is the intuition behind this?

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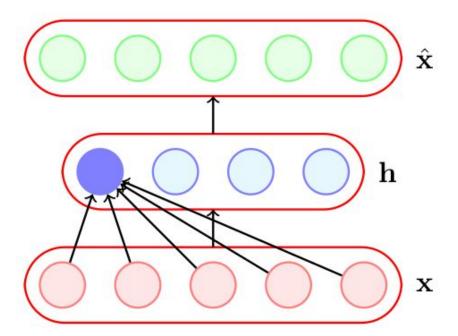
- What is the intuition behind this?
- Consider $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1}$ what does it mean if $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} = 0$

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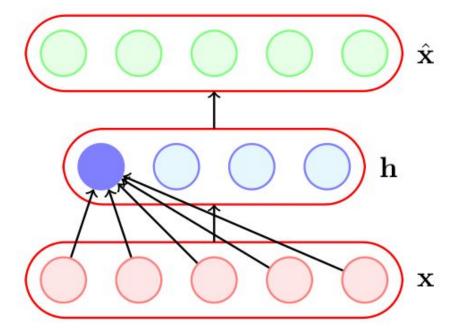
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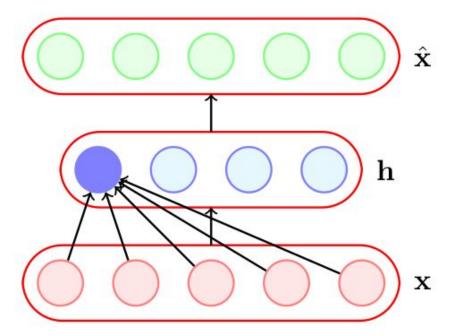
- What is the intuition behind this?
- Consider $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1}$ what does it mean if $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} = 0$
- It means that this neuron is not very sensitive to variations in the input x₄
- But doesn't this contradict our other goal of minimizing L(θ) which requires h to capture variations in the input.

$$||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$$



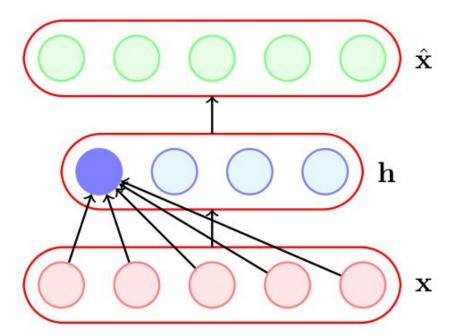
Indeed it does and that's the idea

$$||J_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{h})||_F^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^k \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j}\right)^2$$



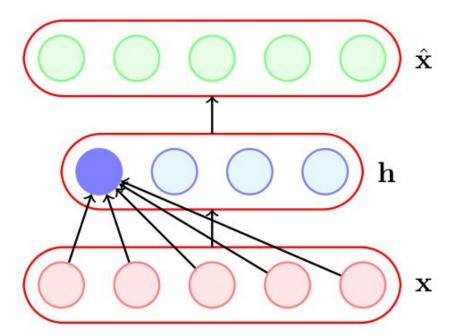
- Indeed it does and that's the idea
- By putting these two contradicting objectives against each other we ensure that h is sensitive to only very important variations as observed in the training data.

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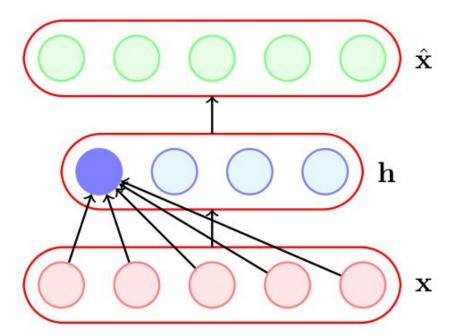
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- $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ capture important variations in data

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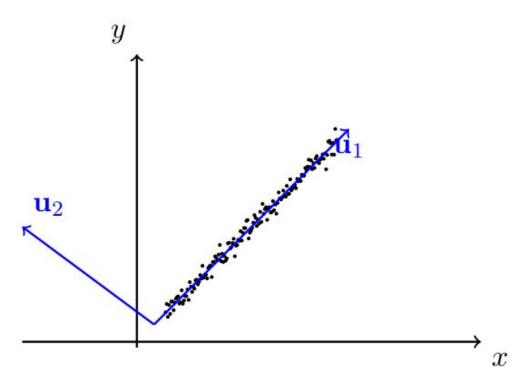
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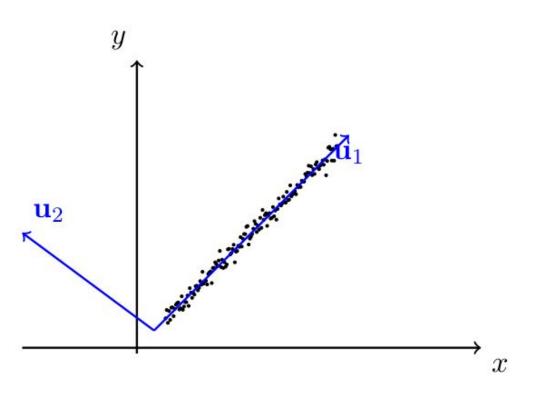
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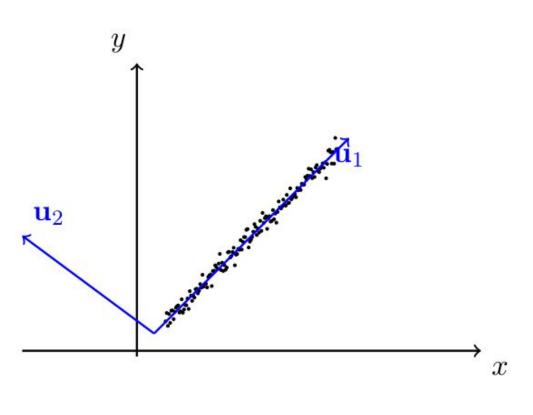
- Indeed it does and that's the idea
- By putting these two contradicting objectives against each other we ensure that h is sensitive to only very important variations as observed in the training data.
- $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ capture important variations in data
- $\Omega(\theta)$ do not capture variations in data
- Tradeoff capture only very important variations in the data

Let us try to understand this with the help of an illustration.

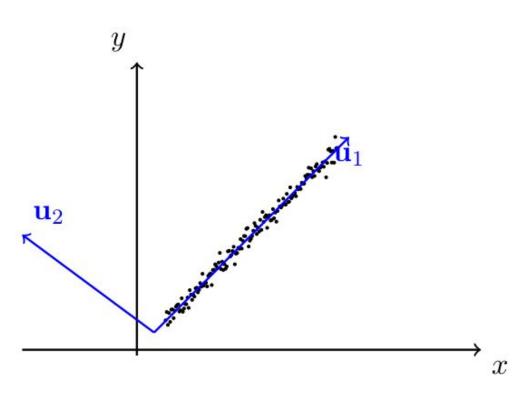




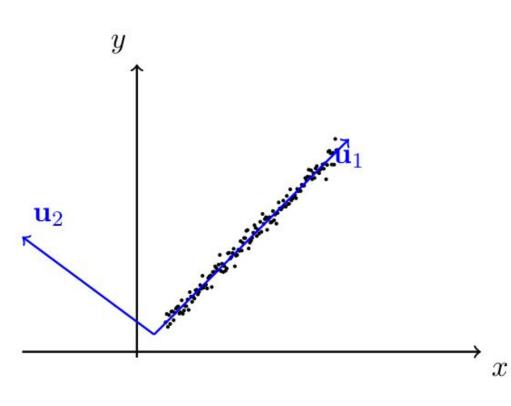
 Consider the variations in the data along directions u₁ and u₂



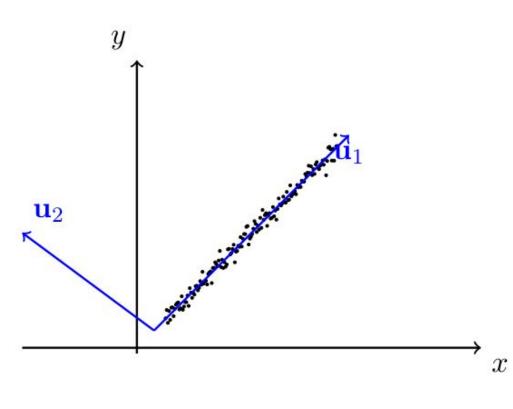
- Consider the variations in the data along directions u₁ and u₂
- It makes sense to maximize a neuron to be sensitive to variations along **u**₁



- Consider the variations in the data along directions u₁ and u₂
- It makes sense to maximize a neuron to be sensitive to variations along u₁
- At the same time it makes sense to inhibit a neuron from being sensitive to variations along u₂ (as there seems to be small noise and unimportant for reconstruction)

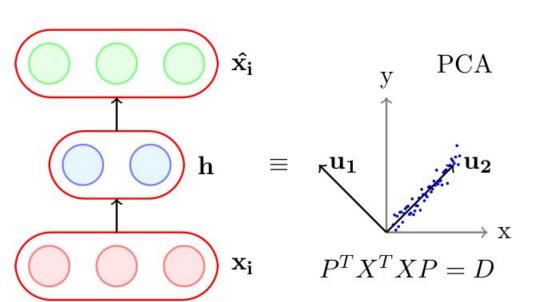


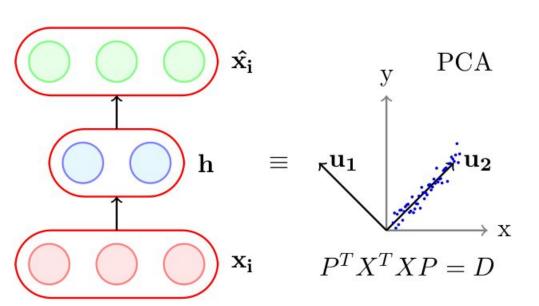
- Consider the variations in the data along directions u₁ and u₂
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- By doing so we can balance between the contradicting goals of good reconstruction and low sensitivity.



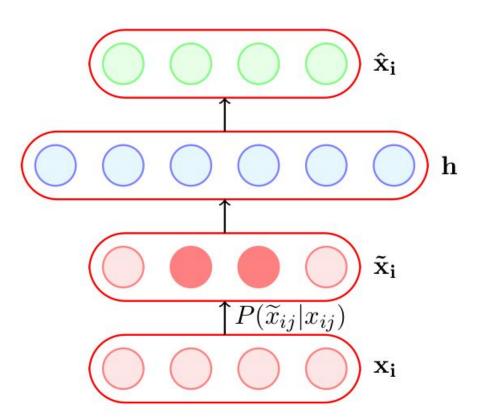
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- What does this remind you of?

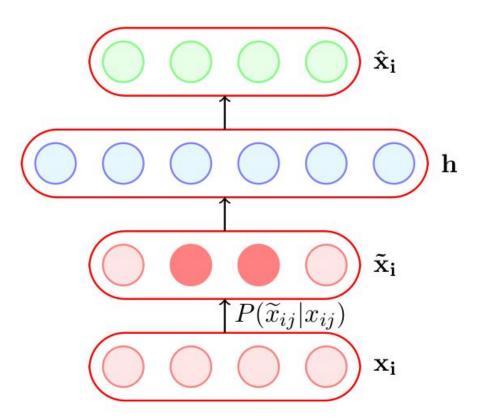
Summary

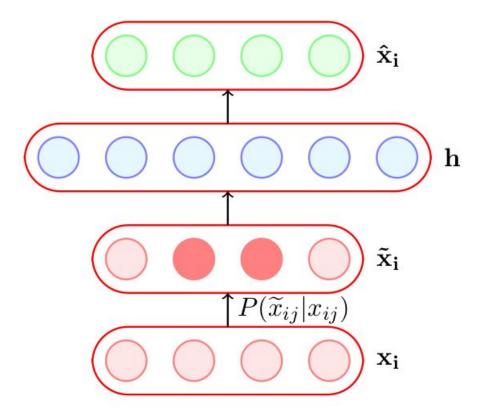




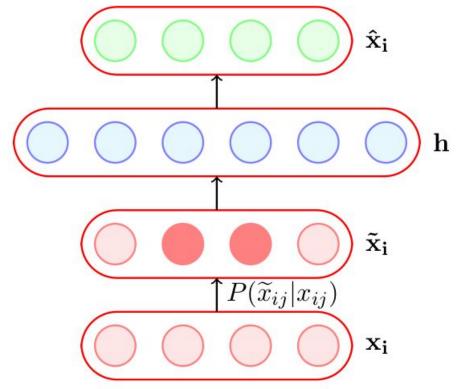
$$\min_{\theta} \|X - \underbrace{HW^*}_{\substack{U\Sigma V^T \\ (\mathrm{SVD})}}\|_F^2$$





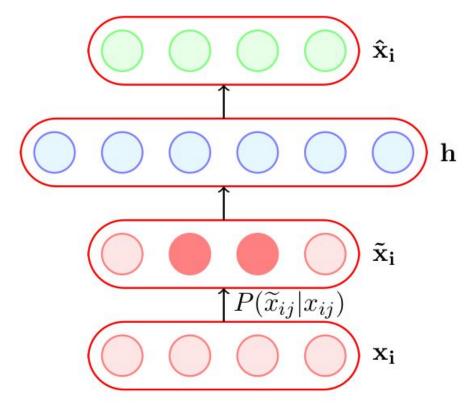


$$\Omega(\theta) = \lambda \|\theta\|^2$$
 Weight decaying



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$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{l=1}^{k} \rho \log \frac{\rho}{\hat{\rho}_l} + (1 - \rho) \log \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \hat{\rho}_l} \quad \text{Sparse}$$



$$\Omega(\theta) = \lambda \|\theta\|^2$$
 Weight decaying

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$$\Omega(\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{l=1}^{k} \left(\frac{\partial h_l}{\partial x_j} \right)^2$$
 [Contractive]

Acknowledgement

- Stanford University Deep Learning course
- IITM Deep Learning course