11/20/24, 10:09 PM optimizers

## Part 1: Understanding Optimizers

- Role of Optimization Algorithms in Neural Networks Role: Optimization algorithms
  are responsible for updating the weights and biases of a neural network to minimize
  the loss function. Necessity: They enable neural networks to learn from data by
  iteratively refining parameters, ensuring that the model generalizes well to unseen
  data.
- 2. Gradient Descent and Its Variants Gradient Descent (GD): Computes gradients for the entire dataset to update model parameters. Advantages: Stable and reliable for convex problems. Disadvantages: Computationally expensive for large datasets and may get stuck in local minima. Variants of Gradient Descent: Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD): Updates parameters using one sample at a time. Pros: Faster updates, can escape local minima. Cons: Noisy updates can lead to unstable convergence. Mini-Batch Gradient Descent: Combines the advantages of GD and SGD by updating using small batches. Pros: Balances stability and speed. Momentum-Based Gradient Descent: Adds a velocity term to smooth updates and accelerate convergence. Tradeoff: Requires an additional hyperparameter.
- 3. Challenges of Traditional Gradient Descent Challenges: Slow Convergence: Near flat regions of the loss surface. Local Minima/Plateaus: Gets stuck in non-optimal solutions. Sensitive to Learning Rate: Too high causes divergence; too low slows learning. Modern Optimizers Address These Challenges By: Using momentum to accelerate convergence. Adopting adaptive learning rates (e.g., RMSprop, Adam) to adjust step size dynamically.
- 4. Momentum and Learning Rate Momentum:

Adds a fraction of the previous update to the current step to accelerate convergence and smooth out oscillations. Impact: Speeds up training in ravines and on convex surfaces. Learning Rate:

Controls the size of parameter updates. Impact: Affects convergence speed and stability. Too high can overshoot minima, while too low causes slow learning. Part 2: Optimizer Techniques

- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) Concept: Updates model parameters using a single randomly chosen data point or small batch. Advantages: Faster updates. Can escape shallow local minima due to noisy updates. Limitations: High variance in updates. Convergence can be unstable. Best for: Large datasets or when computational resources are limited.
- 2. Adam Optimizer Concept: Combines momentum and adaptive learning rates (using first and second moments of gradients). Advantages: Adaptive to gradients. Requires less hyperparameter tuning. Limitations: May overfit on smaller datasets. May not generalize as well as SGD in some cases. Best for: Complex, deep neural networks or when starting with a high learning rate.
- 3. RMSprop Optimizer Concept: Divides the learning rate by the square root of the gradient's running average. Strengths: Prevents vanishing/exploding gradients. Smooths updates for faster convergence. Weaknesses: May converge slower than

11/20/24, 10:09 PM optimizers

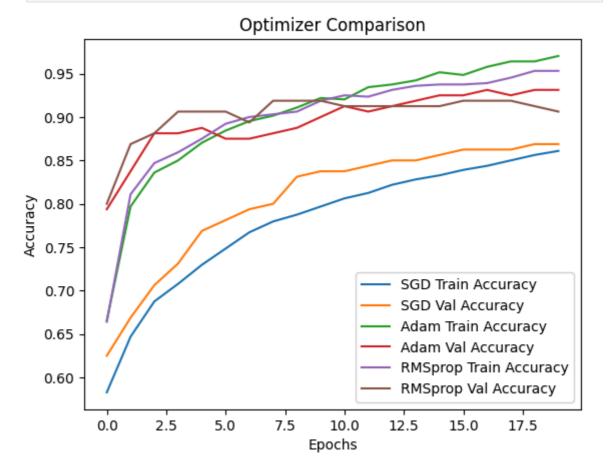
Adam in some tasks. Comparison with Adam: Adam combines momentum and RMSprop, making it more versatile but potentially less stable for some models. Part 3: Applying Optimizers

4. Implement SGD, Adam, and RMSprop

```
In [1]: import tensorflow as tf
        from tensorflow.keras.models import Sequential
        from tensorflow.keras.layers import Dense
        from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import SGD, Adam, RMSprop
        from sklearn.datasets import make_classification
        from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
        from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
        # Generate and preprocess data
        X, y = make_classification(n_samples=1000, n_features=20, n_classes=2)
        X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2, random_
        scaler = StandardScaler()
        X train = scaler.fit transform(X train)
        X_test = scaler.transform(X_test)
        # Build the model
        def create_model(optimizer):
            model = Sequential([
                Dense(64, activation='relu', input_shape=(X_train.shape[1],)),
                Dense(32, activation='relu'),
                Dense(1, activation='sigmoid')
            model.compile(optimizer=optimizer, loss='binary_crossentropy', metrics=['acc
            return model
        # Train and compare optimizers
        optimizers = {'SGD': SGD(), 'Adam': Adam(), 'RMSprop': RMSprop()}
        histories = {}
        for name, opt in optimizers.items():
            model = create model(opt)
            print(f"\nTraining with {name} optimizer...")
            history = model.fit(X train, y train, validation split=0.2, epochs=20, batch
            histories[name] = history
       c:\Users\tarpi\AppData\Local\Programs\Python\Python312\Lib\site-packages\keras\sr
       c\layers\core\dense.py:87: UserWarning: Do not pass an `input shape`/`input dim`
       argument to a layer. When using Sequential models, prefer using an `Input(shape)`
       object as the first layer in the model instead.
         super().__init__(activity_regularizer=activity_regularizer, **kwargs)
       Training with SGD optimizer...
       Training with Adam optimizer...
       Training with RMSprop optimizer...
In [2]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
        for name, history in histories.items():
            plt.plot(history.history['accuracy'], label=f'{name} Train Accuracy')
            plt.plot(history.history['val_accuracy'], label=f'{name} Val Accuracy')
        plt.title('Optimizer Comparison')
```

11/20/24, 10:09 PM optimizers

```
plt.xlabel('Epochs')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```



3. Considerations for Choosing an Optimizer Convergence Speed: Adam generally converges faster but may not always generalize well. Stability: RMSprop and SGD with momentum are more stable. Task Specificity: SGD often performs better for computer vision tasks. Adam works well for natural language processing and reinforcement learning. Generalization: SGD with learning rate decay generalizes well for larger datasets.

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