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ABSTRACT

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1 INTRODUCTION

Adaptive learning algorithms like AdaGrad and Adam are being extensively used thanks to there shorter learning time, However the benefit of using such algorithms on datasets where the number of model parameters to train on is larger than the available data, is to be investigated. In this paper we try to reproduce the experiment done by Wilson & al. [WRS⁺17] in order to investigate the results of using adaptive learning algorithms compared to there non-adaptive counter parts in the case where the available number of points in the data is smaller than the number of model parameters to train.

2 BACKGROUND

In this section we are going to introduce the algorithms used in the experiment. We are going to introduce them using an informal and a mathematical description. To visualize how these algorithms function differently we suggest that you take a look at Lili Jiang's tool Gradient Descent Viz [Jan20]. In the next sections we define x to be a vector or a scalar, t is the iteration number, L is the loss function, W is the weights matrix, α is the learning rate and β_i are decay rates.

2.1 Non-adaptive algorithms

Stochastic Gradient descent [KW52] is the most basic Learning algorithm. To minimize the Loss function it calculates the function's gradient at a particular point and updates the point coordinates with the negative value of that gradient. Formally, in the iteration t SGD calculates the next point coordinate using the following formula:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha \nabla L(x_t)$$

One problem with SGD is that its learning speed is very slow [DAN⁺18] and can get caught in a local minimum easily [BJ19].

To solve this issue of slow learning rate we have invented the **Stochastic gradient descent with momentum** [Qia99]. This aproche is inspired from classical physics where the motion equation depends on the speed of the particle which can be seen as a feedback from previous steps. This principle is applied to the SGD through the use of momentum variable. Formally:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha \nabla L(x_t) + \alpha \nabla L(x_{t-1})\beta$$

where $\beta \in [0, 1]$ is a decay rate that controles how much previous steps influence the current one. Analogically it can be seen as surface friction to help a moving object stop. If it

is set to 1 the algorithm will never converge. Thanks to its momentum this algorithm can escape better local minimums.

2.2 Adaptive algorithms

Adaptive learning algorithms have the ability to adapt the learning rate to each parameter.

AdaGrad [DHS11] adapts the learning to each feature depending on how big is the gradient according to that feature is. Let $G_t = \sum_{\tau=1}^t \nabla L(x_\tau) \nabla L(x_\tau)^T$ AdaGrad calculates the new x coordinate using the following equation :

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha G_t^{-\frac{1}{2}} \circ \nabla L(x_t)$$

where \circ is the Hadamard product. Generally the application as shown above is computationally slow for this reason we take only the diagonal of G since it is calculated in a linear time and approximate well the result. In practice we add an ϵ to the square root of G_t in order to avoid division by 0. One downfall of this algorithm is that G is growing with each iteration which ends up slowing the learning speed.

RMSProp[Hin12] solves this problem by adding a decay factor to the gradient sum. Let $G_0 = 0$

$$G_t = \beta G_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) \nabla L(x_t) \nabla L(x_t)^T$$

and the equation to calculate the next step coordinate remains the same.

Adam[KB14] on the other hand tries to combine RMSProp and AdaGrad. Let $M_0 = 0$ and $G_0 = 0$

$$M_t = \beta M_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) \nabla L(x_t) \\ G_t = \beta G_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) \nabla L(x_t) \nabla L(x_t)^T$$

the equation to update parameters becomes

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha M_t G_t^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

3 EXPERIMENT

4 RELATED WORK

5 CONCLUSION

6 MODIFICATIONS

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