# Modern Techniques

CISC 7026: Introduction to Deep Learning

University of Macau

- 1. Review
- 2. Dirty secret of deep learning
- 3. Optimization is hard
- 4. Deeper neural networks
- 5. Activation functions
- 6. Parameter initialization
- 7. Stochastic gradient descent
- 8. Modern optimization
- 9. Coding

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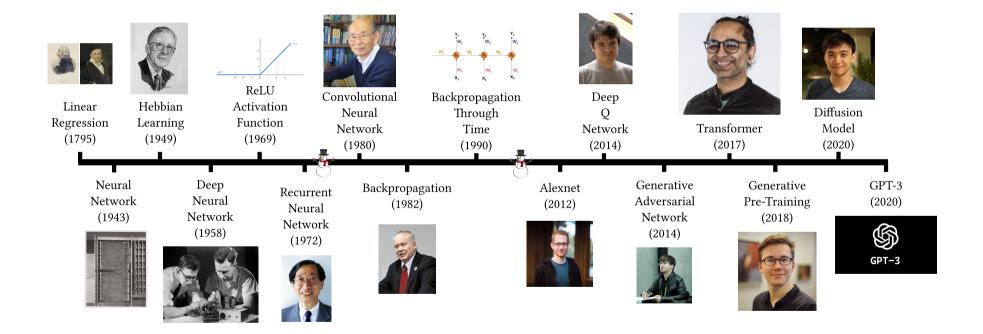
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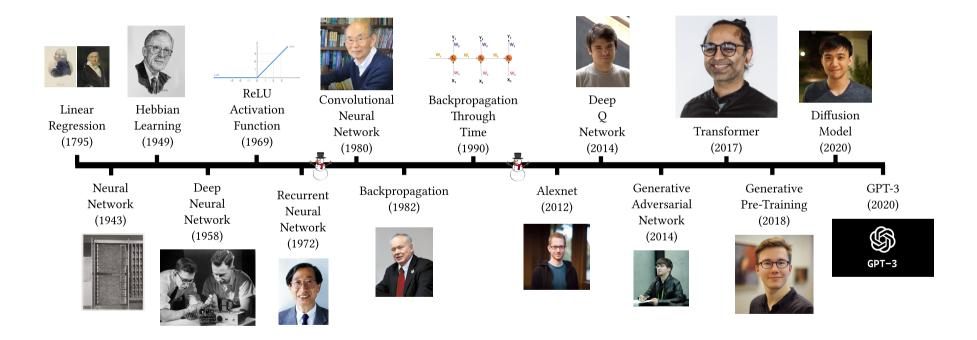
Today we experiment, and maybe tomorrow we discover the theory

Similar to using neural networks for 40 years without knowing how to train them

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Are modern networks are too complex for humans to understand?

Scientific method:

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- 1. Find theory
- 2. Find counterexample
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- 4. Falsify theory

Deep learning is new, so much of part 2 has not happened yet!

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This is how medicine works (e.g., Anesthetics)!

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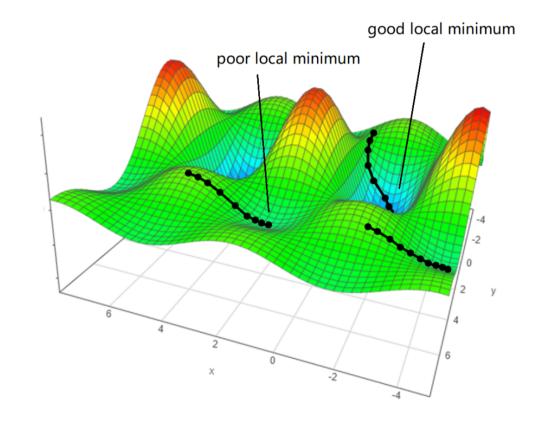
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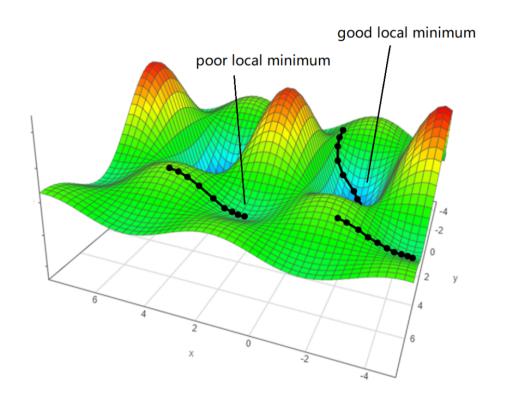
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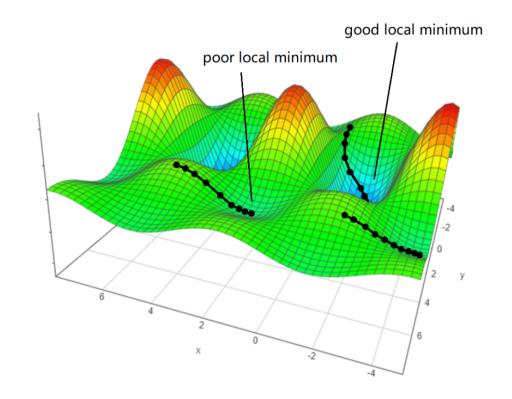
However, finding such  $\theta$  is a much harder problem

Gradient descent only guarantees convergence to a **local** optima

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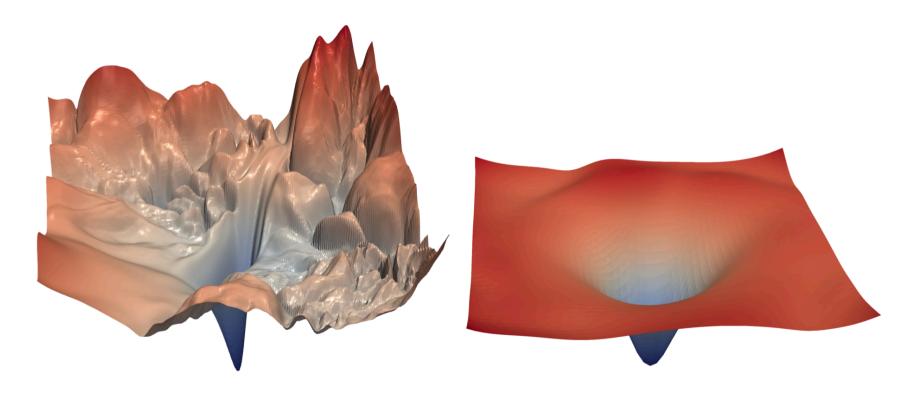




Harder tasks can have millions of local optima, and many of the local optima are not very good!

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Gradient descent reaches a better optimum more quickly in these cases

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We need more layers for harder problems

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• "For large-size networks, most local minima are equivalent and yield similar performance on a test set."

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The number of neurons in a deep neural network affects the quality of local optima

From Choromanska, Anna, et al. "The loss surfaces of multilayer networks.":

- "For large-size networks, most local minima are equivalent and yield similar performance on a test set."
- "The probability of finding a "bad" (high value) local minimum is non-zero for small-size networks and decreases quickly with network size"

To summarize, deeper and wider neural networks tend to produce better results

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Add more layers to your network

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Add more layers to your network

Increase the width of each layer

```
# Deep neural network
from torch import nn

d_x, d_y, d_h = 1, 1, 16
# Linear(input, output)
l1 = nn.Linear(d_x, d_h)
l2 = nn.Linear(d h, d y)
```

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```
# Deeper and wider neural
network
from torch import nn
d x, d y, d h = 1, 1, 256
# Linear(input, output)
l1 = nn.Linear(d x, d h)
12 = nn.Linear(d h, d h)
l3 = nn.Linear(d h, d h)
. . .
16 = nn.Linear(d h, d y)
```

```
import torch
d x, d y, d h = 1, 1, 256
net = torch.nn.Sequential([
    torch.nn.Linear(d x, d h),
    torch.nn.Sigmoid(),
    torch.nn.Linear(d h, d h),
    torch.nn.Sigmoid(),
    torch.nn.Linear(d h, d y),
])
x = torch.ones((d x,))
y = net(x)
```

```
import jax, equinox
d x, d y, d h = 1, 1, 256
net = equinox.nn.Sequential([
    equinox.nn.Linear(d x, d h),
    equinox.nn.Lambda(jax.nn.sigmoid),
    equinox.nn.Linear(d h, d h),
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    equinox.nn.Linear(d h, d y),
])
x = jax.numpy.ones((d x,))
y = net(x)
```

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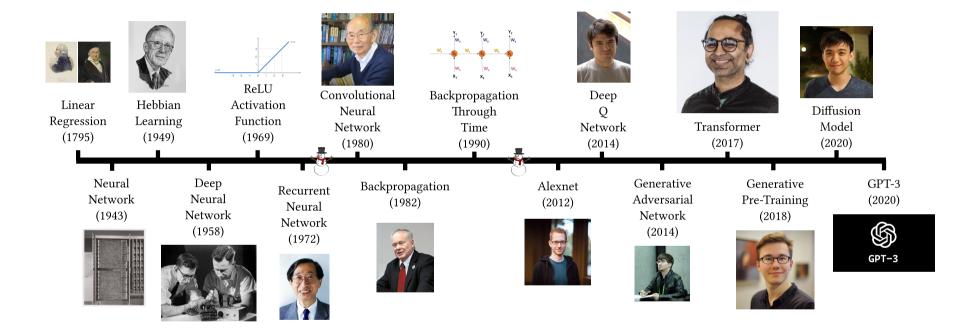
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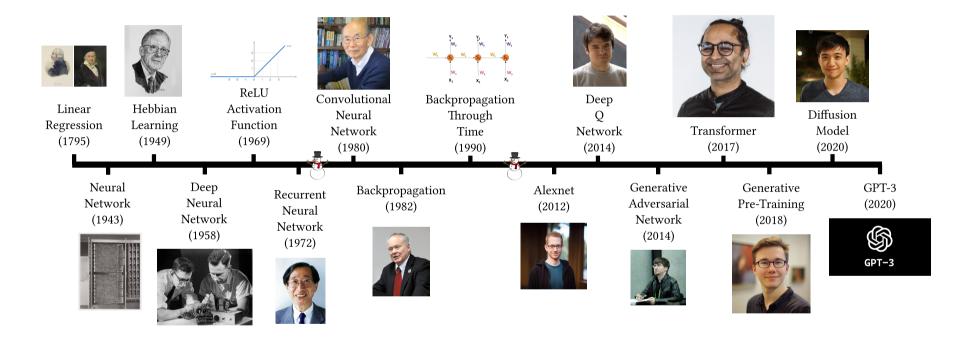
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The sigmoid function was the standard activation function until ~ 2012

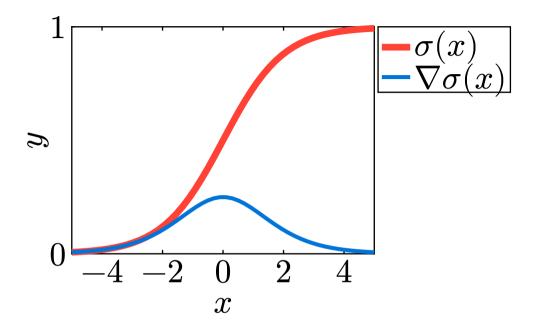
#### The sigmoid function was the standard activation function until ~ 2012

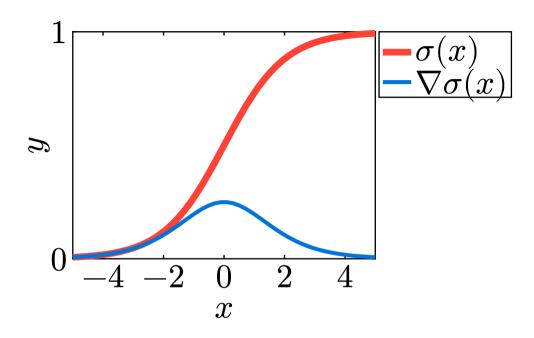


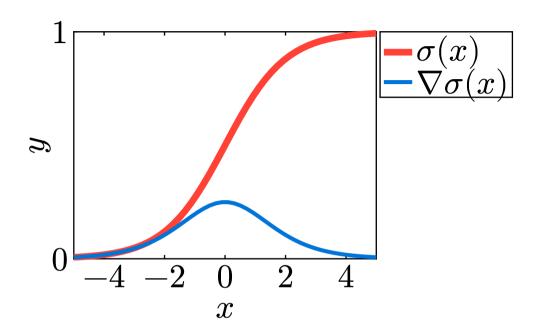
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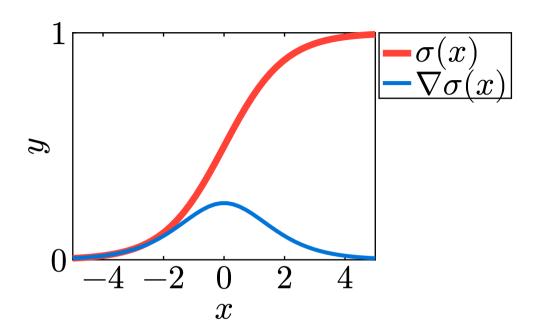
In 2012, people realized that ReLU activation performed much better





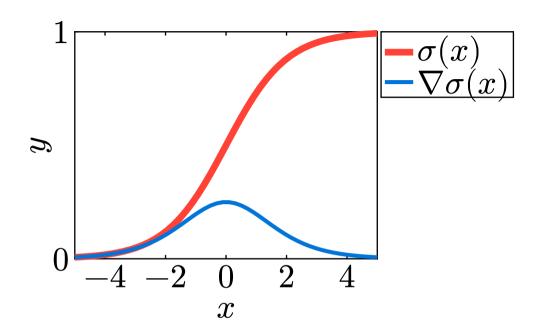


$$f(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{\top} \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{\top} \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{\top} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}})))$$



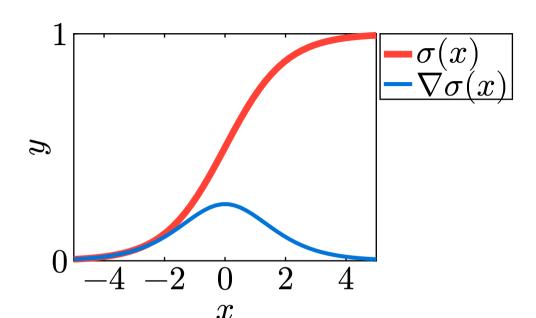
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$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} f(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx 0$$

To fix the vanishing gradient, researchers use the **rectified linear unit** (ReLU)

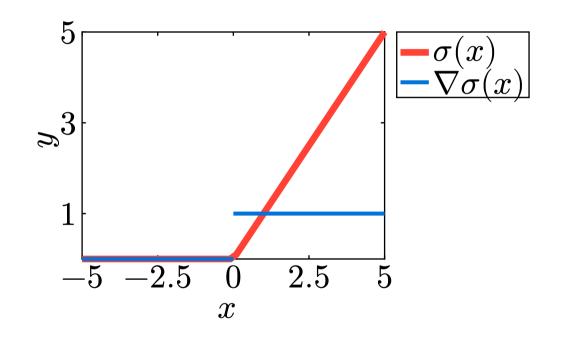
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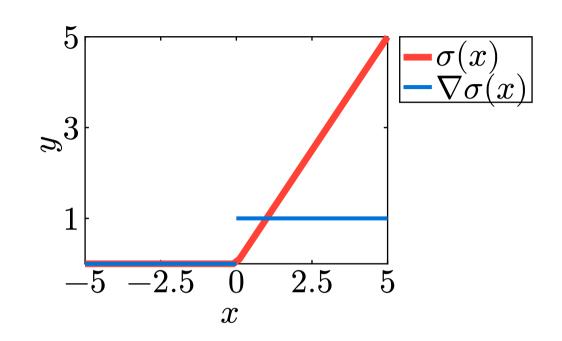
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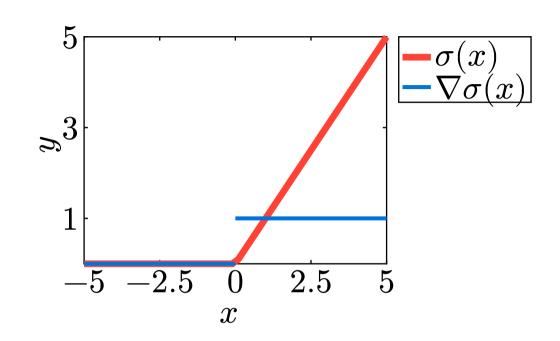
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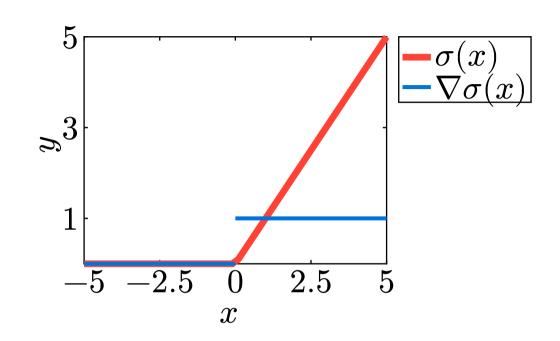


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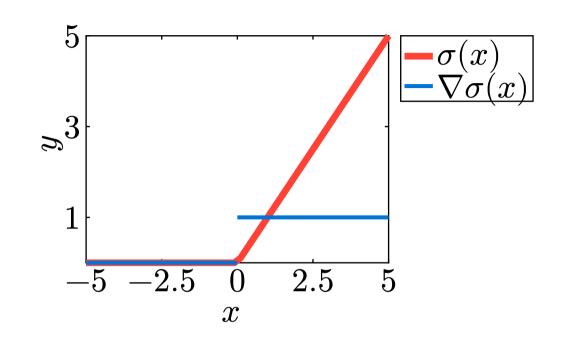
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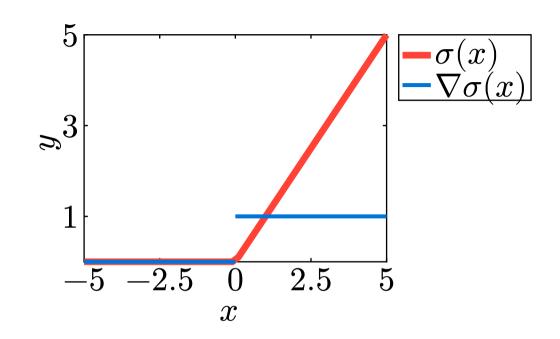
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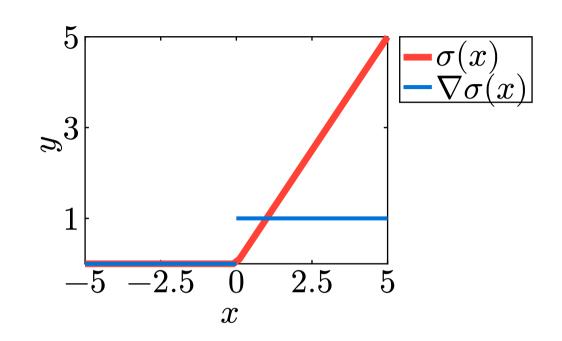
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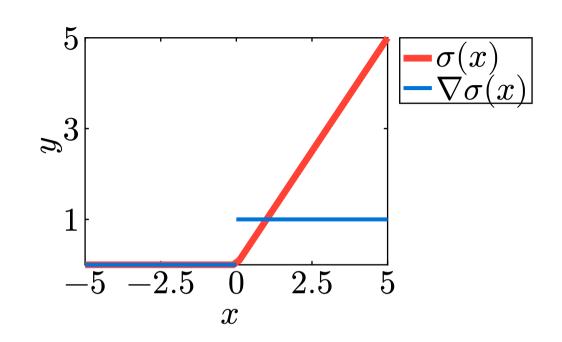
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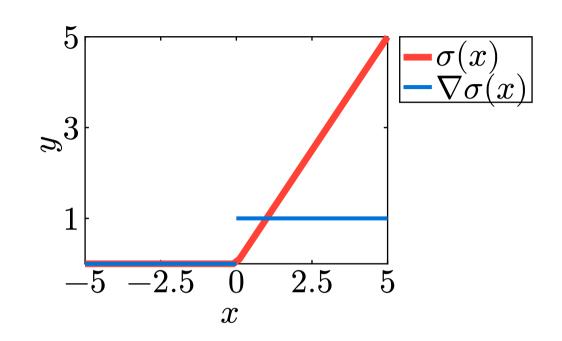
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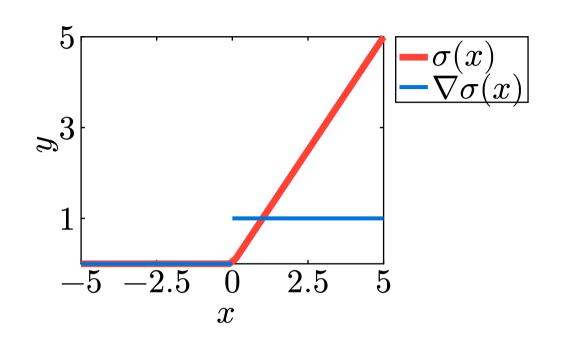
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These neurons cannot recover, they are dead neurons

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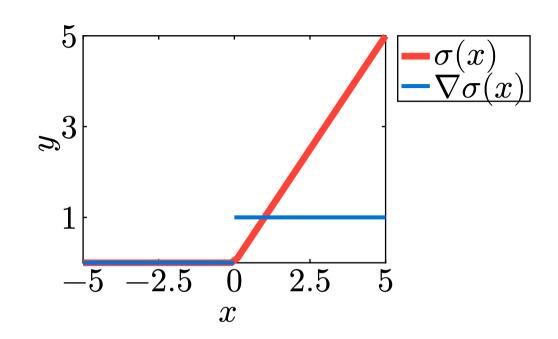
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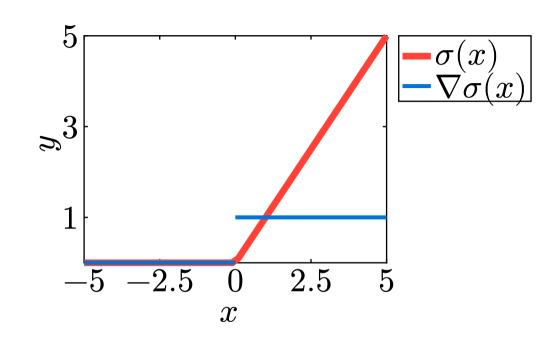


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Training for longer results in more dead neurons

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Dead neurons hurt your network!

To fix dying neurons, use leaky ReLU

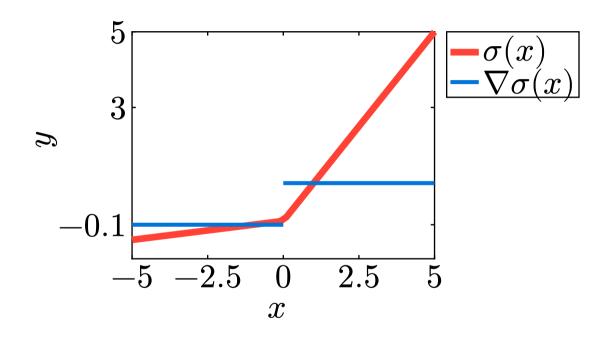
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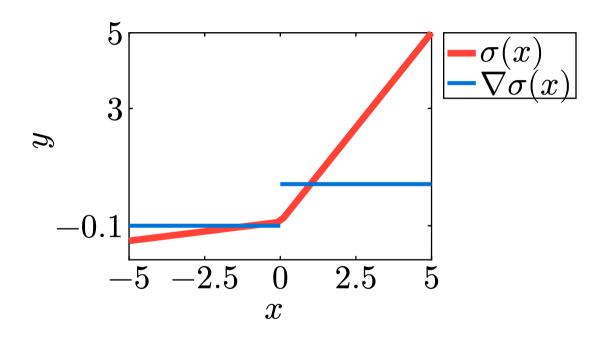
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Small negative slope allows dead neurons to recover

There are other activation functions that are better than leaky ReLU

• Mish

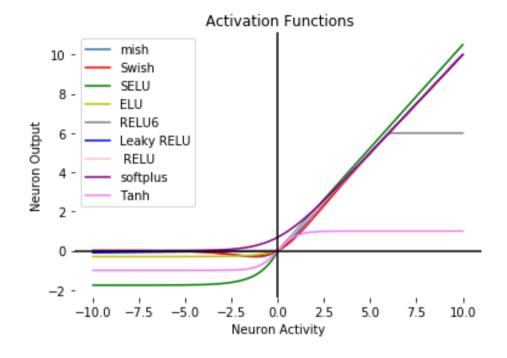
- Mish
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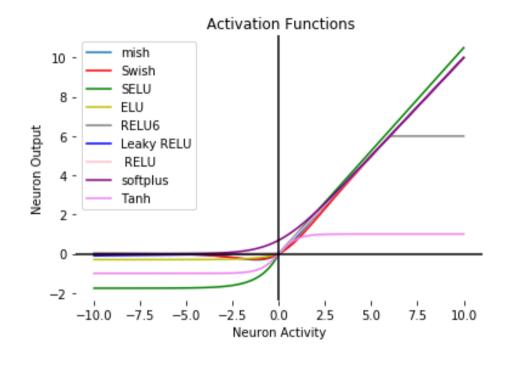
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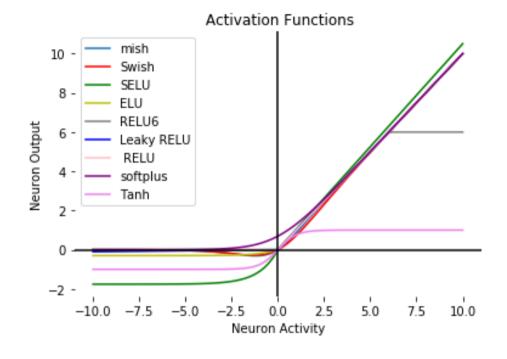
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They are all very similar



There are other activation functions that are better than leaky ReLU

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They are all very similar

I usually use leaky ReLU because it works well enough

https://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.html#non-linear-activations-weighted-sum-nonlinearity

https://jax.readthedocs.io/en/latest/jax.nn.html#activation-functions

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- 3. Optimization is hard
- 4. Deeper neural networks
- 5. Activation functions
- 6. Parameter initialization
- 7. Stochastic gradient descent
- 8. Modern optimization
- 9. Coding

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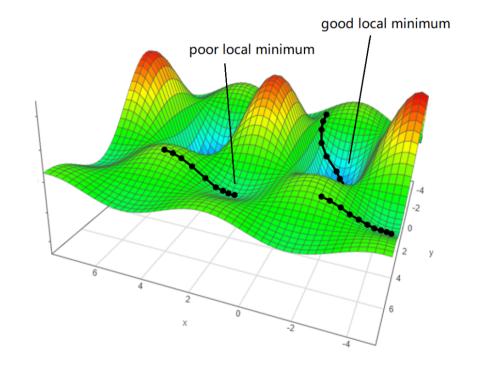
Recall the gradient descent algorithm

```
1:function Gradient Descent(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha)
```

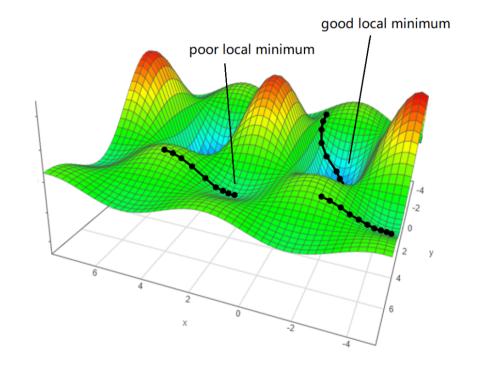
- 3:  $\theta \leftarrow \mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- 4: **for**  $i \in 1...t$  **do**
- 5: Compute the gradient of the loss
- 6:  $\boldsymbol{J} \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$
- 7: b Update the parameters using the negative gradient
- 8:  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} \alpha \boldsymbol{J}$
- 9: return  $\theta$

Initial  $\theta$  is starting position for gradient descent

Initial  $\theta$  is starting position for gradient descent



Initial  $\theta$  is starting position for gradient descent



Pick  $\theta$  that results in good local minima

Start simple, initialize all parameters to 0

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = egin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ draversized & \ddots & draversized \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ draversized & \ddots & draversized \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

Start simple, initialize all parameters to 0

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = egin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ draingle & \ddots & draingle \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 \\ draingle & \ddots & draingle \\ 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

**Question:** Any issues?

Start simple, initialize all parameters to 0

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**Question:** Any issues?

**Answer:** The gradient will always be zero

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1} f = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{\intercal} \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{\intercal} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}})) \ \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{\intercal} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \ \overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

Start simple, initialize all parameters to 0

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$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1} f = \sigma(\mathbf{0}^{\top} \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{\top} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}})) \ \sigma(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{\top} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}}) \ \overline{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$

Ok, so initialize heta=1

Ok, so initialize  $\theta = 1$ 

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ draingle & \ddots & draingle \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ draingle & \ddots & draingle \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

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**Question:** Any issues?

Ok, so initialize  $\theta=1$ 

$$oldsymbol{ heta} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ drain & \ddots & drain \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ drain & \ddots & drain \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

**Question:** Any issues?

All neurons in a layer will have the same gradient, and so they will always be the same (useless)

$$z_i = \sigma\!\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_x} \theta_j \cdot \overline{x}_j\right) = \sigma\!\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_x} \overline{x}_j\right)$$

 $\theta$  must be randomly initialized for neurons

$$m{ heta} = egin{bmatrix} -0.5 & \dots & 2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0.1 & \dots & 0.6 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 1.3 & \dots & 1.2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -0.8 & \dots & -1.1 \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

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But what scale? If  $\theta \ll 0$  the gradients will vanish to zero, if  $\theta \gg 0$  the gradients explode to infinity

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Almost everyone initializes following a single paper from 2010:

- Glorot, Xavier, and Yoshua Bengio. "Understanding the difficulty of training deep feedforward neural networks."
- Maybe there are better options?

Here is the magic equation, given the input and output size of the layer is  $d_h$ 

$$oldsymbol{ heta} \sim \mathcal{U}\left[-rac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{2d_h}}, rac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{2d_h}}
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ight]$$

If you have different input or output sizes, such as  $d_x, d_y$ , then the equation is

$$m{ heta} \sim \mathcal{U} \left[ -rac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{d_x + d_y}}, rac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{d_x + d_y}} 
ight]$$

These equations are designed for ReLU and similar activation functions

These equations are designed for ReLU and similar activation functions

They prevent vanishing or exploding gradients

Usually torch and jax/equinox will automatically use this initialization when you create nn.Linear

```
layer = nn.Linear(d_x, d_h) # Uses Glorot init
```

You can find many initialization functions at https://pytorch.org/docs/stable/nn.init.html

For JAX it is https://jax.readthedocs.io/en/latest/jax.nn.initializers.html

```
import torch
d h = 10
# Manually
theta = torch.zeros((d h + 1, d h))
torch.nn.init.xavier uniform_(theta)
theta = torch.nn.Parameter(theta)
# Using nn.Linear
layer = torch.nn.Linear(d h, d h)
# USe .data, to bypass autograd security
torch.nn.init.xavier uniform (layer.weight.data)
torch.nn.init.xavier uniform (layer.bias.data)
```

```
import jax
d_h = 10

init = jax.nn.initializers.glorot_uniform()
theta = init(jax.random.key(0), (d_h + 1, d_h))
```

```
import jax, equinox
d h = 10
layer = equinox.nn.Linear(d h, d h, key=jax.random.key(0))
# Create new bias and weight
new weight = init(jax.random.key(1), (d h, d h))
new bias = init(jax.random.key(2), (d h,))
# Use a lambda function to save space
# tree at creates a new layer with the new weight
layer = equinox.tree at(lambda l: l.weight, layer,
new weight)
layer = equinox.tree at(lambda l: l.bias, layer, new weight)
```

Remember, in equinox and torch, nn.Linear will already be initialized correctly!

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```
1:function Gradient Descent(X, Y, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha)
           > Randomly initialize parameters
2:
3:
           \theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()
           for i \in 1...t do
4:
5:
                   > Compute the gradient of the loss
                   J \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})
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           return \theta
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Gradient descent computes  $\nabla \mathcal{L}$  over all X

This works for our small datasets, where n=1000

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**Question:** How many GB are the LLM datasets?

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**Answer:** About 774,000 GB according to *Datasets for Large Language* 

Models: A Comprehensive Survey

This works for our small datasets, where n = 1000

**Question:** How many GB are the LLM datasets?

**Answer:** About 774,000 GB according to *Datasets for Large Language Models: A Comprehensive Survey* 

This is just the dataset size, the gradient is orders of magnitude larger

$$abla_{m{ heta}} \mathcal{L}ig(m{x}_{[i]},m{y}_{[i]},m{ heta}ig) = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & ... & rac{\partial f_\ell}{\partial x_1} \ dots & \ddots & dots \ rac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & ... & rac{\partial f_\ell}{\partial x_1} \end{bmatrix}_{[i]}$$

Question: We do not have enough memory to compute the gradient

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We approximate the gradient using a subset of the data

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We approximate the gradient using a subset of the data

First, we sample random datapoint indices

$$i,j,k,\ldots \sim \mathcal{U}[1,n]$$

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$$i, j, k, \dots \sim \mathcal{U}[1, n]$$

Then construct a **batch** of training data

$$egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{x}_{[i]} \ oldsymbol{x}_{[k]} \ oldsymbol{x}_{[k]} \ dots \ \ dots \ dots \ dots \ \ dots \ dots \ dots \ dots \ \ dots \ dots \ \ dots \ \ dots \ \ dots \$$

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$$i, j, k, \dots \sim \mathcal{U}[1, n]$$

Then construct a **batch** of training data

$$egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{x}_{[i]} \ oldsymbol{x}_{[j]} \ oldsymbol{x}_{[k]} \ \vdots \end{bmatrix}; \quad egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{y}_{[i]} \ oldsymbol{y}_{[k]} \ oldsymbol{z}_{[k]} \ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

We call this **stochastic gradient descent** 

```
1:function Stochastic Gradient Descent(X, Y, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha)
               \theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()
               for i \in 1...t do
3:
                            X, Y \leftarrow \text{Shuffle}(X), \text{Shuffle}(Y)
4:
                            for j \in 0...\frac{n}{R} - 1 do
5:
                                        oldsymbol{X}_{i} \leftarrow egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{x}_{[jB]} & oldsymbol{x}_{[jB+1]} & ... & oldsymbol{x}_{[(j+1)B]} \end{bmatrix}
6:
                                        oldsymbol{Y}_{j} \leftarrow egin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{y}_{[jB]} & oldsymbol{y}_{[jB+1]} & \cdots & oldsymbol{y}_{[(j+1)B]} \end{bmatrix}
7:
                                        oldsymbol{J} \leftarrow 
abla_{oldsymbol{	heta}} \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{X}_i, oldsymbol{Y}_i, oldsymbol{	heta})
8:
                                        \theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha J
9:
                return \theta
10:
```

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) is useful for saving memory

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But it can also improve performance

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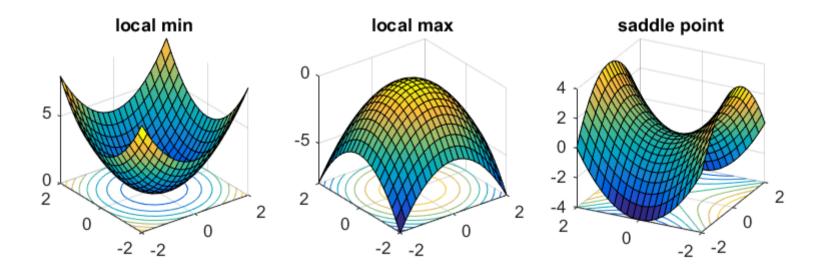
Since the "dataset" changes every update, so does the loss manifold

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) is useful for saving memory

But it can also improve performance

Since the "dataset" changes every update, so does the loss manifold

This makes it less likely we get stuck in bad optima



There is torch.utils.data.DataLoader to help

```
There is torch.utils.data.DataLoader to help
import torch
dataloader = torch.utils.data.DataLoader(
    training data,
    batch size=32, # How many datapoints to sample
    shuffle=True, # Randomly shuffle each epoch
for epoch in number of epochs:
    for batch in dataloader:
        X j, Y j = batch
        loss = L(X j, Y j, theta)
```

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Many researchers work on improving gradient descent to converge more quickly, while also preventing premature convergence

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It is hard to teach adaptive optimization through math

Gradient descent is a powerful tool, but it has issues

- 1. It can be slow to converge
- 2. It can get stuck in poor local optima

Many researchers work on improving gradient descent to converge more quickly, while also preventing premature convergence

It is hard to teach adaptive optimization through math

So first, I want to show you a video to prepare you

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MD2fYip6QsQ&t=77s

The video simulations provide an intuitive understanding of adaptive optimizers

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The key behind modern optimizers is two concepts:

Momentum

The video simulations provide an intuitive understanding of adaptive optimizers

The key behind modern optimizers is two concepts:

- Momentum
- Adaptive learning rate

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The key behind modern optimizers is two concepts:

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Let us discuss the algorithms more slowly

Review gradient descent again, because we will be making changes to it

Review gradient descent again, because we will be making changes to it

```
1:function Gradient Descent(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha)
```

- 2: > Randomly initialize parameters
- 3:  $\theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()$
- 4: **for**  $i \in 1...t$  **do**
- 5: Compute the gradient of the loss
- 6:  $\boldsymbol{J} \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$
- 7: b Update the parameters using the negative gradient
- 8:  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} \alpha \boldsymbol{J}$
- 9: return  $\theta$

Introduce **momentum** first

#### Introduce **momentum** first

```
1: function Momentum Gradient Descent(X, Y, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha, \beta)
          \theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()
2:
3:
          M \leftarrow 0 # Init momentum
         for i \in 1...t do
4:
                   J \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) # Represents acceleration
5:
                   M \leftarrow \beta \cdot M + (1 - \beta) \cdot J # Momentum and acceleration
6:
                  \theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha M
7:
8:
          return \theta
```

Now adaptive learning rate

### Now adaptive learning rate

```
1: function RMSProp(X, Y, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha, \beta, \varepsilon)
             \theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()
2:
3:
             V \leftarrow 0 # Init variance
           for i \in 1...t do
4:
                       J \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) # Represents acceleration
5:
                       V \leftarrow \beta \cdot V + (1 - \beta) \cdot J \odot J # Magnitude
6:
                       \boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \alpha \boldsymbol{J} \oslash \sqrt[\circ]{\boldsymbol{V} + \varepsilon} # Rescale grad by prev updates
7:
             return \theta
8:
```

Combine momentum and adaptive learning rate to create Adam

### Combine momentum and adaptive learning rate to create Adam

```
1:function Adaptive Moment Estimation(X, Y, \mathcal{L}, t, \alpha, \beta_1, \beta_2, \varepsilon)
          \theta \leftarrow \text{Glorot}()
2:
          M, V \leftarrow 0
3:
          for i \in 1...t do
4:
                   J \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta})
5:
                   M \leftarrow \beta_1 M + (1 - \beta_1) J # Compute momentum
6:
                   V \leftarrow \beta_2 \cdot V + (1 - \beta_2) \cdot J \odot J # Magnitude
7:
                   \theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha M \oslash \sqrt[9]{V + \varepsilon} # Adaptive param update
8:
           return \theta # Note, we use biased M, V for clarity
9:
```

```
import torch
betas = (0.9, 0.999)
net = \dots
theta = net.parameters()
sgd = torch.optim.SGD(theta, lr=alpha)
momentum = torch.optim.SGD(
    theta, lr=alpha, momentum=betas[0])
rmsprop = torch.optim.RMSprop(
    theta, lr=alpha, momentum=betas[1])
adam = torch.optim.Adam(theta, lr=alpha, betas=betas)
sqd.step(), momentum.step(), rmsprop.step(), adam.step()
```

```
import optax
betas = (0.9, 0.999)
theta = ...
sqd = optax.sqd(lr=alpha)
momentum = optax.sgd(lr=alpha, momentum=betas[0])
rmsprop = optax.rmsprop(lr=alpha, decay=betas[1])
adam = optax.adam(lr=alpha, b1=betas[0], b2=betas[1])
v = rmsprop.init(theta)
theta, v = rmsprop.update(J, v, theta)
mv = adam.init(theta) # contains M and V
theta, mv = mv.update(J, mv, theta)
```

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