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Decaying momentum helps neural network training

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Abstract

Momentum is a simple and popular technique in deep learning for gradient-based optimizers. We propose a decaying momentum (DEMON) rule, motivated by decaying the total contribution of a gradient to all future updates. Applying DEMON to Adam leads to significantly improved training, notably competitive to momentum SGD with learning rate decay, even in settings in which adaptive methods are typically non-competitive. Similarly, applying DEMON to momentum SGD rivals momentum SGD with learning rate decay, and in some cases leads to improved performance. DEMON is trivial to implement and incurs limited extra computational overhead, compared to the vanilla counterparts.

1. Introduction

Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have drastically advanced the state-of-the-art performance in many computer science applications, including computer vision [10, 19, 30], natural language processing [1, 6, 24] and speech recognition [31, 33]. Yet, in the face of such significant developments, the age-old stochastic gradient descent (SGD), and the accelerated variant SGD with momentum (SGDM), algorithm remains one of the most, if not the most, popular method for training DNNs [9, 38, 42].

Adaptive methods [5, 11, 17, 23, 46] sought to simplify the training process, while providing similar performance. However, while they are often used by practitioners, there are cases where their use leads to a performance gap [34, 42]. At the same time, much of the state-of-the-art performance on highly contested benchmarks—such as the image classification dataset ImageNet—have been produced with SGDM [10, 13, 14, 19, 30, 43, 45].

Nevertheless, a key factor in any algorithmic success still lies in hyperparameter tuning. For example, in the literature above, they obtain such performance with a well-tuned SGD with momentum and a learning rate decay schedule, or with a proper hyperparameter tuning in adaptive methods. Slight changes in learning rate, learning rate decay, momentum, and weight decay (amongst others) can drastically alter performance. Hyperparameter tuning is arguably one of the most time consuming parts of training DNNs, and researchers often resort to a costly grid search. *Thus, finding new and simple hyper-parameter tuning routines that boost the performance of state of the art algorithms is of ultimate importance and one of the most pressing problems in machine learning.*

The focus of this work is on the momentum parameter and how we can boost the performance of training methods with a simple technique. Momentum helps speed up learning in directions of low curvature, without becoming unstable in directions of high curvature. Minimizing the objective function $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$, the simplest and most common momentum method, SGDM, is given by the following recursion for variable vector $\theta_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \eta v_t, \quad v_t = \beta v_{t-1} - g_t.$$

The coefficient β—traditionally, selected constant in $[0, 1]$—controls how quickly the momentum decays, g_t represents a stochastic gradient, usually $\mathbb{E}[g_t] = \nabla\mathcal{L}(\theta_t)$, and $\eta > 0$ is the step size.

But how do we select β? The most prominent choice among practitioners is $\beta = 0.9$. This is supported by recent works that prescribe it [2, 11, 17, 29], and by the fact that most common softwares, such as PyTorch [28], declare $\beta = 0.9$ as the default value in their optimizer implementations. However, there is no indication that this choice is universally well-behaved.

In this work, we introduce a novel momentum decay rule which significantly surpasses the performance of both Adam and SGDM (as they are used currently), in addition to other state-of-the-art adaptive learning rate and adaptive momentum methods, across a variety of datasets and networks. In particular, our findings can be summarized as follows:

i) We propose a new momentum decay rule, motivated by decaying the total contribution of a gradient to all future updates, with limited overhead and additional computation.

ii) Using the momentum decay rule with Adam, we observe large performance gains—relative to vanilla Adam—where the network continues to learn for far longer after Adam begins to plateau, and suggest that the momentum decay rule should be used as default for this method.

iii) We observe comparative performance for SGDM between momentum decay and learning rate decay; an interesting result given the unparalleled effectiveness of learning rate decay schedule.

Experiments are provided on various datasets, including MNIST, CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100, STL-10, Penn Treebank (PTB), and networks, including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) with Residual architecture (ResNet) [10], Wide Residual architecture (Wide ResNet) [45], Non-Residual architecture (VGG-16) [35], Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) with Long Short-Term Memory architecture (LSTM) [12], Variational AutoEncoders (VAE) [18], and the recent Noise Conditional Score Network (NCSN) [36].

2. DEMON: Decaying momentum algorithm

Algorithm 1 DEMON in SGDM

Parameters: # of iterations T, step size η, momentum initial value β_{init}.
$v_t = \theta_t = 0$, otherwise randomly initialized.
for $t = 0, \dots, T$ **do**
  $\beta_t = \beta_{\text{init}} \cdot \frac{\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}{(1-\beta_{\text{init}})+\beta_{\text{init}}\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}$
  $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta g_t + \beta_t v_t$
  $v_{t+1} = \beta_t v_t - \eta g_t$
end for

Algorithm 2 DEMON in Adam

Parameters: # of iterations T, step size η, momentum initial value β_{init}, β_2, $\varepsilon = 10^{-8}$.
$v_t = \theta_t = \mathcal{E}_0^{g\circ g} = 0$, otherwise randomly initialized.
for $t = 0, \dots, T$ **do**
  $\beta_t = \beta_{\text{init}} \cdot \frac{\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}{(1-\beta_{\text{init}})+\beta_{\text{init}}\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}$
  $\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{g\circ g} = \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}_t^{g\circ g} + (1-\beta_2)\cdot(g_t \circ g_t)$
  $m_{t,i} = g_{t,1} + \beta_t m_{t-1,i}$
  $\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathcal{E}_{t+1,i}^{g\circ g}+\varepsilon}} \cdot m_{t,i}$
end for

Motivation and interpretation. DEMON is motivated by learning rate rules: by decaying the momentum parameter, we decay the total contribution of a gradient to all future updates. Similar reasoning applies for learning rate decay routines: however, *our goal here is to present a concrete and easy-to-use momentum decay procedure, which can be used with or without learning rate routines, as we show in the experimental section.* The key component is the momentum decay schedule:

$$\beta_t = \beta_{\text{init}} \cdot \frac{\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}{(1-\beta_{\text{init}})+\beta_{\text{init}}\left(1-\frac{t}{T}\right)}\,. \tag{1}$$

The interpretation of this rule comes from the following argument: Assume fixed momentum parameter $\beta_t \equiv \beta$; e.g., $\beta = 0.9$, as literature dictates. For our discussion, we will use the accelerated SGD recursion. We know that $v_0 = 0$, and $v_t = \beta v_{t-1} - \eta g_{t-1}$. Then, the main recursion can be unrolled into:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta g_t - \eta\beta g_{t-1} - \eta\beta^2 g_{t-2} + \eta\beta^3 v_{t-2} = \cdots = \theta_t - \eta g_t - \eta \cdot \sum_{i=1} \beta^i \cdot g_{t-i}$$

Interpreting the above recursion, *a particular gradient term g_t contributes a total of $\eta \sum_i \beta^i$ of its "energy" to all future gradient updates.* Moreover, for an asymptotically large number of iterations, we know that β contributes on up to $t-1$ terms. Then, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \beta^i = \beta \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i = \beta/(1-\beta)$. Thus, in our quest for a decaying schedule and for a simple linear momentum decay, it is natural to consider a scheme where the cumulative momentum is decayed to 0. Let β_{init} be the initial β; then at current step t with total T steps, we design the decay routine such that: $\beta/(1-\beta) = (1-t/T)\beta_{\text{init}}/(1-\beta_{\text{init}})$. This leads to equation 1.

Connection to other algorithms. DEMON introduces an implicit discount factor. The main recursions of the algorithm are the same with standard algorithms in machine learning. E.g., for $\beta_t = \beta = 0.9$ we obtain SGD with momentum, and for $\beta = 0$ we obtain plain SGD in Algorithm 2; in Algorithm 2, for $\beta_1 = 0.9$ with a slightly adjustment of learning rate we obtain Adam, while for $\beta_1 = 0$ we obtain a non-accumulative AdaGrad algorithm. We choose to apply DEMON to a slightly adjusted Adam—instead of vanilla Adam—to isolate the effect of the momentum parameter, since the momentum parameter adjusts the magnitude of the current gradient as well in vanilla Adam.

Efficiency. DEMON requires only limited extra overhead and computation in comparison to the vanilla counterparts, for the computation of β_t.

Practical suggestions. For settings in which β_{init} is typically large, such as image classification, we advocate for decaying momentum from β_{init} at $t = 0$, to 0 at $t = T$ as a general rule. We also observe and report improved performance by delaying momentum decay till later epochs. In many cases, performance can be further improved by decaying to a small negative value, such as 0.3.

3. Related work

There are numerous techniques for automatic hyperparameter tuning. The most widely used are learning rate adaptive methods, starting with AdaGrad [5], AdaDelta [46], RMSprop [11], and Adam [17]. Adam [17], the most popular, introduced a momentum term, which is combined with the current gradient before multiplying with an adaptive learning rate. Interest in closing the generalization difference between adaptive methods and SGDM led to AdamW [21], by fixing the weight decay of Adam, and Padam [3], by lowering the exponent of the second moment.

Asynchronous methods are commonly used in deep learning, and [25] show that running SGD asynchronously is similar to adding a momentum-like term to SGD without assumptions of convexity of the objective function. YellowFin [47] is a learning rate and momentum adaptive method for both the synchronous and asynchronous setting motivated by a quadratic model analysis and robustness insights.

There is substantial research, both empirical and theoretical, into the convergence of momentum methods [16, 39–41]. In addition, [38] explored momentum schedules, with even increasing momentum schedules during training, inspired by Nesterov's routines for convex optimization. There is some work into reducing oscillations during training, by adapting the momentum [27]. There is

also work into adapting momentum in well-conditioned convex problems as opposed to setting to zero [37]. Another approach in this area is to keep several momentum vectors according to different and combining them [22]. We are aware of the theoretical work of [44] which prove under certain conditions that momentum SGD is equivalent to SGD with a rescaled learning rate, however our experiments in the deep learning setting show slightly different behavior and understanding why is an exciting direction of research.

Smaller values of have gradually been employed for Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN), and recent developments in game dynamics [8] show a negative momentum is helpful for GANs.

4. Experiments

We separate experiments into those with adaptive learning rate and those with adaptive momentum. We report improved performance by delaying the application of DEMON where applicable, and report performance across different number of total epochs to demonstrate effectiveness regardless of the training budget. Note that the prede ned number of epochs run affects the proposed decaying momentum routine, by de nition of $_t$. We run 5 seeds.

4.1. Adaptive methods

At rst, we apply DEMON Adam (Algorithm 2) to a variety of models and tasks. We select vanilla Adam as the baseline algorithm and include more recent state-of-the-art adaptive learning rate methods Quasi-Hyperbolic Adam (QHAdam) [23] and AMSGrad [29] in our comparison. See Appendix B.2.1 for details. We tune all learning rates in roughly multiples of 3 and try to keep all other parameters close to those recommended in the original literature. For DEMON Adam, we leave $_{init} = 0:9$; $_2 = 0:999$ and decay from $_{init}$ to 0 in all experiments.

We report results in tabulated form in Tables 1, 2 and Figure 1, with images produced by generative networks in the Appendix B.3. DEMON Adam appears to continue to learn after other methods have plateaued, leading to signi cantly better performance. With DEMON Adam applied to a ResNet18 network on CIFAR10, we achieve the generalization error reported in the literature [10] for this model, attained using SGDM and a curated learning rate decay schedule. With DEMON Adam applied to a VGG16 network on CIFAR100, we observe a 1-3% decrease in generalization error than typically reported results with the same model and task [32], which are attained using SGDM and a curated learning rate decay schedule.

Figure 1: Two left-most plots: RN18-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam for 300 epochs. Right-most plot: VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONAdam for 300 epochs. Dotted and solid lines represent training and generalization metrics respectively. Shaded bands represent one standard deviation.

4.2. Adaptive momentum methods

We apply DEMON SGDM (Algorithm 2) to a variety of models and tasks. Since SGDM with learning rate decay is most often used to achieve the state-of-the-art results with the architectures and tasks in question, we include SGDM with learning rate decay as the target to beat. SGDM with

	ResNet18						LSTM				VAE			
	75 epochs		150 epochs		300 epochs		25 epochs		39 epochs		50 epochs		100 epochs	
Adam	13.63	.22	11.90	.06	11.94	.06	115.54	.64	115.02	.52	136.28	.18	134.64	.14
AMSGrad	13.43	.14	11.83	.12	10.48	.12	108.07	.19	107.87	.25	137.89	.12	135.69	.03
QHAdam	15.55	.25	13.78	.08	13.36	.11	112.52	.23	112.45	.39	136.69	.17	134.84	.08
DEMON Adam	9.69	.10	8.83	.08	8.44	.05	101.57	.32	101.44	.47	134.46	.17	134.12	.08

Table 1: ResNet18-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam generalization error, PTB-LSTM-DEMONAdam generalization perplexity, VAE-MNIST-DEMONAdam generalization loss. The number of epochs was predetermined before the execution of the algorithms.

	VGG-16						Wide Residual 16-8						NCSN	
	75 epochs		150 epochs		300 epochs		50 epochs		100 epochs		200 epochs		512 epochs	
Adam	37.98	.20	33.62	.11	31.09	.09	23.35	.20	19.63	.26	18.65	.07	8.15	.20
AMSGrad	40.67	.65	34.46	.21	31.62	.12	21.73	.25	19.35	.20	18.21	.18	-	
QHAdam	36.53	.20	32.96	.11	30.97	.10	21.25	.22	19.81	.18	18.52	.25	-	
DEMON Adam	32.40	.19	28.84	.18	27.11	.19	19.42	.10	18.36	.11	17.62	.12	8.07	.08

Table 2: VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONAdam generalization error, WideResNet-STL10-DEMONAdam generalization error, and NCSN-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam inception score.

learning rate decay is implemented with a decay on validation error plateau, where we hand-tune the number of epochs to define plateau. Recent adaptive momentum methods included in this section are Aggregated Momentum (AggMo) [22], and Quasi-Hyperbolic Momentum (QHM) [23]. We exclude accelerated SGD [15] due to difficulties in tuning. See Appendix B.2.2 for details. Similar to the last section, we tune all learning rates in roughly multiples of 3 and try to keep all other parameters close to those recommended in the original literature. For DEMON SGDM, we leave $\beta_{\text{init}} = 0.9$ for most experiments and generally decay from β_{init} to 0.

	ResNet18				LSTM				VAE			
	75 epochs		300 epochs		25 epochs		39 epochs		50 epochs		100 epochs	
SGDM learning rate decay	9.05	.07	7.97	.14	89.59	.07	87.57	.11	140.51	.73	139.54	.34
AggMo	13.02	.23	10.94	.12	89.09	.16	89.07	.15	139.69	.17	139.07	.26
QHM	12.66	.19	10.42	.05	94.47	.19	94.44	.13	145.84	.39	140.92	.19
DEMON SGDM	8.97	.16	7.58	.04	88.33	.16	88.32	.12	139.32	.23	137.51	.29

Table 3: ResNet18-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM generalization error, PTB-LSTM-DEMONSGDM generalization perplexity, VAE-MNIST-DEMONSGDM generalization loss.

	VGG-16						Wide Residual 16-8					
	75 epochs		150 epochs		300 epochs		75 epochs		150 epochs		300 epochs	
SGDM learning rate decay	35.29	.59	30.65	.31	29.74	.43	21.05	.27	17.83	0.39	15.16	.36
AggMo	42.85	.89	34.25	.24	32.32	.18	22.70	.11	20.06	.31	17.90	.13
QHM	42.14	.79	33.87	.26	32.45	.13	22.86	.15	19.40	.23	17.79	.08
DEMON SGDM	34.35	.44	30.59	.26	28.99	.16	19.45	.20	15.98	.40	13.67	.13

Table 4: VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM, WideResNet-STL10-DEMONSGDM generalization error.

We report results in tabulated form in Tables 3 and 4. With DEMON SGDM, we often achieve better generalization error than SGDM with learning rate decay, a surprising finding given the frequency with which SGDM with learning rate decay achieves state-of-the-art results. Similarly to DEMON Adam, DEMON SGDM often continues to learn after other methods have plateaued.

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Appendix A. Proof of convergence

We analyze the global convergence of DEMON CM in the convex setting, following [7]. For an objective function f which is convex, continuously differentiable, its gradient $\nabla f(\cdot)$ is Lipschitz continuous with constant L, our goal is to show that $f(\bar{\theta}_T)$ converges to the optimum f^* with decreasing momentum, where $\bar{\theta}_T$ is the average of θ_t for $t = 1, ..., T$. Our following theorem holds for a constant learning rate and β_t decaying with t.

Theorem 1 *Assume that f is convex, continuously differentiable, its gradient $\nabla f(\cdot)$ is Lipschitz continuous with constant L, with a decreasing momentum, but constant step size, as in:*

$$\beta_t = \tfrac{1}{t} \cdot \tfrac{t+1}{t+2}, \quad \alpha \in \left[0, \tfrac{2}{3L}\right] .$$

We consider the CM iteration in non-stochastic settings, where:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha \nabla f(\theta_t) + \beta_t \left(\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}\right).$$

Then, the sequence $\{\theta_t\}_{t=1}^T$ generated by the CM iteration, with decreasing momentum, satisfies:

$$f(\bar{\theta}_T) - f^* \leq \tfrac{\|\theta_1 - \theta^?\|^2}{T} \left[\tfrac{3}{4}L + \tfrac{1}{2\alpha}\right] ,$$

where $\bar{\theta}_T$ is the Cesaro average of the iterates: $\bar{\theta}_T = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \theta_t$.

Proof. Let $\beta_t = \frac{1}{t} \cdot \frac{t+1}{t+2}$ and

$$p_t = \tfrac{1}{t}(\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}).$$

We consider the CM iteration in non-stochastic settings, where:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha \nabla f(\theta_t) + \beta_t \left(\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}\right).$$

Using the definition of p_t above, one can easily prove that:

$$\theta_{t+1} + p_{t+1} = (1 + \frac{1}{t+1})\theta_{t+1} - \frac{1}{t+1}\theta_t = \theta_t + p_t - \tfrac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1}\nabla f(\theta_t).$$

Using this expression, we will analyze the term $\|\theta_{t+1} + p_{t+1} - \theta^\star\|_2$:

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\theta_{t+1} + p_{t+1} - \theta^\star\|^2 &= \|\theta_t + p_t - \theta^\star\|^2 - \tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t+1} \langle \theta_t + p_t - \theta^\star, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle + \left[\tfrac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1}\right]^2 \cdot \|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2 \\
&= \|\theta_t + p_t - \theta^\star\|^2 - \tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)} \langle \theta_t - \theta_{t-1}, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle \\
&\quad - \tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t+1} \langle \theta_t - \theta^\star, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle + \left[\tfrac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1}\right]^2 \cdot \|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

Since f is convex, continuously differentiable, its gradient is Lipschitz continuous with constant L, then

$$\tfrac{1}{L}\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2 \leq \langle \theta_t - \theta^\star, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle, \tag{2}$$

$$f(\theta_t) - f^* + \tfrac{1}{2L}\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2 \leq \langle \theta_t - \theta^\star, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle, \tag{3}$$

$$f(\theta_t) - f(\theta_{t-1}) \leq \langle \theta_t - \theta_{t-1}, \nabla f(\theta_t)\rangle. \tag{4}$$

Substituting the above inequalities leads to

$$\begin{aligned}\|\theta_{t+1}+p_{t+1}-\theta^\star\|^2 \le \|\theta_t+p_t-\theta^\star\|^2 &- \tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)}(f(\theta_t)-f(\theta_{t-1})) \\ &- 2\alpha\tfrac{(1-\lambda)(t+2)}{L(t+1)}\cdot\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2 - 2\alpha\lambda\tfrac{t+2}{t+1}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \\ &- \alpha\tfrac{\lambda(t+2)}{L(t+1)}\cdot\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2 + \left(\frac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1}\right)^2\cdot\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2\end{aligned}$$

where $\lambda \in (0,1]$ is a parameter weighting (2) and (3). Grouping together terms yields

$$\begin{aligned}\tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)} + \tfrac{2\alpha\lambda(t+2)}{t+1} &\left(f(\theta_t)-f^*\right) + \|\theta_{t+1}+p_{t+1}-\theta^\star\|^2 \\ &\le \tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)}(f(\theta_{t-1})-f^*) + \|\theta_t+p_t-\theta^\star\|^2 \\ &\quad + \tfrac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1}\left(\tfrac{\alpha(t+2)}{t+1} - \tfrac{2(1-\lambda)}{L} - \tfrac{\lambda}{L}\right)\|\nabla f(\theta_t)\|^2.\end{aligned}$$

The last term is non-positive when $\alpha \in [0, \frac{t+1}{t+2}(\frac{2-\lambda}{L})]$ so it can be dropped. Summing over $t = 1, ..., T$ yields

$$\begin{aligned}2\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}\tfrac{t+2}{t+1}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) + \sum_{t=1}^{T}\tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) + \|\theta_{t+1}+p_{t+1}-\theta^\star\|^2 \\ \le \sum_{t=1}^{T}\tfrac{2\alpha(t+2)}{t(t+1)}(f(\theta_{t-1})-f^*) + \|\theta_t+p_t-\theta^\star\|^2\ ,\end{aligned}$$

implying that:

$$2\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}\tfrac{t+2}{t+1}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \le 3\alpha(f(\theta_1)-f^*) + \|\theta_1-\theta^\star\|^2.$$

Since:

$$2\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \le 2\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}\tfrac{t+2}{t+1}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \le 3\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}(f(\theta_t)-f^*),$$

we further have:

$$3\alpha\lambda\sum_{t=1}^{T}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \le \tfrac{3}{2}\left[3\alpha(f(\theta_1)-f^*) + \|\theta_1-\theta^\star\|^2\right].$$

Due to the convexity of f,

$$f(\bar{\theta}_t) \le \tfrac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} f(\theta_t),$$

observe that

$$f(\bar{\theta}_T) - f^* \le \tfrac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}(f(\theta_t)-f^*) \le \tfrac{1}{3\alpha\lambda T}\left[\tfrac{9}{2}\alpha(f(\theta_1)-f^*) + \tfrac{3}{2}\|\theta_1-\theta^\star\|^2\right].$$

Since $f(\theta_1) - f^* \le \frac{L}{2}\|\theta_1-\theta^\star\|^2$ by Lipschitz continuous gradients, setting $\lambda = 1$ and observing $(t+1)/(t+2) \ge 2/3$ gives the result.

Experiment short name	Model	Dataset	Optimizer
RN18-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM	ResNet18	CIFAR10	DEMON SGDM
RN18-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam	ResNet18	CIFAR10	DEMON Adam
VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM	VGG-16	CIFAR100	DEMON SGDM
VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONAdam	VGG-16	CIFAR100	DEMON Adam
WRN-STL10-DEMONSGDM	Wide ResNet 16-8	STL10	DEMON SGDM
WRN-STL10-DEMONAdam	Wide ResNet 16-8	STL10	DEMON Adam
LSTM-PTB-DEMONSGDM	LSTM RNN	Penn TreeBank	DEMON SGDM
LSTM-PTB-DEMONAdam	LSTM RNN	Penn TreeBank	DEMON Adam
VAE-MNIST-DEMONSGDM	VAE	MNIST	DEMON SGDM
VAE-MNIST-DEMONAdam	VAE	MNIST	DEMON Adam
NCSN-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam	NCSN	CIFAR10	DEMON Adam

Table 5: Summary of experimental settings.

Appendix B. Experiments

We evaluated the momentum decay rule with Adam and SGDM on Residual CNNs, Non Residual CNNS, RNNs and generative models. For CNNs, we used the image classification datasets CIFAR10, CIFAR100 and STL10 datasets. For RNNs, we used the language modeling dataset PTB. For generative modeling, we used the MNIST and CIFAR10 datasets. For each network dataset pair other than NSCN, we evaluated Adam, QHAdam, AMSGrad, DEMON Adam, AggMo, QHM, DEMON SGDM, and SGDM with learning rate decay. For adaptive learning rate methods and adaptive momentum methods, we generally perform a grid search over the learning rate. For SGDM, we generally perform a grid search over learning rate and initial momentum. For SGDM learning rate decay, the learning rate is decayed by a factor of 0.1 after there is no improvement in validation loss for the best of $\{1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40\}$ epochs.

B.1. Setup

We describe the six test problems in this paper.

- **CIFAR10 - ResNet18** CIFAR10 contains 60,000 32x32x3 images with a 50,000 training set, 10,000 test set split. There are 10 classes. ResNet18 [10] is an 18 layers deep CNN with skip connections for image classification. Trained with a batch size of 128.
- **CIFAR100 - VGG16** CIFAR100 is a fine-grained version of CIFAR-10 and contains 60,000 32x32x3 images with a 50,000 training set, 10,000 test set split. There are 100 classes. VGG16 [35] is a 16 layers deep CNN with extensive use of 3x3 convolutional filters. Trained with a batch size of 128
- **STL10 - Wide ResNet 16-8** STL10 contains 1300 96x96x3 images with a 500 training set, 800 test set split. There are 10 classes. Wide ResNet 16-8 [45] is a 16 layers deep ResNet which is 8 times wider. Trained with a batch size of 64.
- **PTB - LSTM** PTB is an English text corpus containing 929,000 training words, 73,000 validation words, and 82,000 test words. There are 10,000 words in the vocabulary. The model is stacked

LSTMs [12] with 2 layers, 650 units per layer, and dropout of 0.5. Trained with a batch size of 20.

- **MNIST - VAE** MNIST contains 60,000 32x32x1 grayscale images with a 50,000 training set, 10,000 test set split. There are 10 classes of 10 digits. VAE [18] with three dense encoding layers and three dense decoding layers with a latent space of size 2. Trained with a batch size of 100.
- **CIFAR10 - NCSN** CIFAR10 contains 60,000 32x32x3 images with a 50,000 training set, 10,000 test set split. There are 10 classes. NCSN [36] is a recent state-of-the-art generative model which achieves the best reported inception score. We compute inception scores based on a total of 50000 samples. We follow the exact implementation in and defer details to the original paper.

B.2. Methods

B.2.1. ADAPTIVE LEARNING RATE

Adam [17], as previously introduced in section **??**, keeps an exponentially decaying average of squares of past gradients to adapt the learning rate. It also introduces an exponentially decaying average of gradients.

The Adam algorithm is parameterized by learning rate $\eta > 0$, discount factors $\beta_1 < 1$ and $\beta_2 < 1$, a small constant ϵ, and uses the update rule:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1} &= \beta_1 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t} + (1-\beta_1)\cdot g_t, \\
\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1} &= \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t} + (1-\beta_2)\cdot (g_t \circ g_t), \\
\theta_{t+1,i} &= \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1;i}+\varepsilon}} \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1,i}, \quad \forall t.
\end{aligned}$$

AMSGrad [29] resolves an issue in the proof of Adam related to the exponential moving average $\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_t$, where Adam does not converge for a simple optimization problem. Instead of an exponential moving average, AMSGrad keeps a running maximum of $\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}$.

The AMSGrad algorithm is parameterized by learning rate $\eta > 0$, discount factors $\beta_1 < 1$ and $\beta_2 < 1$, a small constant ϵ, and uses the update rule:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1} &= \beta_1 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t} + (1-\beta_1)\cdot g_t, \\
\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1} &= \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t} + (1-\beta_2)\cdot (g_t \circ g_t), \\
\hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g\circ g}_{t+1,i} &= max(\hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g\circ g}_{t,i}, \mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t,i}), \\
\theta_{t+1,i} &= \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g\circ g}_{t+1;i}+\varepsilon}} \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1,i}, \quad \forall t,
\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1}$ and $\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1}$ are defined identically to Adam.

QHAdam (Quasi-Hyperbolic Adam) [23] extends QHM (Quasi-Hyperbolic Momentum), introduced further below, to replace both momentum estimators in Adam with quasi-hyperbolic terms. This quasi-hyperbolic formulation is capable of recovering Adam and NAdam [4], amongst others.

The QHAdam algorithm is parameterized by learning rate $\eta > 0$, discount factors $\beta_1 < 1$ and $\beta_2 < 1$, $\nu_1, \nu_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, a small constant ϵ, and uses the update rule:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1} &= \beta_1 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t} + (1-\beta_1)\cdot g_t, \\
\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1} &= \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t} + (1-\beta_2)\cdot (g_t \circ g_t), \\
\hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g}_{t+1} &= (1+\beta_1^{t+1})^{-1}\cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1}, \\
\hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g\circ g}_{t+1} &= (1+\beta_2^{t+1})^{-1}\cdot \mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1}, \\
\theta_{t+1,i} &= \theta_{t,i} - \eta \left[\frac{(1-\nu_1)\cdot g_t + \nu_1 \cdot \hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g}_{t+1}}{\sqrt{(1-\nu_2) g_t^2 + \nu_2 \cdot \hat{\mathcal{E}}^{g\circ g}_{t+1}} + \epsilon} \right], \quad \forall t,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1}$ and $\mathcal{E}^{g\circ g}_{t+1}$ are defined identically to Adam.

B.2.2. ADAPTIVE MOMENTUM

AggMo (Aggregated Momentum) [22] takes a linear combination of multiple momentum buffers. It maintains K momentum buffers, each with a different discount factor, and averages them for the update.

The AggMo algorithm is parameterized by learning rate $\eta > 0$, discount factors $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^K$, and uses the update rule:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1})^{(i)} &= \beta^{(i)} \cdot (\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t})^{(i)} + g_t, \quad \forall i \in [1, K], \\
\theta_{t+1,i} &= \theta_{t,i} - \eta \left[\frac{1}{K} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{K} (\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1})^{(i)} \right], \quad \forall t.
\end{aligned}
$$

QHM (Quasi-Hyperbolic Momentum) [23] is a weighted average of the momentum and plain SGD. QHM is capable of recovering Nesterov Momentum [26], Synthesized Nesterov Variants [20], accSGD [15] and others.

The QHM algorithm is parameterized by learning rate $\eta > 0$, discount factor $\beta < 1$, immediate discount factor $\nu \in \mathbb{R}$, and uses the update rule:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1} &= \beta \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t} + (1-\beta)\cdot g_t, \\
\theta_{t+1,i} &= \theta_{t,i} - \eta \left[(1-\nu)\cdot g_t + \nu \cdot \mathcal{E}^{g}_{t+1} \right], \quad \forall t.
\end{aligned}
$$

B.3. Additional results for adaptive learning rate methods

In Figure 2, we display randomly selected images from the CIFAR10 dataset, either real, generated by NCSN trained with Adam, and generated by NCSN trained with DEMON Adam. Images produced by NCSN trained with Adam appear noticeably bright green.

B.4. Additional results for adaptive momentum methods

Learning curves for various datasets are given in Figure 3