DEMON: MOMENTUM DECAY FOR IMPROVED NEURAL NETWORK TRAINING

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ABSTRACT

Momentum is a 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 improves over momentum SGD with learning rate decay in most cases. Notably, DEMON momentum SGD is observed to be less sensitive to parameter tuning than momentum SGD with learning rate decay schedule, critical to training neural networks in practice. Results are demonstrated across a variety of settings and architectures, including image classification, generative models, and language models. DEMON is easy to implement and tune, and incurs limited extra computational overhead, compared to the vanilla counterparts. Code is readily available.

1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation. Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have advanced the state-of-the-art in computer vision (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; He et al., 2016; Ren et al., 2015), natural language processing (Mikolov et al., 2013; Bahdanau et al., 2014; Gehring et al., 2017) and speech recognition (Sak et al., 2014; Sercu et al., 2016), but have come with huge computation costs. A state-of-the-art language model can cost several million USD to train (Brown et al., 2020; Sharir et al., 2020). For most practitioners and researchers, even moderate tasks can be prohibitive in time and cost when the hyperparameter tuning process is taken into account, where it is typical to retrain models many times to achieve optimal performance.

In an effort to ease the cost of training DNNs, adaptive gradient-based methods (Duchi et al., 2011; Zeiler, 2012; Hinton et al., 2012; Kingma & Ba, 2014; Ma & Yarats, 2018) were devised. However, there are cases where their use leads to a performance gap (Wilson et al., 2017; Shah et al., 2018). Although this performance gap was shown to be a result of poor hyperparameter tuning (Sivaprasad et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2019; Agarwal et al., 2020; Shah et al., 2018), stochastic gradient descent (SGD) and SGD with momentum (SGDM) remain among the most popular methods for training DNNs. In fact, SGDM remains the optimizer of choice and state-of-the-art performance on many benchmarks—such as the image classification dataset ImageNet—is produced with SGDM (Krizhevsky et al., 2012; He et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2017; Zagoruyko & Komodakis, 2016; Huang et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2015; Howard et al., 2017).

For optimizers, including SGDM, to achieve good performance, their hyperparameters must be tuned properly. Slight changes in learning rate, learning rate decay, momentum, and weight decay (amongst others) can drastically alter performance. Hyperparameter tuning is extremely time consuming, and researchers often resort to a costly grid search. *Thus, the holy grail is achieving the performance and efficiency of SGDM with decreased dependence on hyperparameter tuning.*

Momentum tuning. The focus of this work is on how we can boost performance and practically reduce dependency on hyperparameter tuning with a simple technique for the momentum parameter. Momentum was designed to speed up learning in directions of low curvature, without becoming unstable in directions of high curvature. To minimize the objective function $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$, the most common

momentum method, SGDM, is given by the following recursion for variable vector $\theta_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$:

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

where β controls the rate of momentum decay, g_t represents a stochastic gradient, usually $\mathbb{E}[g_t] = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta_t)$, and $\eta > 0$ is the step size.

Practitioners usually set $\beta = 0.9$. This setting is supported by recent works that prescribe it (Chen et al., 2016; Kingma & Ba, 2014; Hinton et al., 2012; Reddi et al., 2019), and by the fact that most common softwares, such as PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2017), use $\beta = 0.9$ as the default momentum value. There is no indication that this choice is universally well-behaved.

There are papers that attempt to tune the momentum parameter. In the distributed setting, (Mitliagkas et al., 2016) observe that running SGD asynchronously is similar to adding a momentum-like term to SGD. They provide empirical evidence that setting $\beta = 0.9$ results in a momentum "overdose", yielding suboptimal performance. Additionally, YellowFin (Zhang & Mitliagkas, 2017) is a learning rate and momentum adaptive method for both synchronous and asynchronous settings, motivated by a quadratic model analysis and some robustness insights. Finally, in training generative adversarial networks (GANs), optimal momentum values tend to decrease from $\beta = 0.9$ (Mirza & Osindero, 2014; Radford et al., 2015; Arjovsky et al., 2017), taking even negative values (Gidel et al., 2018).

This paper. we perform the first large-scale empirical analysis of momentum decay methods and introduce the DEMON momentum decay rule, a novel method which significantly surpasses the performance of both Adam and SGDM in their current form (and other state-of-the-art methods), while empirically increasing robustness to hyperparameters. Our findings can be summarized as follows:

- We conduct the first large-scale empirical analysis of momentum decay methods for modern neural network optimization. We propose a new momentum decay rule DEMON, which performs well empirically and is motivated by decaying the total contribution of a gradient to all future updates, with limited overhead and additional computation.
- Adding the momentum decay rule to vanilla Adam, we observe large performance gains. The network continues to learn for far longer after Adam begins to plateau.
- We observe improved performance for SGDM with momentum decay over learning rate decay; an interesting result given the unparalleled effectiveness of learning rate decay.

Experiments are provided on various datasets—including MNIST, FMNIST, CIFAR-10, CIFAR-100, STL-10, Tiny ImageNet, Penn Treebank (PTB); and networks—including Convolutional Networks (CNN) with Residual architecture (ResNet) (He et al., 2016) (Wide ResNet) (Zagoruyko & Komodakis, 2016), Non-Residual architecture (VGG-16) (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2014), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) with Long Short-Term Memory architecture (LSTM) (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997), Variational AutoEncoders (VAE) (Kingma & Welling, 2015), Capsule Network (Sabour et al., 2017), Noise Conditional Score Network (NCSN) (Song & Ermon, 2019).

2 PRELIMINARIES

SGDM. Let $\theta_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ be the parameters of the network at time step t, where $\eta \in \mathbb{R}$ is the learning rate, and g_t is the stochastic gradient w.r.t. θ_t for empirical loss $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$, such that $\mathbb{E}[g_t] = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta_t)$. SGDM is parameterized by $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$, the momentum coefficient, and follows the recursion:

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

where $v_t \in \mathbb{R}^p$ accumulates momentum. Observe that for $\beta = 0$, the above recursion is equivalent to SGD. Common values for β are closer to one, with $\beta = 0.9$ the most used value (Ruder, 2016).

Adaptive gradient descent methods. These algorithms utilize current and past gradient information to design preconditioning matrices that better approximate the local curvature of $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$ (Duchi et al., 2011; Hinton et al., 2012). On top of SGDM, Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014) uses an exponentially decaying average of past gradients, as in $\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^g = \beta_1 \cdot \mathcal{E}_t^g + (1 - \beta_1) \cdot g_t$, as well as a decaying average of squared gradients, as in $\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{g \circ g} = \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}_t^{g \circ g} + (1 - \beta_2) \cdot (g_t \circ g_t)$, leading to the recursion:[1]

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathcal{E}_{t+1,i}^{g \circ g} + \varepsilon}} \cdot \mathcal{E}_{t+1,i}^g, \quad \forall t,$$

where usually $\beta_1 = 0.9$ and $\beta_2 = 0.999$.

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[1]For clarity, we will skip the bias correction step in this description of Adam; see Kingma & Ba (2014).

3 DEMON: DECAYING MOMENTUM ALGORITHM

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Algorithm 1 DEMON in SGDM

Parameters: T, η, initial mom. β_{init}.
$v_0 = \theta_0 = 0$ or random.
for $t = 0, \ldots, T$ **do**
$\quad \beta_t = \beta_{\text{init}} \cdot \frac{\left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)}{(1 - \beta_{\text{init}}) + \beta_{\text{init}}\left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)}$
$\quad \theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta g_t + \beta_t v_t$
$\quad v_{t+1} = \beta_t v_t - \eta g_t$
end for

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Algorithm 2 DEMON in Adam

Parameters: T, η, initial mom. β_{init}, β_2, $\varepsilon = 10^{-8}$. $v_0 = \theta_0 = 0$ or random.
for $t = 0, \ldots, T$ **do**
$\quad \beta_t = \beta_{\text{init}} \cdot \frac{\left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)}{(1 - \beta_{\text{init}}) + \beta_{\text{init}}\left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)}$
$\quad \mathcal{E}_{t+1}^{g \circ g} = \beta_2 \cdot \mathcal{E}_t^{g \circ g} + (1 - \beta_2) \cdot (g_t \circ g_t)$
$\quad m_{t,i} = g_{t,1} + \beta_t m_{t-1,i}$
$\quad \theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathcal{E}_{t+1,i}^{g \circ g}} + \varepsilon} \cdot m_{t,i}$
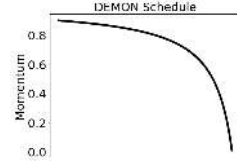**end for**

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Figure 1: This plot illustrates the *non-linear* DEMON schedule, decaying from $\beta_{init} = 0.9$ to 0.

Motivation and interpretation. DEMON is motivated by learning rate decay models which reduce the impact of a gradient to current and future updates. By decaying the momentum parameter, we decay the total contribution of a gradient to all future updates. *Our goal here is to present a concrete, effective, and easy-to-use momentum decay procedure which we show in the experimental section.* The key component is the momentum decay schedule:

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

Above, the fraction $(1 - t/T)$ refers to the proportion of iterations remaining. Fig. 1 presents a visualization of the proposed momentum decay rule. Only the DEMON momentum schedule is presented in the main text, but comparisons to other possible momentum schedules are presented in Appendix G. We use the DEMON momentum schedule due to its superior empirical performance in comparison to other options for momentum decay. 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 SGDM recursion. We know that $v_0 = 0$, and $v_t = \beta v_{t-1} - g_t$. Then, the main recursion can be unrolled into:

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

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 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. Although β changes in subsequent iterations, this is typically a very close approximation since $\beta^i \beta^{i+1} \ldots \beta^t$ for a particular g^i diminishes much faster than β changes. We emphasize that directly decaying β linearly achieves significantly worse performance (see Appendix

Connection to previous 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 1; 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. Implementation is simply 1-2 lines of code.

```
p_t = (iters - t)/iters
beta_t = beta1 * (p_t / (1 - beta1 + beta1 * p_t))
```

Convergence analysis. *We provide convergence proof for* DEMON *SGDM in the convex setting, by bounding auxiliary function sequences as in (Ghadimi et al., 2014).* Convergence results for DEMON Adam in the non-convex setting can be easily extended from existing work Zou et al. (2018). See

Appendix C for details. Convergence analysis on a toy convex problem on accelerated SGD as in (Kidambi et al., 2018) is given in Appendix D.

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.

4 RELATED WORK

Numerous techniques exist for automatic hyperparameter tuning. Adaptive methods, such as Ada-Grad (Duchi et al., 2011), AdaDelta (Zeiler, 2012), RMSprop (Hinton et al., 2012), and Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014), are most widely used. Interest in closing the generalization difference between adaptive methods and SGDM led to AMSGrad (Reddi et al., 2019), which uses the maximum of the exponential moving average of squared gradients, QHAdam (Ma & Yarats, 2018), a variant of QHM that recovers a variety of optimization algorithms, AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017), which decouples weight decay in Adam, and Padam (Chen & Gu, 2018), which lowers the exponent of the second moment. YellowFin (Zhang & Mitliagkas, 2017) is a learning rate and momentum adaptive method motivated by a quadratic model analysis and robustness insights. In the non-convex setting, STORM (Cutkosky & Orabona, 2019) uses a variant of momentum for variance reduction.

The convergence of momentum methods has been heavily explored both empirically and theoretically (Wibisono & Wilson, 2015; Wibisono et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2016; Kidambi et al., 2018; Defazio & Gower, 2020). Sutskever et al. (2013) explored momentum schedules, even increasing momentum during training, inspired by Nesterov's routines for convex optimization. Smith et al. (2017) scales the batch size to create associated changes in learning rate and momentum. Smith (2018) introduces cycles of simultaneously increasing learning rate and decreasing momentum followed by simultaneously decreasing learning rate and increasing momentum. Some work adapts the momentum to reduce oscillations during training (Odonoghue & Candes, 2015) and explores integration of momentum into well-conditioned convex problems (Srinivasan et al., 2018). Another approach is to combine several momentum vectors with different β values (Lucas et al., 2018). In another work, gradient staleness in variance reduction methods is addressed with gradient transport Arnold et al. (2019). We are aware of the theoretical work of Yuan et al. (2016) that proves, under certain conditions, SGDM is equivalent to SGD with a rescaled learning rate, but our experiments in the deep learning setting show slightly different behavior. Understanding this discrepancy is an exciting direction of research.

Smaller values of β have been employed for Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), and recent developments in game dynamics (Gidel et al., 2018) show a negative momentum is helpful.

5 EXPERIMENTS

We separate experiments into those with adaptive learning rate and those with adaptive momentum, following Ma & Yarats (2018). Well-known experiments in the literature are selected for comparison (e.g., ResNets and LSTMs). *We avoided training pre-trained models as it is less informative (for optimization purposes) than training models from scratch. Training models like GPT-2/3 from scratch is not feasible, and we instead focus on providing a wide number of experiments and baselines.* For each setting, we use varying numbers of epochs to demonstrate effectiveness regardless of training budget. Experiments with different numbers of epochs are standalone experiments with independently-tuned hyperparameters. All settings are briefly summarized in Table 1 and comprehensively detailed, including exact hyperparameters, in Appendix A. Plots are in Appendix F.

Table 2 presents hyperparameter tuning details for SGDM, Adam, and DEMON variants (see Table 6 for exact details). The exploration setting (CIFAR10/100/STL10, and following general guidelines in literature) informed our settings for other experiments. **The overall tuning budget for SGDM in exploration was 2-3x that of DEMON SGDM, and is the same for mainline experiments.**

5.1 DECREASING THE NEED FOR HYPERPARAMETER TUNING

In this section, we demonstrate the robustness of DEMON SGDM and DEMON Adam relative to SGDM with learning rate decay and Adam. In Fig. 2, validation accuracy is displayed for a grid search over learning rate and momentum. For SGDM, results are obtained with the highest-performing learning rate schedule. The heatmaps display optimal performance of each optimizer over the full range of possible hyperparameters.

`WRN-STL10-DEMONSGDM` yields a significantly larger band of lighter color, indicating better performance for a wide range of hyperparameters. For every learning rate-momentum pair, we observe a lighter color for DEMON SGDM relative to SGDM. Concretely, SGDM has roughly one configuration per column with $< 22\%$ generalization error, while DEMON SGDM has five.

On `VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM`, a larger band of low generalization error exists compared to SGDM. There also appears to be a slight shift in optimal parameters. Concretely, DEMON SGDM has almost three times the number of configurations with generalization error $< 31\%$.

On `RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam`, DEMON Adam demonstrates its improved hyperparameter robustness relative to Adam. The generalization errors achieved with Adam fluctuate significantly, yielding optimal performance with only a few hyperparameter settings. In contrast, DEMON Adam yields a wide band of high performance across hyperparameters.

Table 1: Summary of experimental settings.

Experiment short name	Model	Dataset	Optimizer
`RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM`	ResNet20	CIFAR10	DEMON SGDM
`RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam`	ResNet20	CIFAR10	DEMON Adam
`RN56-TINYIMAGENET-DEMONSGDM`	ResNet56	Tiny ImageNet	DEMON SGDM
`RN56-TINYIMAGENET-DEMONAdam`	ResNet56	Tiny ImageNet	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
`CAPS-FMNIST-DEMONAdam`	Capsnet	FMNIST	DEMON Adam

Table 2: Hyperparameter tuning details for main optimizers. DEMON schedule tuning refers to beginning at 0%, 50%, or 75% of epochs.

Optimizer	Tuned	Mainline settings Fixed	Tuned	Exploration settings Fixed
`SGDM`	η	β, η Schedule	η, β, η Schedule	
`Adam`	η	β, β_2	η, β	β_2
`DEMONSGDM`	η	β_{init}, Demon schedule	η, β_{init}, Demon schedule	
`DEMONAdam`	η	β_{init}, β_2, Demon schedule	η, β_{init}	β_2, Demon schedule

These results indicate that both DEMON Adam and SGDM are less sensitive to hyperparameter tuning than their vanilla counterparts, whilst attaining same or better error. This is critical to the use of DEMON in practice, as DEMON can yield high performance with minimal tuning. The performance of DEMON is high and stable across a wide range of hyperparameters near the default.

5.2 COMPARISON OF ADAPTIVE METHODS

DEMON Adam (Algorithm 2) is applied to a variety of models and tasks. We select Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014) as the baseline algorithm and include comparisons with state-of-the-art methods Quasi-Hyperbolic Adam (QHAdam) (Ma & Yarats, 2018), AMSGrad (Reddi et al., 2019), AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017), YellowFin (Zhang & Mitliagkas, 2017) (descriptions in Appendix A.2.1). We emphasize that Quasi-Hyperbolic methods are capable of recovering Accelerated SGD (Jain et al., 2017), Nesterov Accelerated Gradient (Nesterov, 1983), Synthesized Nesterov Variants (Lessard et al., 2016), and others, thus covering more algorithms than those present. We tune all learning rates in rough multiples of 3 and keep all other parameters close to those recommended in the original literature. For DEMON Adam, we set $\beta_{init} = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999$ and decay from β_{init} to 0 starting from 75% of epochs.

To simplify the results presentation, further comparison with Padam (Chen & Gu, 2018) and OneCycle (Smith, 2018) are in Appendix H. DEMON outperforms both approaches in various settings.

Residual Network (`RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam`). We train a ResNet20 (He et al., 2016) model on the CIFAR-10 dataset. With DEMON Adam, we achieve the generalization error reported in the literature (He et al., 2016), attained using SGDM and a curated learning rate decay schedule, while all other adaptive methods are not competitive (see Table 3). DEMON Adam continues learning after other methods have plateaued, outperforming other adaptive methods by a 2%-5% generalization error across all experiments (see Appendix F Figure 5).
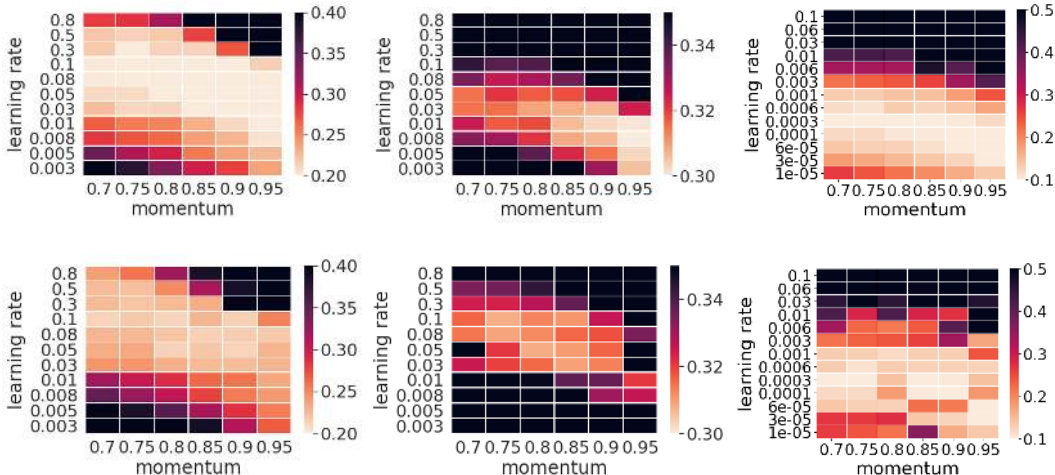

Figure 2: In order from left to right: Error rate for `WRN-STL10-DEMONSGDM` (top) and `WRN-STL10-SGDM` (bottom) for 50 epochs, error rate for `VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM` (top) and `VGG16-CIFAR100-SGDM` (bottom) for 100 epochs, and error rate for `RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam` and `RN20-CIFAR10-Adam` for 100 epochs. Light-colored patches indicate better performance.

Table 3: `RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM/Adam` and `VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization error. The number of epochs was predefined before the execution of the algorithms.

	ResNet 20				**VGG-16**		
	30 epochs	75 epochs	150 epochs	300 epochs	75 epochs	150 epochs	300 epochs
SGDM	$11.80 \pm .11$	$8.82 \pm .25$	$8.43 \pm .07$	$7.32 \pm .14$	$35.04 \pm .24$	$30.09 \pm .32$	$27.83 \pm .30$
AggMo	$11.14 \pm .34$	$8.71 \pm .24$	$7.93 \pm .15$	$7.62 \pm .03$	$34.40 \pm .60$	$30.75 \pm .55$	$28.64 \pm .45$
QHM	$10.66 \pm .17$	$8.72 \pm .14$	$7.95 \pm .17$	$7.67 \pm .10$	$33.27 \pm .56$	$29.93 \pm .13$	$29.01 \pm .54$
Adam	$16.58 \pm .18$	$13.63 \pm .22$	$11.90 \pm .06$	$11.94 \pm .06$	$37.98 \pm .20$	$33.62 \pm .11$	$31.09 \pm .09$
AMSGrad	$16.98 \pm .36$	$13.43 \pm .14$	$11.83 \pm .12$	$10.48 \pm .12$	$40.67 \pm .65$	$34.46 \pm .21$	$31.62 \pm .12$
AdamW	$15.39 \pm .46$	$12.46 \pm .52$	$11.38 \pm .21$	$10.50 \pm .17$	36.96 ± 1.21	$33.48 \pm .68$	$32.22 \pm .13$
QHAdam	$16.41 \pm .38$	$15.55 \pm .25$	$13.78 \pm .08$	$13.36 \pm .11$	$36.53 \pm .20$	$32.96 \pm .11$	$30.97 \pm .10$
YellowFin	$17.25 \pm .15$	$13.66 \pm .34$	$12.13 \pm .41$	$11.39 \pm .16$	86.24 ± 3.54	68.87 ± 5.82	50.18 ± 4.02
DEMON SGDM	$10.78 \pm .08$	$8.49 \pm .19$	$7.63 \pm .17$	$7.32 \pm .19$	$31.62 \pm .29$	$28.19 \pm .11$	$27.68 \pm .24$
DEMON Adam	$11.75 \pm .15$	$9.69 \pm .10$	$8.83 \pm .08$	$8.44 \pm .05$	$32.40 \pm .19$	$28.84 \pm .18$	$27.11 \pm .19$

(`RN56-TINYIMAGENET-DEMONAdam`). We train a ResNet56 (He et al., 2016) model on the Tiny ImageNet dataset. Using DEMON Adam, we achieve superior generalization performance over Adam, which was found to be quite sensitive to hyperparameter settings. DEMON Adam outperformed Adam on Tiny ImageNet by a 5%-8% margin in generalization error (see Table 5).

Non-Residual Network (`VGG16-CIFAR100- DEMONAdam`). We train an adjusted VGG-16 model (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2014) on the CIFAR-100 dataset. Again, DEMON Adam continues to improve after other methods begin to plateau, resulting in a 1-3% decrease in generalization error compared to reported results with the same model and task (Sankaranarayanan et al., 2018), attained with SGDM and a curated learning rate decay schedule. DEMON Adam achieves a 3%-6% generalization error improvement over all other methods (see Appendix F Figure 5 and Table 3).

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Wide Residual Network (`WRN-STL10-DEMONAdam`). We train a Wide Residual 16-8 model (Zagoruyko & Komodakis, 2016) on the STL-10 dataset, which has significantly fewer, higher resolution images in comparison to CIFAR. In this setting, DEMON Adam significantly outperforms other methods in the later stages of training. DEMON Adam achieves a 0.5%-2% generalization error margin over other methods with varying epochs (see Appendix F Figure 5 and Table 4).

Capsule Network (`CAPS-FMNIST-DEMONAdam`). Capsule Networks (Sabour et al., 2017) represent Neural Networks as a set of capsules that each encode a specific entity or meaning. Capsules exploit the observation that viewpoint changes significantly alter pixels but are linear with respect to the pose matrix. The activation of capsules differs from standard neural network activation functions because it depends on comparing incoming pose predictions. We train Capsule Networks on the FMNIST dataset and show that DEMON Adam outperforms other methods (see Table 4).

LSTM (`PTB-LSTM-DEMONAdam`). We apply an LSTM (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997) to the language modeling task, which can have sharp gradient distributions (e.g., rare words). While all other adaptive methods overfit to this task, DEMON Adam achieves a *margin of 6-14 in generalization perplexity* (see Appendix F Figure 5 and Table 4).

Variational AutoEncoder (`VAE-MNIST-DEMONAdam`). Generative modeling is a branch of unsupervised learning that focuses on learning the underlying data distribution. VAEs (Kingma & Welling, 2015) are generative models that pair a generator network with a recognition model that performs approximate inference and can be trained with backprop. We train VAEs on MNIST. DEMON Adam outperforms all other methods (see Table 5, Appendix F Figure 5).

Table 4: `WRN-STL10-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization error, `PTB-LSTM-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization perplexity, and `CAPS-FMNIST-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization error. The number of epochs was predefined before the execution of the algorithms.

	Wide Residual 16-8			LSTM		Capsule Network	
	50 epochs	100 epochs	200 epochs	25 epochs	39 epochs	50 epochs	100 epochs
SGDM	$22.42 \pm .56$	$17.20 \pm .35$	$14.51 \pm .26$	$89.59 \pm .07$	$\mathbf{87.57} \pm .11$	-	-
AggMo	$21.37 \pm .32$	$17.15 \pm .35$	$14.49 \pm .26$	$89.09 \pm .16$	$89.07 \pm .15$	-	-
QHM	$21.75 \pm .31$	$18.21 \pm .48$	$14.44 \pm .23$	$94.47 \pm .19$	$94.44 \pm .13$	-	-
Adam	$23.35 \pm .20$	$19.63 \pm .26$	$18.65 \pm .07$	$115.54 \pm .64$	$115.02 \pm .52$	$9.27 \pm .08$	$9.25 \pm .11$
AMSGrad	$21.73 \pm .25$	$19.35 \pm .20$	$18.21 \pm .18$	$108.07 \pm .19$	$107.87 \pm .25$	$9.39 \pm .18$	$9.28 \pm .19$
AdamW	$20.39 \pm .62$	$18.55 \pm .23$	$17.00 \pm .41$	116.27 ± 2.57	116.21 ± 2.14	9.78 ± 0.62	$9.92 \pm .74$
QHAdam	$21.25 \pm .22$	$19.81 \pm .18$	$18.52 \pm .25$	$112.52 \pm .23$	$112.45 \pm .39$	$9.30 \pm .23$	$9.24 \pm .15$
YellowFin	$22.55 \pm .14$	$20.68 \pm .04$	$18.56 \pm .33$	$123.52 \pm .52$	$115.55 \pm .23$	$10.96 \pm .65$	$10.55 \pm .84$
DEMON SGDM	$\mathbf{19.40} \pm .08$	$\mathbf{16.07} \pm .28$	$\mathbf{13.59} \pm .67$	$\mathbf{88.33} \pm .16$	$88.32 \pm .12$	-	-
DEMON Adam	$19.42 \pm .10$	$17.82 \pm .34$	$16.87 \pm .36$	$101.57 \pm .32$	$101.44 \pm .47$	$\mathbf{8.82} \pm .12$	$\mathbf{8.76} \pm .13$

Table 5: `RN56-TINYIMAGENET-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization error, `VAE-MNIST-DEMONSGDM/Adam` generalization loss, and `NCSN-CIFAR10-DEMONAdam` inception score. The number of epochs was predefined before the execution of the algorithms.

	Resnet 56		VAE			NCSN
	20 epochs	40 epochs	50 epochs	100 epochs	200 epochs	512 epochs
SGDM	$45.98 \pm .21$	$41.66 \pm .10$	$140.28 \pm .51$	$137.70 \pm .93$	$136.34 \pm .31$	-
AggMo	-	-	$139.49 \pm .99$	$136.56 \pm .28$	$134.93 \pm .40$	-
QHM	-	-	$142.47 \pm .50$	$137.97 \pm .54$	$135.97 \pm .29$	-
Adam	57.56 ± 1.50	$50.89 \pm .59$	$136.28 \pm .18$	$134.64 \pm .14$	$134.66 \pm .17$	$\mathbf{8.15} \pm .20$
AMSGrad	-	-	$137.89 \pm .12$	$135.69 \pm .03$	$134.75 \pm .18$	-
QHAdam	-	-	$136.69 \pm .17$	$134.84 \pm .08$	$134.12 \pm .12$	-
YellowFin	-	-	414.74 ± 5.00	351.80 ± 6.68	286.69 ± 6.68	-
DEMON SGDM	$\mathbf{44.87} \pm .15$	$\mathbf{40.85} \pm .01$	$138.29 \pm .08$	$136.55 \pm .64$	$134.68 \pm .30$	-
DEMON Adam	$48.92 \pm .03$	$45.72 \pm .31$	$\mathbf{134.46} \pm .17$	$\mathbf{134.12} \pm .08$	$\mathbf{133.87} \pm .21$	$8.07 \pm .08$

Noise Conditional Score Network (`NCSN-CIFAR10- DEMONAdam`). NCSN (Song & Ermon, 2019) is a recent generative model that estimates gradients of the data distribution with score matching and produces samples via Langevin dynamics. We train a NCSN on CIFAR10, for which NCSN achieves a strong inception score. Although Adam achieves a superior inception score (see Table 5), the results in Figure 3 are unnaturally green compared to those produced by DEMON Adam.

5.3 NON-ADAPTIVE MOMENTUM METHODS

We apply DEMON SGDM (Algorithm 1) to a variety of models and tasks. SGDM with learning rate decay is the baseline because it often achieves state-of-the-art results for such tasks. Experiments with recent adaptive momentum methods Aggregated Momentum (AggMo) (Lucas et al., 2018) and Quasi-Hyperbolic Momentum (QHM) (Ma & Yarats, 2018) are included (descriptions in Appendix A.2.2). We exclude accelerated SGD (Jain et al., 2017) due to tuning difficulties. We tune all learning rates in rough multiples of 3 and keep other parameters close to values recommended in the literature. For SGDM, AggMo, and QHM, we decay the learning rate at 50% and 75% of total epochs by a factor of 0.1, except for the `PTB-LSTM-DEMONSGDM` setting. For DEMON SGDM, we apply no learning rate decay, start decay at 75% of epochs, $\beta_{\text{init}} = 0.95$ for all experiments and decay to 0. Unlike the other methods, for a particular model-dataset DEMON SGDM did not require any retuning for different number of total epochs.

Figure 3: Randomly selected CIFAR10 images generated with NCSN. Left: Real CIFAR10 images. Middle: Adam. Right: DEMON Adam.

We emphasize that DEMON can be combined with any momentum method. We present DEMON SGDM since SGDM is the most widely used optimizer.

Residual Network (`RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM`). We train a ResNet20 model on the CIFAR-10 dataset. With DEMON SGDM, we achieve better generalization error than SGDM. Additionally, DEMON SGDM outperforms other adaptive momentum methods with learning rate decay schedules (see Table 3), demonstrating the strong performance of DEMON relative to learning rate decay.

(`RN56-TINYIMAGENET-DEMONSGDM`). We train a ResNet56 model on the Tiny ImageNet dataset. DEMON SGDM outperforms SGDM with learning rate decay (see Table 5). The performance achieved with SGDM was found to be sensitive to hyperparameter settings, while DEMON SGDM performed comparably for a wide range of hyperparameters.

Non-Residual Network (`VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM`). We train an adjusted VGG-16 model on the CIFAR-100 dataset. DEMON SGDM learns slowly in initial epochs but continues to learn after the performance of other methods plateaus, yielding superior final performance. DEMON SGDM improves on all other methods in generalization error margin (see Table 3).

Wide Residual Network (`WRN-STL10-DEMONSGDM`). We train a Wide Residual 16-8 model on the STL-10 dataset. DEMON SGDM outperforms all other methods by a 1%-2% generalization error margin with a small and large number of epochs (see Table 4).

LSTM (`PTB-LSTM-DEMONSGDM`). We train an LSTM architecture for the PTB language modeling task. DEMON SGDM slightly outperforms other adaptive momentum methods in generalization perplexity and is competitive with SGDM (see Table 4).

Variational AutoEncoder (`VAE-MNIST-DEMONSGDM`). We train a generative VAE model on the MNIST dataset. DEMON SGDM outperforms all other methods in terms of generalization loss for fewer epochs and is competitive when more epochs are used (see Table 5).

6 ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Additional experimental results are given in the Appendix and we provide summaries in this section. In Appendix H, we demonstrate superior performance of DEMON SGDM over Padam Chen & Gu (2018) and OneCycle Smith (2018) on `RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM`, `VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM` and `VAE-MNIST-DEMONSGDM` settings. In Appendix E, we demonstrate the superior performance DEMON SGDM over an effective learning rate adjusted SGD. In Appendix I, we run all experiments from Section 5.3 without learning rate de-

cay. On `RN20-CIFAR10-DEMONSGDM`, DEMON SGDM outperforms all other adaptive momentum methods by a 3%-8% validation error margin with a small and large number of epochs. On `VGG16-CIFAR100-DEMONSGDM`, DEMON SGDM achieves a 1%-8% improvement in generalization error over all other methods.

7 CONCLUSION

We show the effectiveness of DEMON across a number of datasets and architectures. The adaptive optimizer Adam combined with DEMON is empirically far superior to the popular Adam, in addition to other state-of-the-art algorithms, suggesting a drop-in replacement. It is also demonstrated that DEMON SGDM improves upon SGDM with learning rate decay schedule. Furthermore, DEMON is empirically robust to hyperparameter tuning. DEMON is computationally cheap, understandable, and easy to implement. We hope it is useful in practice and a subject of future research.

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