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$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)$$

The gradient descent acts like follows:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{\alpha_k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(x)$$

• Iteration cost is linear in n.

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Let's/ switch from the full gradient calculation to its unbiased estimator, when we randomly choose
$$i_k$$
 index of point at each iteration uniformly:

 $x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f_{i, \cdot}(x_k)$ With $p(i_k = i) = \frac{1}{n}$, the stochastic gradient is an unbiased estimate of the gradient, given by:

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla f_{i_k}(x)] = \sum_{i=1}^n p(i_k = i) \nabla f_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \nabla f_i(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(x) = \nabla f(x)$$

This indicates that the expected value of the stochastic gradient is equal to the actual gradient of f(x).

(GD)

(SGD)

Adaptivity or scaling





Very popular adaptive method. Let $g^{(k)} = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)})$, and update for $j=1,\dots,p$:

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- Main weakness is the monotonic accumulation of gradients in the denominator. AdaDelta, Adam, AMSGrad, etc. improve on this, popular in training deep neural networks.
- The constant ϵ is typically set to 10^{-6} to ensure that we do not suffer from division by zero or overly large step sizes.

RMSProp (Tieleman and Hinton, 2012)

An enhancement of AdaGrad that addresses its aggressive, monotonically decreasing learning rate. Uses a moving average of squared gradients to adjust the learning rate for each weight. Let $g^{(k)} = \nabla f_{i,}(x^{(k-1)})$ and update rule for j = 1, ..., p:

$$\begin{split} v_j^{(k)} &= \gamma v_j^{(k-1)} + (1-\gamma)(g_j^{(k)})^2 \\ x_j^{(k)} &= x_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{g_j^{(k)}}{\sqrt{v_j^{(k)} + \epsilon}} \end{split}$$

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- RMSProp divides the learning rate for a weight by a running average of the magnitudes of recent gradients for that weight.
- Allows for a more nuanced adjustment of learning rates than AdaGrad, making it suitable for non-stationary problems.
- Commonly used in training neural networks, particularly in recurrent neural networks.

Adadelta (Zeiler, 2012)

An extension of RMSProp that seeks to reduce its dependence on a manually set global learning rate. Instead of accumulating all past squared gradients, Adadelta limits the window of accumulated past gradients to some fixed size w. Update mechanism does not require learning rate α :

$$\begin{split} v_j^{(k)} &= \gamma v_j^{(k-1)} + (1-\gamma) (g_j^{(k)})^2 \\ \tilde{g}_j^{(k)} &= \frac{\sqrt{\Delta x_j^{(k-1)} + \epsilon}}{\sqrt{v_j^{(k)} + \epsilon}} g_j^{(k)} \\ x_j^{(k)} &= x_j^{(k-1)} - \tilde{g}_j^{(k)} \\ \Delta x_j^{(k)} &= \rho \Delta x_j^{(k-1)} + (1-\rho) (\tilde{g}_j^{(k)})^2 \end{split}$$

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- The method does not require an initial learning rate setting, making it easier to configure.
- Often used in deep learning where parameter scales differ significantly across layers.



Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2014) 1 2

Combines elements from both AdaGrad and RMSProp. It considers an exponentially decaying average of past gradients and squared gradients.

EMA:
$$\begin{aligned} m_j^{(k)} &= \beta_1 m_j^{(k-1)} + (1-\beta_1) g_j^{(k)} \\ v_j^{(k)} &= \beta_2 v_j^{(k-1)} + (1-\beta_2) \left(g_j^{(k)}\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Bias correction:
$$\hat{m}_j = \frac{m_j^{(k)}}{1-\beta_1^k}$$

$$\hat{v}_j = \frac{v_j^{(k)}}{1-\beta_2^k}$$

$$v_j = \frac{1 - \beta_2^k}{1 - \beta_2^k}$$

$$x_j^{(k)} = x_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \frac{\hat{m}_j}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_j} + \epsilon}$$

Notes:

 It corrects the bias towards zero in the initial moments seen in other methods like RMSProp, making the estimates more accurate.

Update:

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 - Гораздо лучше работает для языковых моделей, чем для задач компьютерного зрения - почему?

Adaptivity or scaling

¹Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization

²On the Convergence of Adam and Beyond

AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017)

Addresses a common issue with ℓ_2 regularization in adaptive optimizers like Adam. Standard ℓ_2 regularization adds $\lambda \|x\|^2$ to the loss, resulting in a gradient term λx . In Adam, this term gets scaled by the adaptive learning rate $\left(\sqrt{\hat{v}_i} + \epsilon\right)$, coupling the weight decay to the gradient magnitudes.

AdamW decouples weight decay from the gradient adaptation step.

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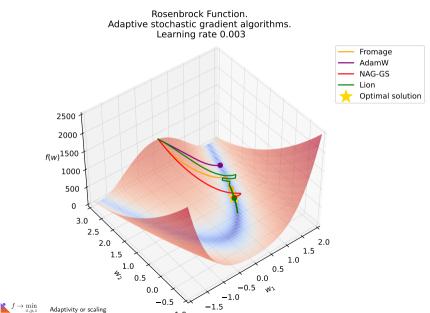
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- The weight decay term $\lambda x_i^{(k-1)}$ is added after the adaptive gradient step.
- Widely adopted in training transformers and other large models. Default choice for huggingface trainer.





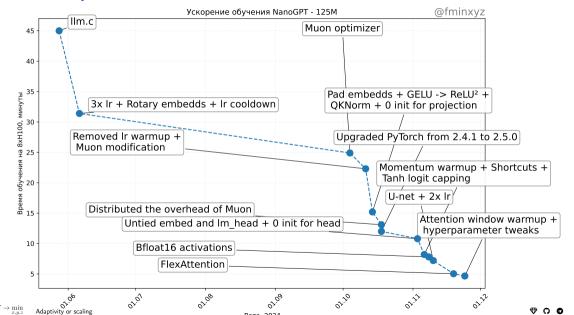
A lot of them



How to compare them? AlgoPerf benchmark



NanoGPT speedrun



Stands for Stochastic Hessian-Approximation Matrix Preconditioning for Optimization Of deep networks. It's a method inspired by second-order optimization designed for large-scale deep learning.

Core Idea: Approximates the full-matrix AdaGrad pre conditioner using efficient matrix structures, specifically Kronecker products.

For a weight matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the update involves preconditioning using approximations of the statistics matrices $L \approx \sum_k G_k G_k^T$ and $R \approx \sum_k G_k^T G_k$, where G_k are the gradients.

Simplified concept:

1. Compute gradient G_k .

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- Aims to capture curvature information more effectively than first-order methods.
- Computationally more expensive than Adam but can converge faster or to better solutions in terms of steps.

 $f \to \min_{x,y,z}$ Adaptivity or scaling

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- 2. Update statistics $L_k=\beta L_{k-1}+(1-\beta)G_kG_k^T$ and $R_k=\beta R_{k-1}+(1-\beta)G_k^TG_k$.
- 3. Compute preconditioners $P_L = L_k^{-1/4}$ and $P_R = R_k^{-1/4}$. (Inverse matrix root)
- 4. Update: $W_{k+1} = W_k \alpha P_L G_k P_R$.

- Aims to capture curvature information more effectively than first-order methods.
 - Computationally more expensive than Adam but can converge faster or to better solutions in terms of steps.
 - Requires careful implementation for efficiency (e.g., efficient computation of inverse matrix roots, handling large matrices).

Shampoo (Gupta, Anil, et al., 2018; Anil et al., 2020)

Stands for **S**tochastic **H**essian-**A**pproximation **M**atrix **P**reconditioning for **O**ptimization **O**f deep networks. It's a method inspired by second-order optimization designed for large-scale deep learning.

Core Idea: Approximates the full-matrix AdaGrad pre conditioner using efficient matrix structures, specifically Kronecker products.

For a weight matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the update involves preconditioning using approximations of the statistics matrices $L \approx \sum_k G_k G_k^T$ and $R \approx \sum_k G_k^T G_k$, where G_k are the gradients.

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- Aims to capture curvature information more effectively than first-order methods.
 - Computationally more expensive than Adam but can converge faster or to better solutions in terms of steps.
 - Requires careful implementation for efficiency (e.g., efficient computation of inverse matrix roots, handling large matrices).
 - Variants exist for different tensor shapes (e.g., convolutional layers).

Muon³

$$\begin{split} W_{t+1} &= W_t - \eta (G_t G_t^\top)^{-1/4} G_t (G_t^\top G_t)^{-1/4} \\ &= W_t - \eta (U S^2 U^\top)^{-1/4} (U S V^\top) (V S^2 V^\top)^{-1/4} \\ &= W_t - \eta (U S^{-1/2} U^\top) (U S V^\top) (V S^{-1/2} V^\top) \\ &= W_t - \eta U S^{-1/2} S S^{-1/2} V^\top \\ &= W_t - \eta U V^\top \end{split}$$

 $f \to \min_{x,y,z}$ Adaptivity or scaling

³Deriving Muon

General introduction







Neural network is a function, that takes an input x and current set of weights (parameters) w and predicts some vector as an output. Note, that a variety of feed-forward neural networks could be represented as a series of linear transformations, followed by some nonlinear function (say, ReLU (x) or sigmoid):

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$$\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w},x) = \sigma_L \circ w_L \circ \ldots \circ \sigma_1 \circ w_1 \circ x \qquad \mathbf{w} = (W_1,b_1,\ldots W_L,b_L) \,,$$



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where L is the number of layers, σ_i - non-linear activation function, $w_i = W_i x + b_i$ - linear layer.

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$$L(\mathbf{w}, X, y) \rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}} \qquad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} l(\mathbf{w}, x_i, y_i) \rightarrow \min_{\mathbf{w}}$$

Loss functions

In the context of training neural networks, the loss function, denoted by $l(\mathbf{w}, x_i, y_i)$, measures the discrepancy between the predicted output $\mathcal{NN}(\mathbf{w}, x_i)$ and the true output y_i . The choice of the loss function can significantly influence the training process. Common loss functions include:

Mean Squared Error (MSE)

Used primarily for regression tasks. It computes the square of the difference between predicted and true values, averaged over all samples.

$$\mathsf{MSE}(\mathbf{w}, X, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathcal{NN}(\mathbf{w}, x_i) - y_i)^2$$

Cross-Entropy Loss

Typically used for classification tasks. It measures the dissimilarity between the true label distribution and the predictions, providing a probabilistic interpretation of classification.

$$\mathsf{Cross-Entropy}(\mathbf{w}, X, y) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{C} y_{i,c} \log(\mathcal{NN}(\mathbf{w}, x_i)_c)$$

where $y_{i,c}$ is a binary indicator (0 or 1) if class label c is the correct classification for observation i, and C is the number of classes.

Simple example: Fashion MNIST classification problem











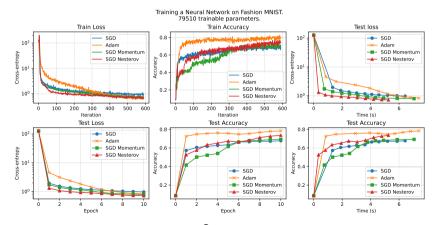
















GPT-2 training Memory footprint



3 GB Fragmentation Overhead (Variable) 6 GB Temporary Buffers (fp32) 8 GB Activations (with checkpointing) 6 GB Optimizer States (fp32 Variance) 6 GB Optimizer States (fp32 Momentum 6 GB Optimizer States (fp32 Parameters) 3 GB Gradients (fp16) 3 GB Parameters (fp16)

Example: 1.5B parameter GPT-2 model needs 3GB for weights in 16-bit precision but can't be trained on a 32GB GPU using Tensorflow or PyTorch. Major memory usage during training includes optimizer states, gradients, parameters, activations, temporary buffers, and fragmented memory.

Model States:

 Optimizer states (e.g., Adam) require memory for time-averaged momentum and gradient variance.

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Residual Memory Consumption:

 Activations: Significant memory usage, e.g., 1.5B parameter GPT-2 model with sequence length 1K and batch size 32 requires ~60GB.





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- Activation checkpointing can reduce activation memory by about 50%, with a 33% recomputation overhead.



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- In some cases, over 30% of memory remains unusable due to fragmentation.

