

Advanced LLM Optimizers

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Recall: Memory Consumption in LLM Training

➤ Memory = **Model + Gradient + Optimizer States** + **Activation**

➤ Adam's Cost:

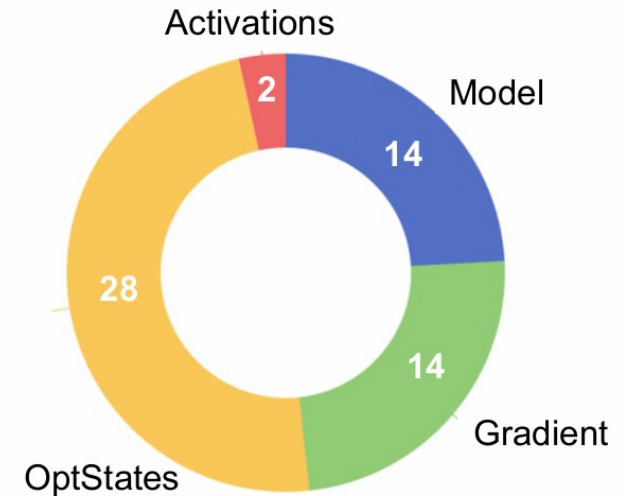
Model Parameter – Φ

Gradient - Φ

Optimizer States (First & Second moment) - 2Φ

➤ Consequence:

The 7B-pretrained model(BF16) requires 28GB of Adam optimizer states.



Goal: Decrease optimizer states while maintaining performance

Start with Adam: Destructing Adam's Redundancy

➤ Adam Update Rule:

$$W_{t+1} = W_t - \eta \frac{M_t}{\sqrt{V_t} + \epsilon}$$

where $W_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is weight matrix, $M_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is **momentum**,

$V_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is second moment as **adaptive learning rate (Preconditioning)**

➤ Question:

1. Is it necessary to maintain an **adaptive learning rate** for each components in W_t ?
2. If not, how should the **adaptability**(V_t) be arranged?

Adafactor: Adaptive Learning Rates with Sublinear Memory Cost

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➤ Assumption:

$V_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is **low-rank**, i.e. $V_t \approx R_t \cdot C_t$,

where $R_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$, $C_t \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$

➤ Motivation:

Decrease the memory of optimizer states by **storing R_t & C_t instead of V_t**

➤ Memory Saving Results:

$O(mn) \rightarrow O(m+n)$

Adafactor: How to derive rank-1 factorization?

- Objective: Minimize **Generalized KL-Divergence** (I-Divergence)

$$D(V \parallel RC) = \sum_{i,j} \left(V_{ij} \log \frac{V_{ij}}{R_i C_j} - V_{ij} + R_i C_j \right)$$

- Constraints:

$$R_i \geq 0, C_j \geq 0$$

Theorem

The solution set of the optimization problem (minimizing l -divergence) when consists of all feasible pairs (R, S) satisfying:

$$RC = \frac{V1_m1_n^\top V}{1_n^\top V1_m}$$

where $1_\ell = (1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ denotes a column vector of ℓ ones.

➤ Solution (Closed-form):

$$R = V \cdot 1_m, \quad C = \frac{1_n^\top \cdot V}{1_n^\top \cdot V \cdot 1_m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} D(V||RC) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left(V_{ij} \log \frac{V_{ij}}{R_i C_j} - V_{ij} + R_i C_j \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij} \log V_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij} \log R_i \\ &\quad - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij} \log C_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m R_i C_j \end{aligned}$$

Setting the derivatives with respect to R_i and C_j to 0:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial R_i} = - \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{V_{ij}}{R_i} + \sum_{j=1}^m C_j = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^m C_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial C_j} = - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{V_{ij}}{C_j} + \sum_{i=1}^n R_i = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad C_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n V_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^n R_i}$$

The solution has a scaling symmetry $(\alpha R, C/\alpha)$. We break this symmetry by enforcing the constraint $\sum_i R_i = \sum_{i,j} V_{ij}$.

This leads to the **canonical minimizer**:

$$R_i = \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij}, \quad C_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n V_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m V_{ij}}$$

In vector notation:

$$R = V1_m, \quad C = \frac{1_n^\top V}{1_n^\top V 1_m}$$

Thus, the product RS is unique:

$$RC = V1_m \left(\frac{1_n^\top V}{1_n^\top V 1_m} \right) = \frac{V1_m 1_n^\top V}{1_n^\top V 1_m} \quad \square$$

Adafactor: Removing Momentum

- Motivation: Further save the memory of momentum – Φ
- Pseudo-code:

Algorithm 2 Adam for a matrix parameter X with factored second moments and first moment decay parameter $\beta_1 = 0$.

- 1: **Inputs:** initial point $X_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, step sizes $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^T$, second moment decay β_2 , regularization constant ϵ
 - 2: Initialize $R_0 = 0$ and $C_0 = 0$
 - 3: **for** $t = 1$ **to** T **do**
 - 4: $G_t = \nabla f_t(X_{t-1})$
 - 5: $R_t = \beta_2 R_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2)(G_t^2)1_m$
 - 6: $C_t = \beta_2 C_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2)1_n^\top (G_t^2)$
 - 7: $\hat{V}_t = (R_t C_t / 1_n^\top R_t) / (1 - \beta_2^t)$
 - 8: $X_t = X_{t-1} - \alpha_t G_t / (\sqrt{\hat{V}_t} + \epsilon)$ \rightarrow
 - 9: **end for**
-

Rank-1 Factorization of V_t

Discard Momentum

➤ Pros:

Less memory usage of optimizer state: $2mn (M_t + V_t) \rightarrow m+n (R_t + C_t)$

➤ Cons:

Approximation Error: V_t is not always of rank 1 \rightarrow Slow convergence

Throughput Cost: Factorize V_t and compute RMS increase **computation cost**

➤ Result:

In order to achieve better performance, momentum M_t is **re-introduced** to the actual use of Adafactor, sacrificing memory to gain faster convergence speed.

ADAM-MINI: USE FEWER LEARNING RATES TO GAIN MORE

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Adam-mini: Start from Pre-conditioning Perspective

➤ Critique of Adafactor:

It assumes V_t is rank-1. The assumption lacks **observation** to support.

→ Need to investigate NN's **structure**!

➤ View Adam as Pre-conditioning method:

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \eta_t D_t m_t$$

where $D_t = \text{Diag}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{v_t}}\right)$ is the pre-conditioning matrix

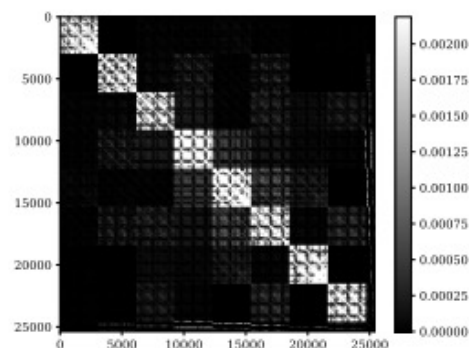
The ideal pre-conditioning matrix is Hessian's inverse H^{-1}

Need to inspect NN's Hessian structure!

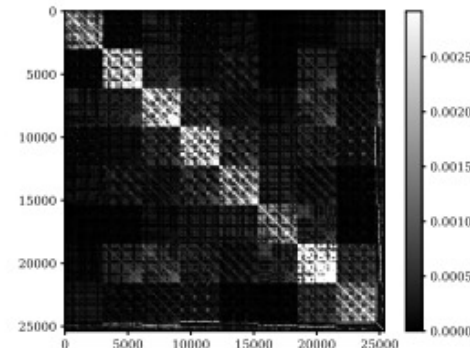
Adam-mini: Hessian is near-block-diagonal



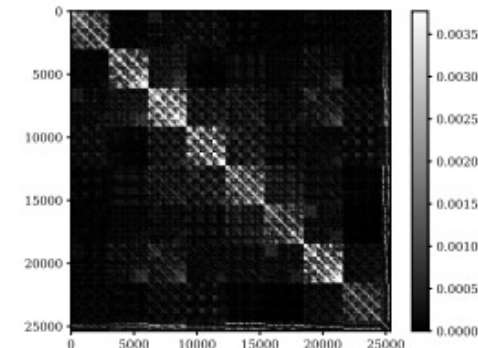
(a) Hessian of a MLP
(Collobert, 2004)



(b) Hessian of a MLP
at initialization



(c) Hessian of a MLP
at 50% step



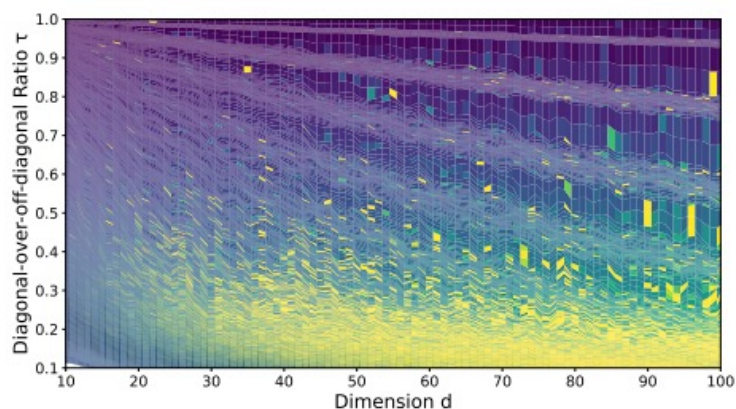
(d) Hessian of a MLP
at 100% step

Figure 3: The near-block-diagonal Hessian structure of neural nets. (a) is the Hessian of an MLP after 1 training step reported in (Collobert, 2004). (b,c,d): the Hessians of a 1-hidden-layer MLP on CIFAR-100. The near-block-diagonal structure maintains throughout training, where each block corresponds to one neuron.

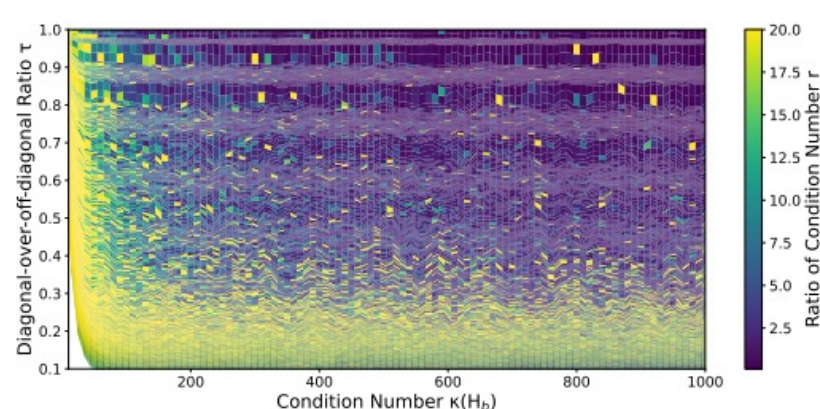
Adam-mini: How is Adam's pre-conditioning effect?

$\tau = \frac{\sum_i |H_{b,i,i}|}{\sum_{i,j} |H_{b,i,j}|}$: the degree of dominance of diagonal elements

$r = \frac{\kappa(D_{Adam}H_b)}{\kappa(H_b)}$: the pre-conditioning effect of Adam



(a) r v.s. dimension d



(b) r v.s. dimension $\kappa(H_b)$

Figure 5: The effectiveness of Adam's preconditioner D_{Adam} on different matrix structures of H_b . (a): for most dimension d , r is large when τ is small (r and τ are defined in Eq. (2)). This indicates that Adam might not be so effective when H_b is dense. We fix $\kappa(H_b) = 500$ here. (b): We use the same setups as (a), except that we fix the dimension $d = 50$ and change the x -axis to $\kappa(H_b)$.

Adam-mini: Case study of Adam's pre-conditioning effect

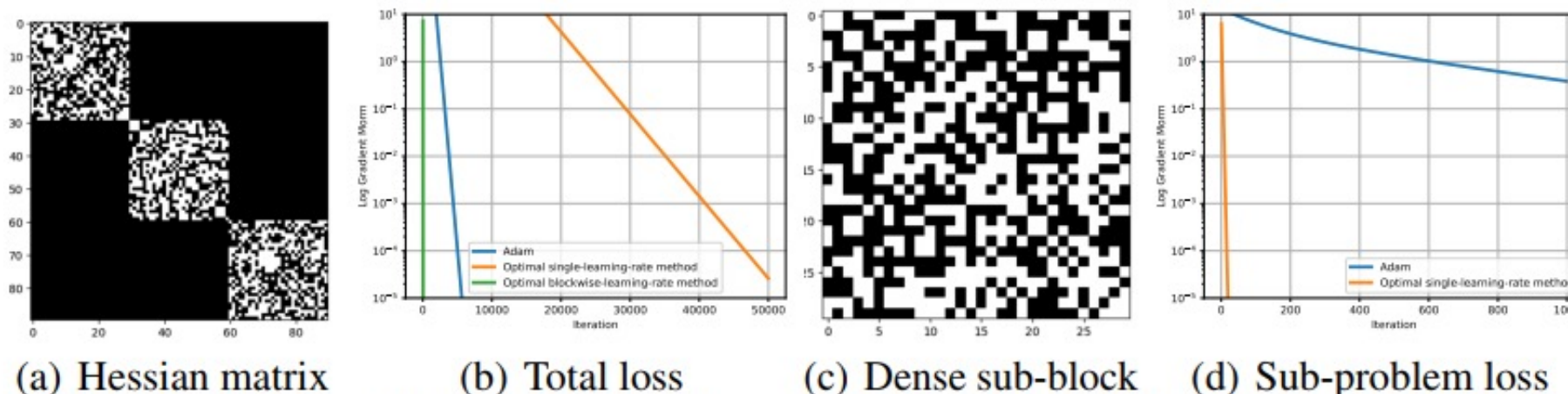


Figure 4: **(a)**: The Hessian of a three-block random quadratic problem. **(b)**: Training curves for the problem associated with the full Hessian in (a). The optimal single (blockwise) learning rate is chosen based on the full (blockwise) Hessian in (a). **(c)**: The 1st dense Hessian sub-blocks in (a). **(d)**: Training curves for the new problem associated with the Hessian in (c).

Conclusion:

- For **dense Hessian case**, Adam is far inferior to **optimal single-learning-rate**.
- For block-diagonal Hessian case, Adam surpasses optimal single-learning-rate

➤ (Recall) Question:

1. Is it necessary to maintain an adaptive learning rate for each components in W_t ?
2. If not, how should the adaptability(V_t) be arranged?

➤ For Q1:

Under **near-block-diagonal Hessian structure**, Adam's maintaining an adaptive learning rate(V_t) for each components in W_t involves **redundancy**.

➤ For Q2:

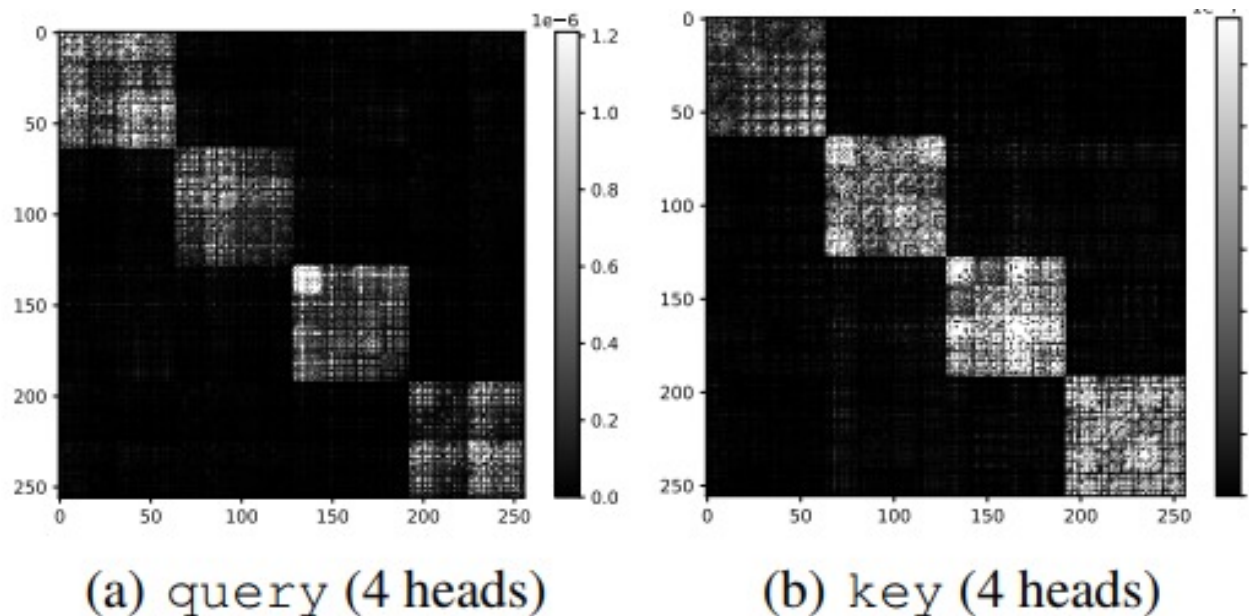
For **each dense sub-block of Hessian**, carefully chosed **single learning rate** is good enough.

Adam-mini: Hessian based Transformer Partition Strategy

Use Hessian information to partition variables into groups:

➤ Query/Key: Head-wise

Weight components in the same head as a block.

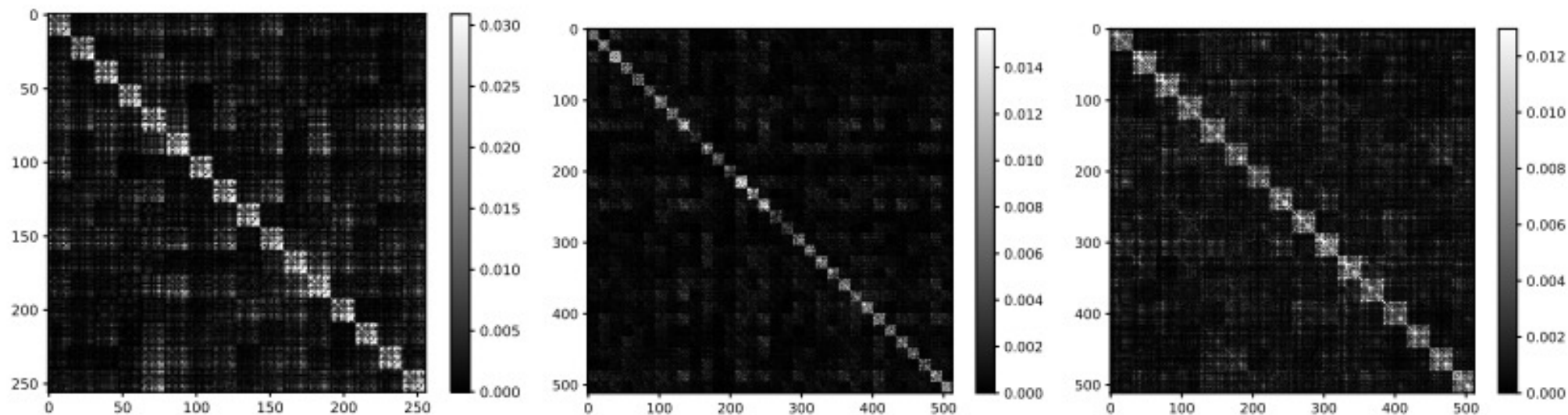


Adam-mini: Hessian based Transformer Partition Strategy

Use Hessian information to partition variables into groups:

➤ **attn.proj/MLP: Neuron-wise**

Weight components in the same row as a block



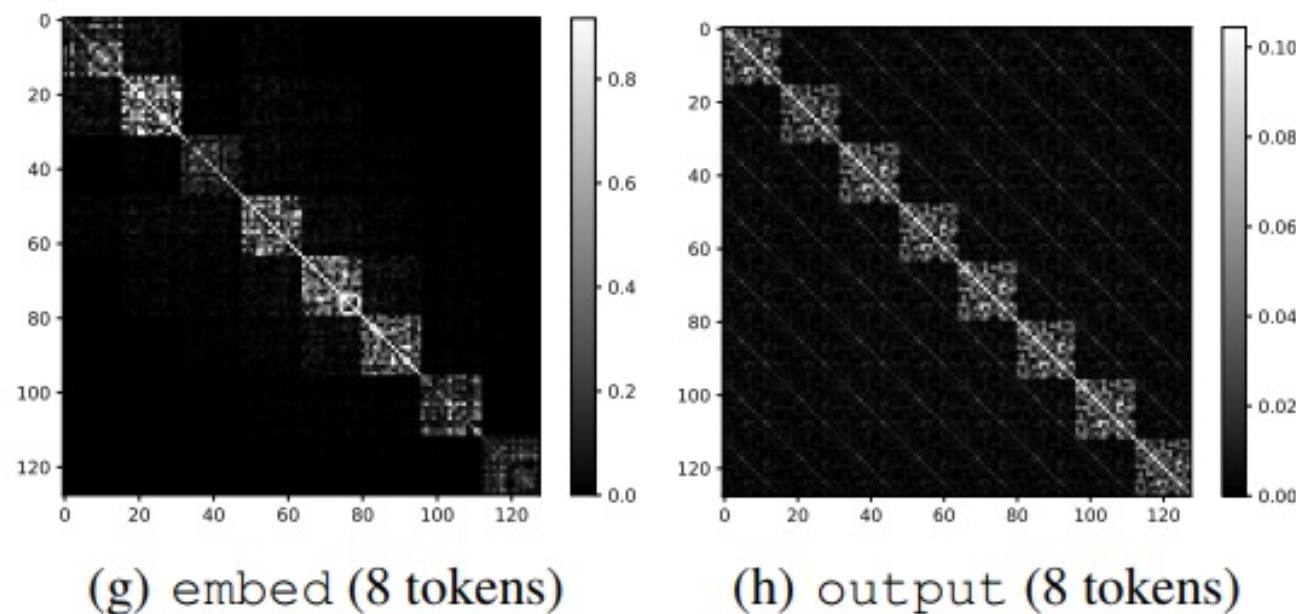
(d) `attn.proj` (16 neurons) (e) `mlp.fc_1` (32 neurons) (f) `mlp.proj` (16 neurons)

Adam-mini: Hessian based Transformer Partition Strategy

Use Hessian information to partition variables into groups:

➤ Embedding/Output: Token-wise

Embedding – Each word vector as a block



Adam-mini: How to set learning rate?

- For Adam: $u_{\text{Adam}} = \left(\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_1}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_2}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_3}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_4}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{v_5}} \right)$.

- For Adam-mini: suppose the partition is (1, 2, 3) and (4, 5) then

$$u_{\text{mini}} = \left(\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(v_1+v_2+v_3)/3}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(v_1+v_2+v_3)/3}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(v_1+v_2+v_3)/3}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(v_4+v_5)/2}}, \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(v_4+v_5)/2}} \right).$$

➤ Why $\text{lr} = \text{mean}(g \odot g)$?

1. Convenience

2. Best among common statistics

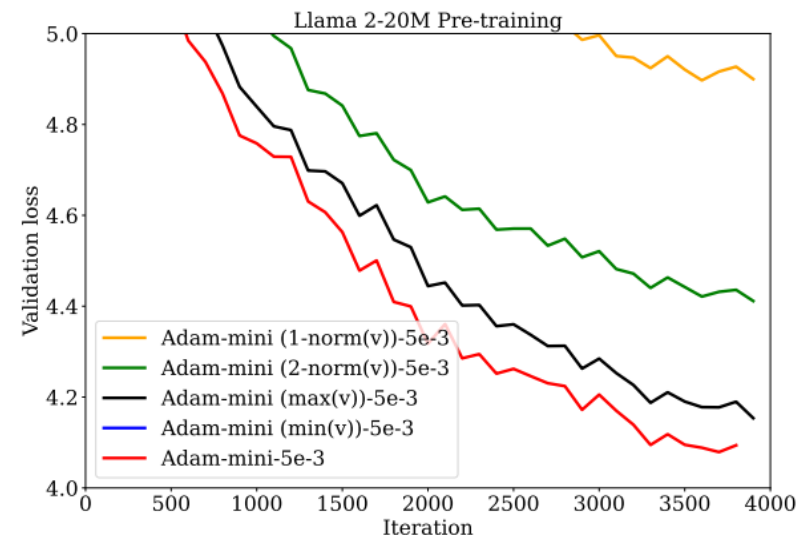


Figure 15: Ablation studies on the design of Adam-mini. We find that $\text{mean}(v)$ performs better than other candidates. The blue curve does not show because the algorithm diverges and the curve is out of range.

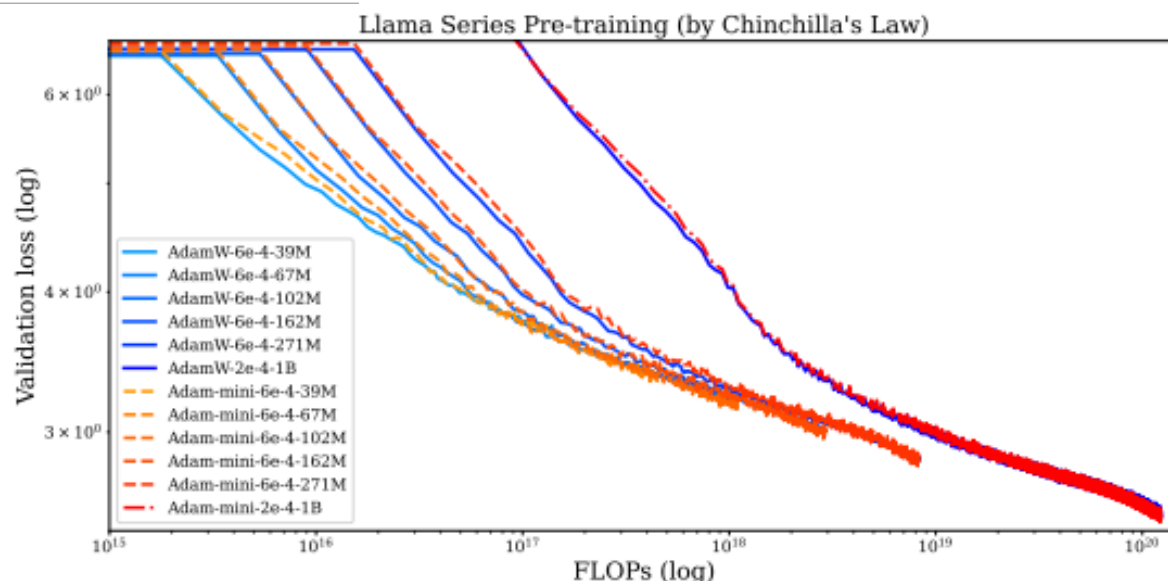
Algorithm 1 Adam-mini (General form)

```
1: Input weight-decay coefficient  $\lambda$  and  
   current step  $t$   
2: Partition params into param_blocks  
   by Principle 1 in Section 2.3  
3: for param in param_blocks do  
4:    $g = \text{param.grad}$   
5:    $\text{param} = \text{param} - \eta_t * \lambda * \text{param}$   
6:    $m = (1 - \beta_1) * g + \beta_1 * m$   
7:    $\hat{m} = \frac{m}{1 - \beta_1^t}$   
8:    $v = (1 - \beta_2) * \text{mean}(g \odot g) + \beta_2 * v$   
9:    $\hat{v} = \frac{v}{1 - \beta_2^t}$   
10:   $\text{param} = \text{param} - \eta_t * \frac{\hat{m}}{\sqrt{\hat{v} + \epsilon}}$   
11: end for
```

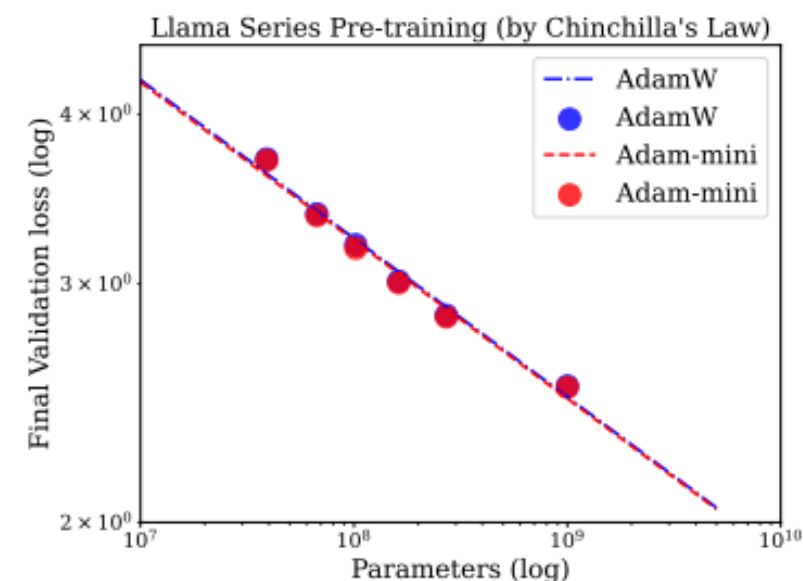
**Partition blocks
based on Hessian**

Single lr for a sub-block

Evaluation: Scaling Law



(a) Scaling laws in terms of compute



(b) Scaling laws in terms of parameters

Figure 11: (a, b): Scaling laws of Adam-mini. We pre-train Llama 2 architectures by Chinchilla's law. For all models sized from 39M to 1B, Adam-mini's loss curves are consistently similar to AdamW, but Adam-mini uses 50% less memory. Further, as shown in (b), Adam-mini reaches a lower final loss than AdamW for all models. The fitted lines in (b) suggest that Adam-mini can be scaled up to larger models (if the scaling law holds).

Adam-mini's loss curves closely resembles AdamW's

Adam-mini performs well using the same hyperparameter as AdamW

Evaluation: Memory & Throughput

Table 1: Memory cost of AdamW v.s. Adam-mini. Calculation is based on `float32`, which is a standard choice for optimizer states.

Model	Optimizer	Memory (GB)
GPT-2-1.5B	AdamW	12.48
GPT-2-1.5B	Adam-mini	6.24 (50% ↓)
Llama 2-1B	AdamW	8.80
Llama 2-1B	Adam-mini	4.40 (50% ↓)
Llama 2-7B	AdamW	53.92
Llama 2-7B	Adam-mini	26.96 (50% ↓)
Llama 3-8B	AdamW	64.24
Llama 3-8B	Adam-mini	32.12 (50% ↓)
Llama 2-13B	AdamW	104.16
Llama 2-13B	Adam-mini	52.08 (50% ↓)

Table 2: Throughput (↑) test on $2 \times$ A800-80GB GPUs for Llama 2-7B pre-training. **X** means out of memory. GPU hours (↓) to pre-train Llama 2-7B with the optimal token amount by Chinchila's law.

Optimizer	bs_per_GPU	total_bs	Throughput (↑)
Adam-mini	4	256	5572.19 (↑ 49.6%)
AdamW	2	256	X
AdamW	1	256	3725.59

Optimizer	# Tokens (B)	GPU hours (h) (↓)
AdamW	1	74.56
Adam-mini	1	49.85 (↓ 33.1%)
AdamW	70	5219.16
Adam-mini	70	3489.55 (↓ 33.1%)
AdamW	140	10438.32
Adam-mini	140	6979.10 (↓ 33.1%)

Compared to AdamW, Adam-mini saves 50% memory, has 49.6% higher throughput.

Efficiency:

- **Memory:** Less memory usage of optimizer state: $2mn (M_t + V_t) \rightarrow mn (M_t)$
- **Hyperparameter:** Performs well using the same hyperparameter as AdamW
- **Computation:** Substitute vector operations like *sqrt* & *div* by scalar operation

- Non-constrained Optimization Problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x})$$

- Taylor's Formula:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{p}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^\top \mathbf{p} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{p}^\top \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}_k) \mathbf{p}$$

- Update Vector:

$$\mathbf{p}_k^{\text{Newton}} = -\mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

Second-order Methods

- Advantage of Second-order Methods: Curvature Calibration

Eigen Value Decomposition:

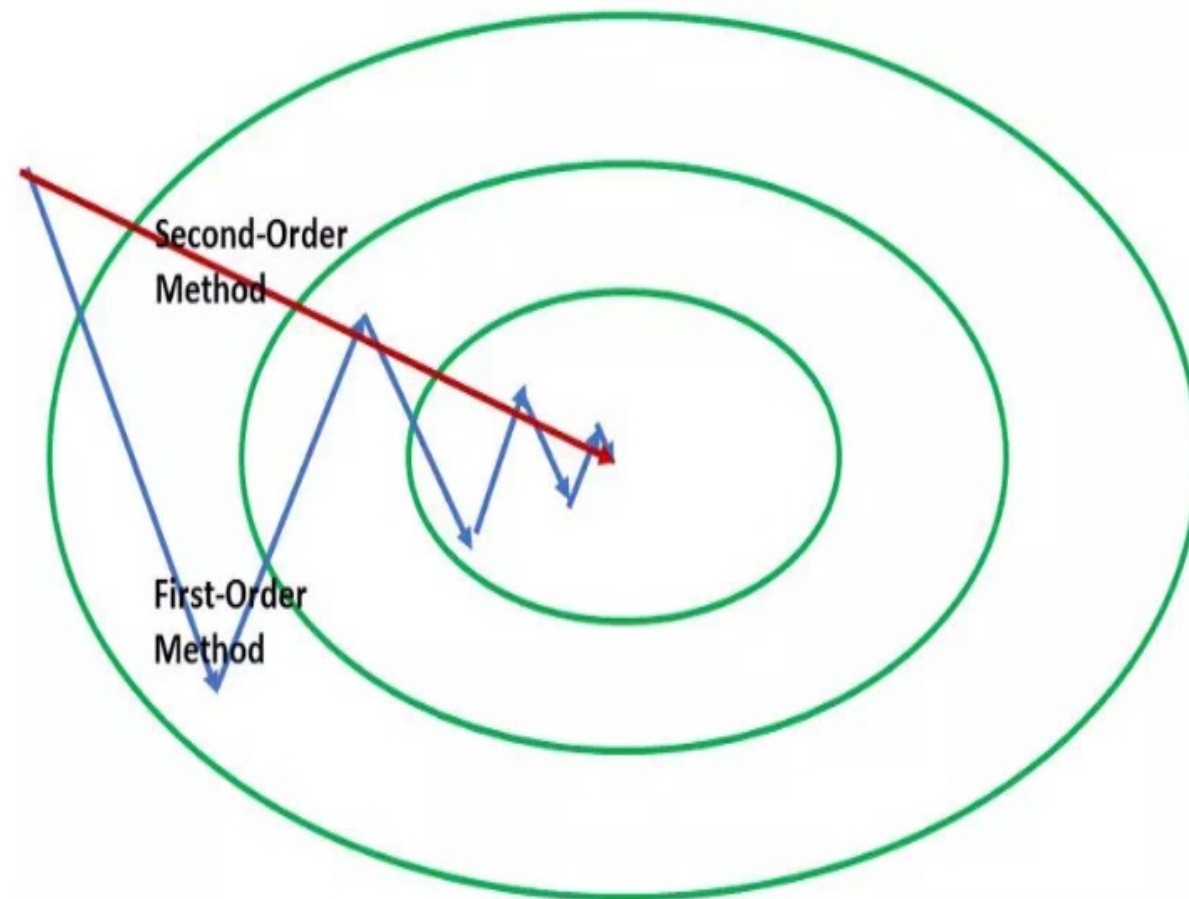
$$\mathbf{H}_k = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}^\top$$

Then we have:

$$\mathbf{p}_k^{\text{Newton}} = -\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}^\top \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

In the Eigenspace:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{p}} = -\mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \tilde{\nabla} f$$



- However, it is always hard to get Hessian Matrix
- For Weight matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the Hessian Matrix is:

$$H \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times mn}$$

Computational complexity for H^{-1} : $O(m^3 n^3)$

- For LLM with 1B parameters, the memory cost for Hessian Matrix is:

$$10^{18} \text{ elements} \times 8 \text{ bytes/element} = 8 \times 10^{18} \text{ bytes} = 10^6 \text{ TB}$$

The computational complexity for H^{-1} is: 10^{27} FLOP

- Can we decompose the Hessian Matrix?
- Kronecker Product: Given two matrices: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$,

The **Kronecker product** of A and B , denoted $A \otimes B$, is defined as the block matrix:

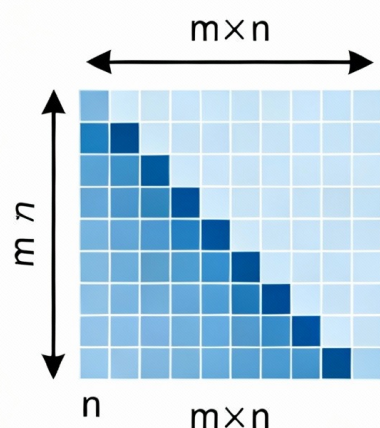
$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B & \cdots & a_{1n}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B & \cdots & a_{2n}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}B & a_{m2}B & \cdots & a_{mn}B \end{bmatrix}$$

The resulting matrix $A \otimes B$ has dimensions $(mp) \times (nq)$.

- Motivation: Exploits the structure of the parameter space

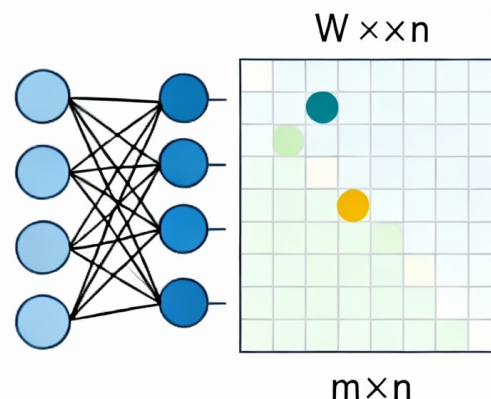
Parameter Space Structures in Machine Learning

Multiclass Problem



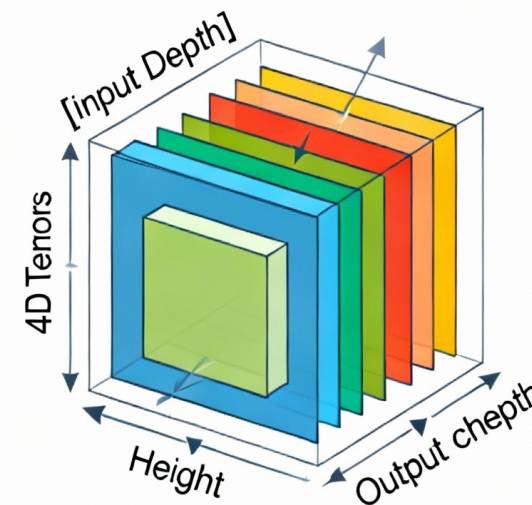
● features ● classes

Fully-connected Neural Network Layer



● weight ● parameter

Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)



Memory Cost

Computational Cost

➤ Vector-form Second-order Method:

$$\mathbf{W}_t = \mathbf{W}_{t-1} - \eta_t \mathbf{H}_t^{-1} \mathbf{G}_t$$

$$O(m^2 n^2)$$

$$O(m^3 n^3)$$

➤ Shampoo:

$$\mathbf{L}_t = \beta \mathbf{L}_{t-1} + \mathbf{G}_t \mathbf{G}_t^\top$$

$$O(m^2)$$

$$O(m^2 n)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_t = \beta \mathbf{R}_{t-1} + \mathbf{G}_t^\top \mathbf{G}_t$$

$$O(n^2)$$

$$O(mn^2)$$

$$\mathbf{W}_t = \mathbf{W}_{t-1} - \eta_t \mathbf{L}_t^{-1/4} \mathbf{G}_t \mathbf{R}_t^{-1/4}$$

$$O(mn)$$

$$O(m^3 + n^3 + m^2 n + mn^2)$$

$$F \approx \mathbb{E}[gg^T]$$



$$g = \text{vec}(G) \in \mathbb{R}^{mn}$$



$$F = \mathbb{E}[gg^T] = \mathbb{E}[\text{vec}(G) \text{vec}(G)^T]$$

$$G = \delta x^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$



利用kronecker乘积的性质

$$F = \mathbb{E}[\text{vec}(G) \text{vec}(G)^T] = \mathbb{E}[(xx^T) \otimes (\delta\delta^T)]$$



认为输入 x 和误差信号 δ 的联合统计可以近似为“独立”

$$F \approx \mathbb{E}[xx^T] \otimes \mathbb{E}[\delta\delta^T]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[GG^T] = \mathbb{E}[\|x\|^2 \delta \delta^T] \quad \mathbb{E}[G^T G] = \mathbb{E}[\|\delta\|^2 x x^T]$$



$\|x\|^2$ 、 $\|\delta\|^2$ 与方向统计可以分离

$$L_t = \beta L_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) G_t G_t^T$$

$$R_t = \beta R_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) G_t^T G_t$$

$$(L \otimes R)^{-1} = L^{-1} \otimes R^{-1}$$

$$\text{vec}(AXB^T) = (B \otimes A) \text{vec}(X)$$



$$H^{-1} \text{vec}(G) = (L \otimes R)^{-1} \text{vec}(G) = \text{vec}(L^{-1}GR^{-1})$$



$$\text{Update Matrix} = L^{-1} \cdot G \cdot R^{-1}$$

➤ Algorithm in matrix case & tensor case

Algorithm 1 Shampoo, matrix case.

Initialize $W_1 = \mathbf{0}_{m \times n}$; $L_0 = \epsilon I_m$; $R_0 = \epsilon I_n$

for $t = 1, \dots, T$ **do**:

Receive loss function $f_t : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

Compute gradient $G_t = \nabla f_t(W_t)$ // $G_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

Update preconditioners:

$$L_t = L_{t-1} + G_t G_t^\top$$

$$R_t = R_{t-1} + G_t^\top G_t$$

Update parameters:

$$W_{t+1} = W_t - \eta L_t^{-1/4} G_t R_t^{-1/4}$$

Algorithm 2 Shampoo, general tensor case.

Initialize: $W_1 = \mathbf{0}_{n_1 \times \dots \times n_k}$; $\forall i \in [k] : H_0^i = \epsilon I_{n_i}$

for $t = 1, \dots, T$ **do**:

Receive loss function $f_t : \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_k} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

Compute $G_t = \nabla f_t(W_t)$ // $G_t \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_k}$

$\tilde{G}_t \leftarrow G_t$ // \tilde{G}_t is preconditioned gradient

for $i = 1, \dots, k$ **do**:

$$H_t^i = H_{t-1}^i + G_t^{(i)}$$

$$\tilde{G}_t \leftarrow \tilde{G}_t \times_i (H_t^i)^{-1/2k}$$

Update: $W_{t+1} = W_t - \eta \tilde{G}_t$

➤ Experiment Results

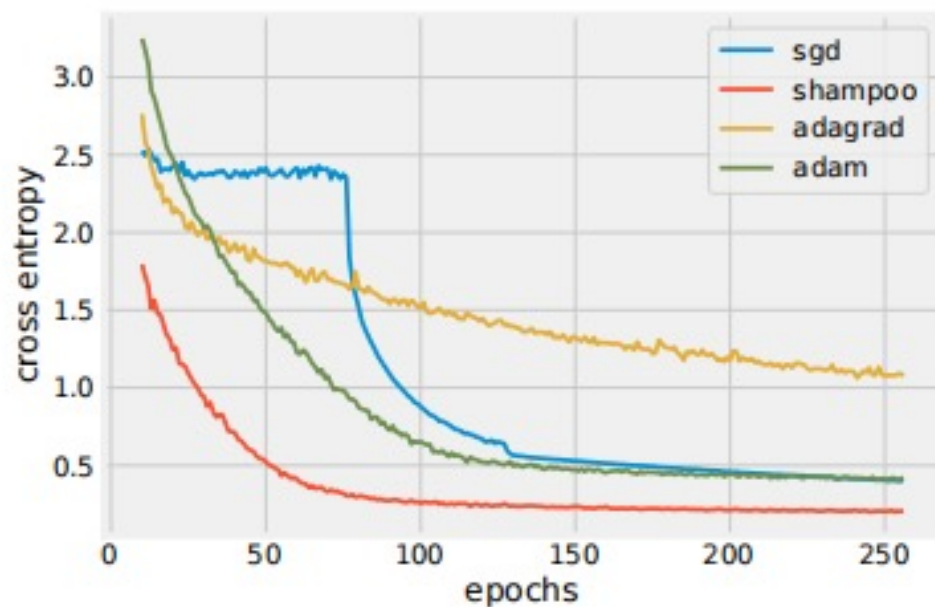


Figure 3. Convergence of training loss for a 55-layer ResNet on CIFAR-100.

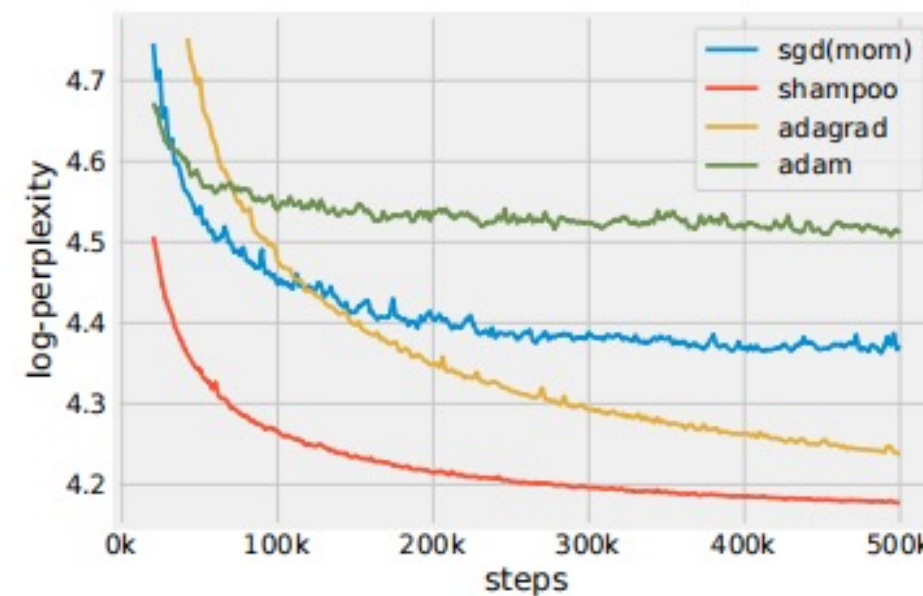


Figure 4. Convergence of test loss for the Transformer model for machine translation (Vaswani et al., 2017) on LM1B.

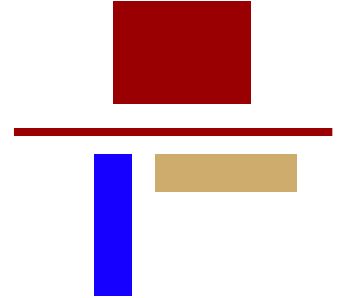
- Eigen Decomposition:

$$L = Q_L \Lambda_L Q_L^T$$

$$\text{Update} = Q_L (\Lambda_L^{-1/4} \underbrace{Q_L^T G Q_R}_{\text{旋转后的梯度 } G'} \Lambda_R^{-1/4}) Q_R^T$$



$$\Lambda_L^{-1/4} \cdot G' \cdot \Lambda_R^{-1/4} = \frac{G'}{\text{diag}\left(\Lambda_L^{\frac{1}{4}}\right) \text{diag}\left(\Lambda_R^{\frac{1}{4}}\right)^T}$$



- Observation: The variant of Shampoo is equivalent to running Adafactor in the eigenbasis provided by Shampoo's preconditioner

Algorithm 1 Single step of idealized Shampoo with power $1/2$.

- 1: Sample batch B_t .
 - 2: $G_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \leftarrow -\nabla_W \phi_{B_t}(W_t)$
 - 3: $L \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_B[G_B G_B^T]$ {Where the expectation is over a random batch B .}
 - 4: $R \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_B[G_B^T G_B]$
 - 5: $\hat{H} \leftarrow L \otimes R / \text{Trace}(L)$
 - 6: $W_t \leftarrow W_{t-1} - \eta \hat{H}^{-1/2} G_t = W_{t-1} - \eta L^{-1/2} G_t R^{-1/2} / \text{Trace}(L)^{-1/2}$
-

Algorithm 2 Single step of idealized Adafactor in Shampoo's eigenspace.

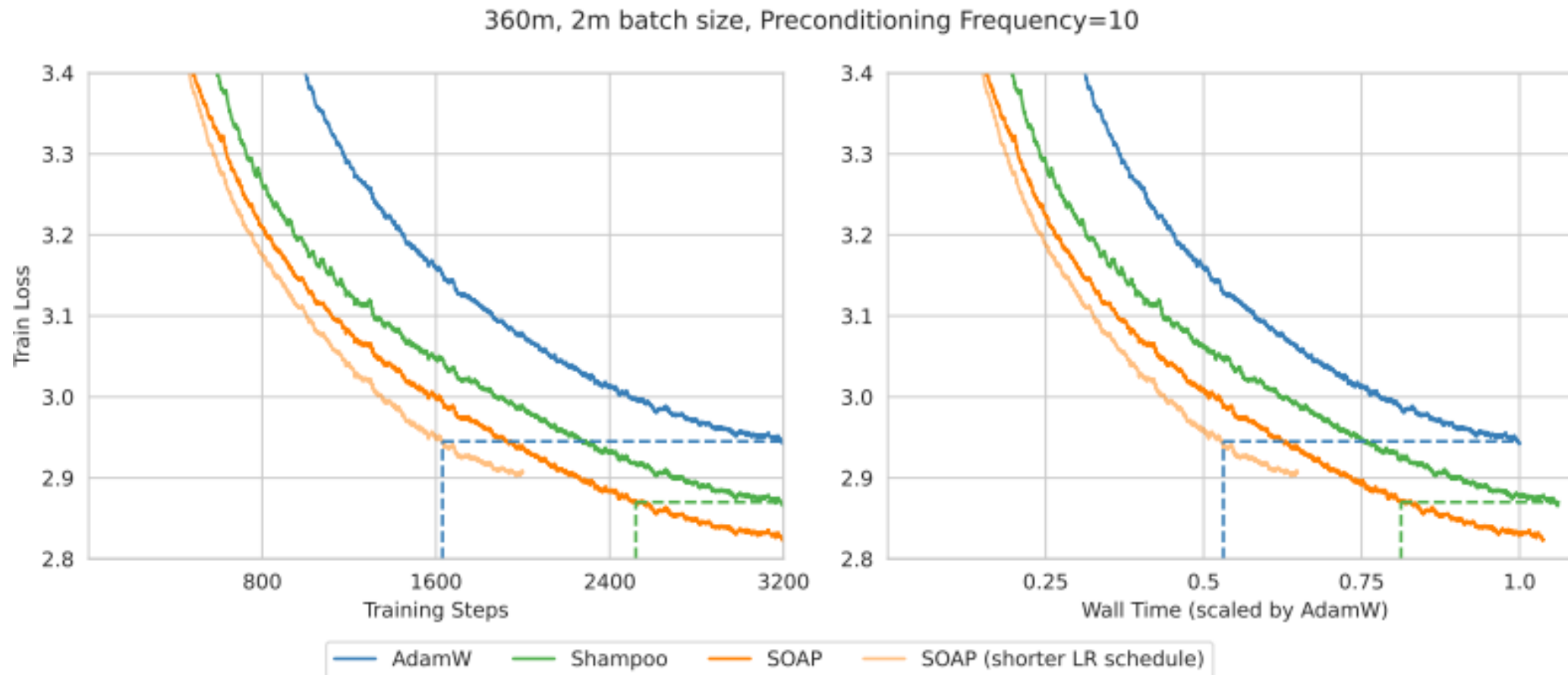
- 1: Sample batch B_t .
 - 2: $G_t \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \leftarrow -\nabla_W \phi_{B_t}(W_t)$
 - 3: $L \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_B[G_B G_B^T]$
 - 4: $R \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_B[G_B^T G_B]$
 - 5: $Q_L \leftarrow \text{Eigenvectors}(L)$
 - 6: $Q_R \leftarrow \text{Eigenvectors}(R)$
 - 7: $G'_t \leftarrow Q_L^T G_t Q_R$
 - 8: {Idealized version of code for Adafactor taking G'_t to be the gradient}
 - 9: $G'_B \leftarrow Q_L^T G_B Q_R$
 - 10: $A = \mathbb{E}_B[G'_B \odot G'_B] \mathbf{1}_m$ where $G'_B = Q_L^T G_B Q_R$
 - 11: $C = \mathbf{1}_n^T \mathbb{E}_B[G'_B \odot G'_B]$
 - 12: $\hat{V}_t = \frac{AC^T}{\mathbf{1}_n^T A}$ {Elementwise division}
 - 13: $G''_t \leftarrow \frac{G'_t}{\sqrt{\hat{V}_t + \epsilon}}$ {Elementwise division and square root}
 - 14: $G'''_t \leftarrow Q_L G''_t Q_R^T$ {Projecting back to original space}
 - 15: $W_t \leftarrow W_{t-1} - \eta G'''_t$
-

- Inspiration: a broader design space for combining first and second order methods——running a first-order method in the eigenbasis provided by a second-order method

Algorithm 3 Single step of SOAP for a $m \times n$ layer. Per layer, we maintain four matrices: $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $V, M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. For simplicity we ignore the initialization and other boundary effects such as bias correction. Hyperparameters: Learning rate η , betas = (β_1, β_2) , epsilon ϵ , and preconditioning frequency f . An implementation of SOAP is available at <https://github.com/nikhilvyas/SOAP/tree/main>.

```
1: Sample batch  $B_t$ .
2:  $G \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \leftarrow -\nabla_W \phi_{B_t}(W_t)$ 
3:  $G' \leftarrow Q_L^T G Q_R$ 
4:  $M \leftarrow \beta_1 M + (1 - \beta_1) G$ 
5:  $M' \leftarrow Q_L^T M Q_R$ 
6: {Now we “run” Adam on  $G'$ }
7:  $V \leftarrow \beta_2 V + (1 - \beta_2)(G' \odot G')$  {Elementwise multiplication}
8:  $N' \leftarrow \frac{M'}{\sqrt{\hat{V}_t + \epsilon}}$  {Elementwise division and square root}
9: {Now that we have preconditioned by Adam in the rotated space, we go back to the original space.}
10:  $N \leftarrow Q_L N' Q_R^T$ 
11:  $W \leftarrow W - \eta N$ 
12: {End of gradient step, we now update  $L$  and  $R$  and possibly also  $Q_L$  and  $Q_R$ . }
13:  $L \leftarrow \beta_2 L + (1 - \beta_2) G G^T$ 
14:  $R \leftarrow \beta_2 R + (1 - \beta_2) G^T G$ 
15: if  $t \% f == 0$  then
16:    $Q_L \leftarrow \text{Eigenvectors}(L, Q_L)$ 
17:    $Q_R \leftarrow \text{Eigenvectors}(R, Q_R)$ 
18: end if
```

- Better robustness, Faster training



Muon: An Orthogonalization-Based Optimizer for Deep Networks

Keller Jordan

Motivation: Limitations of Standard Optimizers

- **Standard view:** parameters in deep learning are a **long vector**; we use SGD/Adam/AdamW on this vector. But hidden layers are actually **matrices**.
- **Empirical issue:**
 - Gradients/updates often have **highly skewed singular values** → poor conditioning
 - Many directions updated very weakly → slow learning of rare / subtle patterns
- **Question:** can we design an optimizer that respects **matrix structure** and **improves conditioning**?

Muon Update Rules:

➤ Outline:

$$G_t \xrightarrow{\text{momentum}} M_t \xrightarrow{-\eta} U_t \xrightarrow{\text{NS-ortho}} Q_t \xrightarrow{+\alpha} W_{t+1}.$$

➤ Details:

Gradient: $G_t = \nabla_W L(W_t),$

Momentum: $M_t = \beta M_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) G_t,$

Raw update: $U_t = -\eta M_t,$

Orthogonalization: $Q_t = \text{Ortho}_{\text{NS}}(U_t),$

Parameter update: $W_{t+1} = W_t + \alpha Q_t.$

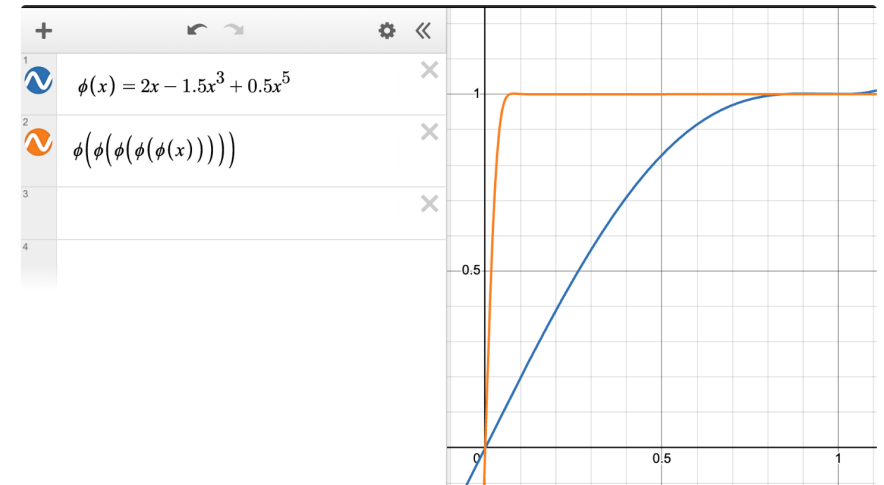
Orthogonalization via K-step Newton–Schulz:

- Newton–Schulz iteration performs a **fast** and **low-cost approximate orthogonalization** of the target matrix. (SVD for parameter matrix is expensive.)
- How it works:

Initialization: $U^{(0)} = \frac{U_t}{\|U_t\|_F},$

Iterations: $U^{(k+1)} = a U^{(k)} + b U^{(k)} U^{(k)\top} U^{(k)} + c (U^{(k)} U^{(k)\top})^2 U^{(k)},$
 $k = 0, \dots, K - 1,$

Output: $Q_t = U^{(K)} \approx \text{Ortho}_{\text{NS}}(U_t).$



- $(a,b,c)=(3.1415,4.7750,2.0315)$, $N=5$ for final Muon design.

Why is it good to orthogonalize the update?

➤ What does orthogonalization in Muon do:

Let $W_t \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be the weight matrix at time step t , and G_t be the gradient of the loss function with respect to W_t :

$$G_t = \nabla_W L(W_t)$$

The key idea is to apply an orthogonalization operator to U_t . The polar decomposition of a matrix G is given by:

$$G = QP$$

where Q is a semi-orthogonal matrix and P is a symmetric positive semidefinite matrix. The matrix Q is the nearest orthogonal matrix to G .

$$Q = \arg \min_{O: O^\top O = I} \|O - G\|_F$$

where O is any semi-orthogonal matrix. This is equivalent to:

$$Q = G(G^\top G)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Why is it good to orthogonalize the update?

➤ Properties of orthogonalization:

- Orthogonalization forces the **singular values** of \tilde{U}_t to be equal to 1, which improves the **conditioning** of the update.

$$\text{Singular values of } \tilde{U}_t : \quad \sigma_i(\tilde{U}_t) = 1 \quad \forall i$$

➤ Why is it good to orthogonalize the update?

- Updates produced by both SGD-momentum and Adam for the 2D parameters in transformer-based neural networks typically are almost **low-rank matrices**, with the updates for all neurons being dominated by just a few directions.
- Orthogonalization effectively increases the scale of other **“rare directions”** which have small magnitude in the update but are nevertheless **important for learning**.

➤ NS Iteration and Extra FLOPs:

- Before the NS iteration is applied, Muon is just a standard SGD-momentum optimizer, so it has the same memory requirement.
- For each $n \times m$ matrix parameter in the network, each step of the NS iteration requires $2(2nm^2 + m^3)$ matmul FLOPs.
- Therefore, the extra FLOPs required by Muon compared to SGD is at most $2T(2nm^2 + m^3)$, where T is the number of NS iterations (typically $T = 5$).

➤ Extra computation rate:

- If the parameter parametrizes a linear layer, then the baseline amount of FLOPs used to perform a training step (i.e., a forward and backward pass) is $6nmB$, where B is the batch size in tokens.
- Therefore, the FLOP overhead of Muon is at most Tm/B , where m is the model dimension, B is the batch size in tokens, and T is the number of NS iteration steps

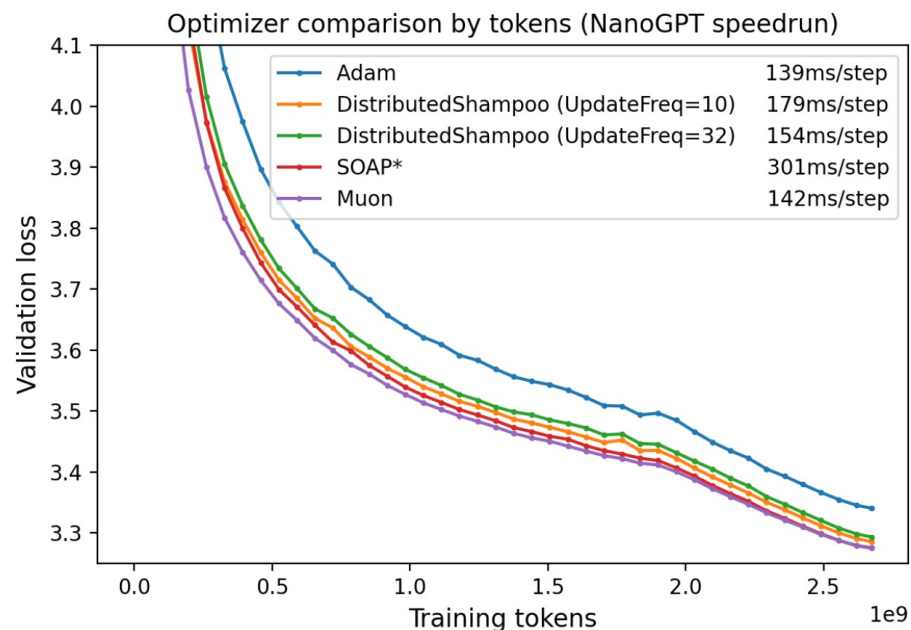
➤ NanoGPT overhead of using Muon:

- For the current NanoGPT speedrunning record, the model dimension is $m = 768$ and the number of tokens per batch is $B = 524288$.
- Therefore, the overhead of using Muon is $\frac{5 \times 768}{524288} = 0.7\%$.

➤ Llama 405B overhead of using Muon:

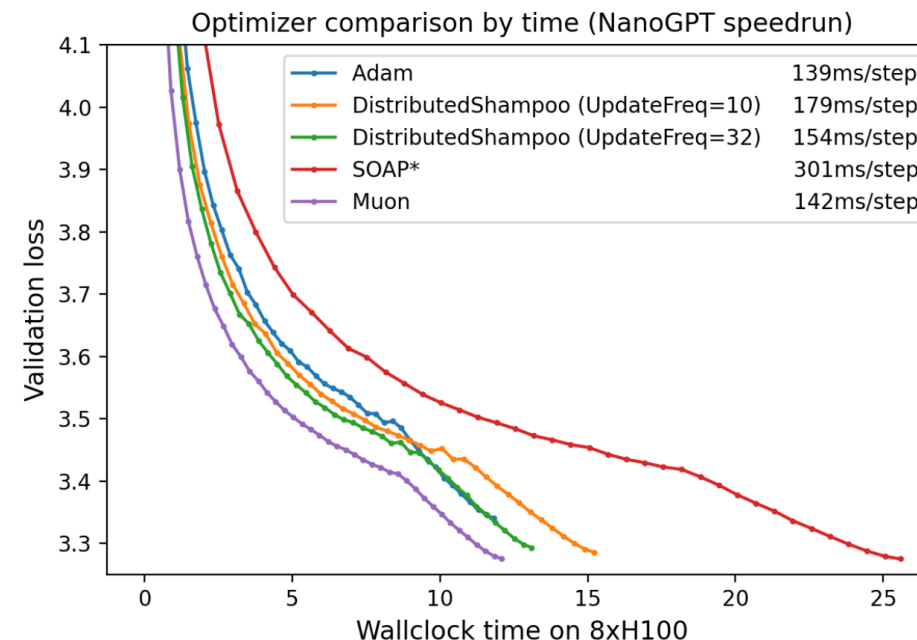
- For Llama 405B training, the model dimension is $m = 16384$ and the number of tokens per batch is reported to be $B = 16000000$.
- Therefore, the overhead of using Muon for this training would be $\frac{5 \times 16384}{16000000} = 0.5\%$.

Muon Empirical Results (Jordan)



*SOAP is under active development. Future versions will significantly improve the wallclock overhead.

Fig1: Improved the speed record for training to 3.28 val loss on FineWeb (a competitive task known as NanoGPT speedrunning) by a factor of **1.35x**.



*SOAP is under active development. Future versions will significantly improve the wallclock overhead.

Fig2: Optimizer comparison by wallclock time.

Muon Empirical Results (Kimi)

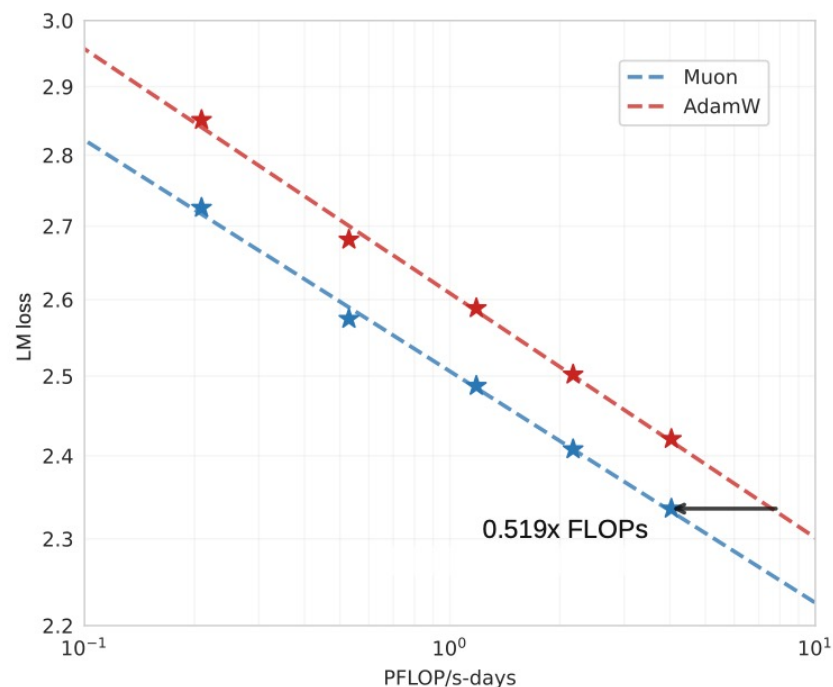


Fig1: Muon uses ~ 52% less computational cost (FLOPs) during training compared to Adam optimizer in **Llama architecture**.

Table 4: Comparison of different models at around 1.2T tokens.

Benchmark (Metric)	DSV3-Small	Moonlight-A@1.2T	Moonlight@1.2T
Activated Params [†]	2.24B	2.24B	2.24B
Total Params [†]	15.29B	15.29B	15.29B
Training Tokens	1.33T	1.2T	1.2T
Optimizer	AdamW	AdamW	Muon
English	MMLU	53.3	60.2
	MMLU-pro	-	26.8
	BBH	41.4	45.3
	TriviaQA	-	57.4
Code	HumanEval	26.8	29.3
	MBPP	36.8	49.2
Math	GSM8K	31.4	43.8
	MATH	10.7	16.1
	CMATH	-	57.8
Chinese	C-Eval	-	57.2
	CMMLU	-	58.2

[†] The reported parameter counts exclude the embedding parameters.

Table4: Moonlight(trained by Muon) performs significantly better than Moonlight-A(trained by AdamW), proving the scaling effectiveness of Muon. We observed that Muon especially excels on **Math and Code** related tasks.

Sophia: A Scalable Stochastic Second-order Optimizer for Language Model Pre-training

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Motivations: Challenges in Large-Scale LLM Training

- AdamW uses only **first-order gradients**, while Loss landscape is **highly anisotropic**.
 - **Some directions: high curvature**
 - **Others: flat**
- **Uniform step sizes cause:**
 - **Instability in steep directions**
 - **Slow progress in flat directions**

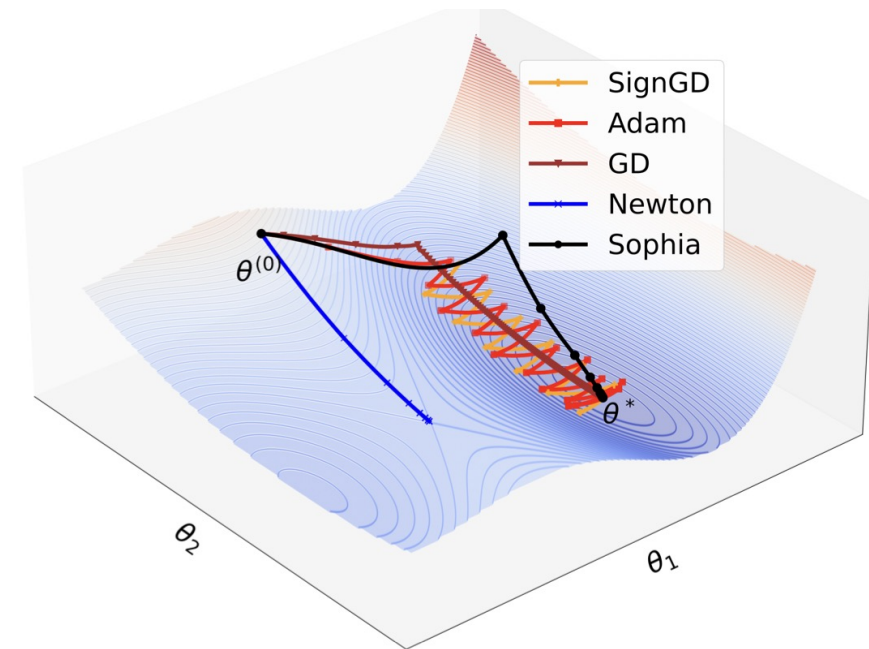


Fig: The motivating toy example. $\theta[1]$ is the sharp dimension and $\theta[2]$ is the flat dimension. GD's learning rate is limited by the sharpness in $\theta[1]$, and makes slow progress along $\theta[2]$. Adam and SignGD bounce along $\theta[1]$ while making slow progress along $\theta[2]$. Vanilla Newton's method converges to a saddle point. Sophia makes fast progress in both dimensions and converges to the minimum with a few steps.

Motivations: Need for Second-Order Information

- Second-order curvature helps scale updates per coordinate, but Full Hessian is impossible to compute or store.
 - Size = $O(n^2)$ for n parameters.
 - Inverting or factorizing Hessian is infeasible.
- Goal: Use curvature approximation that is:
 - Informative
 - Cheap
 - Stable and simple like AdamW

Preconditioner Estimation

- **Idea:** Use **Hessian Diagonal** as Preconditioner
- Approximates curvature per parameter dimension
- Scales updates as:

$$\Delta\theta_i \propto \frac{1}{H_{ii}}$$

- Large curvature \rightarrow smaller update
- Small curvature \rightarrow larger update
- **However, computing the Hessian directly is too expensive, so we use an approximation.**

Preconditioner Estimation: Efficient Estimators for Hessian Diagonal

- **Option 1: Hutchinson Estimator**
 - Uses random vectors v to approximate $\text{diag}(H)$
- **Option 2 : Gauss–Newton–Bartlett Estimator**
 - Uses gradients/Jacobians instead of Hessian
- Update **every k steps**, not every step.
- Maintain **EMA** smoothing for stability.

How to estimate Hessian Diagonal?

➤ Option 1: Hutchinson Estimator

$$\hat{h} = u \odot (\nabla^2 \ell(\theta) u)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{h}] = \text{diag}(\nabla^2 \ell(\theta))$$

Algorithm 1 Hutchinson(θ)

- 1: **Input:** parameter θ .
 - 2: Compute mini-batch loss $L(\theta)$.
 - 3: Draw u from $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I}_d)$.
 - 4: **return** $u \odot \nabla(\langle \nabla L(\theta), u \rangle)$.
-

- Remark: The H-method only needs to compute the Hessian-vector product, which makes it efficient.

How to estimate Hessian Diagonal?

➤ Option 2: Gauss–Newton–Bartlett Estimator

- The core idea of GNB is to estimate the Hessian diagonal (or, more precisely, the diagonal of its Fisher information) using the **element-wise squared gradient**.

Algorithm 2 Gauss-Newton-Bartlett(θ)

- 1: **Input:** parameter θ .
 - 2: Draw a mini-batch of input $\{x_b\}_{b=1}^B$.
 - 3: Compute logits on the mini-batch:
 $\{f(\theta, x_b)\}_{b=1}^B$.
 - 4: Sample $\hat{y}_b \sim \text{softmax}(f(\theta, x_b)), \forall b \in [B]$.
 - 5: Calculate $\hat{g} = \nabla(1/B \sum \ell(f(\theta, x_b), \hat{y}_b))$.
 - 6: **return** $B \cdot \hat{g} \odot \hat{g}$.
-

GNB: Why Can the Squared Gradient Represent 2nd-Order Curvature?

- We consider the log-likelihood:

$$\log p_{\theta}(y \mid x)$$

- Negative log-likelihood (NLL):

$$\ell(\theta; x, y) = -\log p_{\theta}(y \mid x)$$

- Define the score (the gradient of the log-likelihood) as:

$$s(\theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(y \mid x).$$

- Then the gradient of the NLL is:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; x, y) = -s(\theta).$$

GNB: Why Can the Squared Gradient Represent 2nd-Order Curvature?

➤ Bartlett Identity:

- Under mild regularity conditions, the Bartlett identity states that, for data drawn from the model's own distribution (i.e., $y \sim p_\theta(\cdot | x)$),

$$\mathbb{E}_{y \sim p_\theta} [s(\theta)] = 0, \quad \mathbb{E}_{y \sim p_\theta} [s(\theta) s(\theta)^\top] = -\mathbb{E}_{y \sim p_\theta} [\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x)] .$$

➤ Rewriting in Terms of the NLL:

$$\mathbb{E}_{y \sim p_\theta} [\nabla_\theta \ell \nabla_\theta \ell^\top] = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim p_\theta} [\nabla_\theta^2 \ell] .$$

- **Interpretation:** This means when labels are sampled from the model distribution, the expected Hessian equals the expected gradient outer product.

GNB: Why Can the Squared Gradient Represent 2nd-Order Curvature?

➤ Therefore, a very natural estimator for the Hessian diagonal is:

$$\text{diag}(\nabla_{\theta}^2 \ell) \approx \mathbb{E}[(\nabla_{\theta} \ell) \odot (\nabla_{\theta} \ell)],$$

where \odot denotes element-wise multiplication.

We consider a conditional probabilistic model $p_\theta(y | x)$, where x is treated as fixed and $\theta \in R^d$ denotes the model parameters. Define the *score function* as

$$s(\theta; y, x) := \nabla_\theta \log p_\theta(y | x).$$

All expectations below are taken with respect to $y \sim p_\theta(\cdot | x)$.

Regularity assumptions. We assume that:

- $p_\theta(y | x)$ is sufficiently smooth in θ ;
- differentiation and integration (or summation) can be interchanged;
- the support of $p_\theta(y | x)$ does not depend on θ .

Bartlett Identity: Mathematical Derivation

First identity: $E[s(\theta)] = 0$. Since $p_\theta(y | x)$ is a conditional probability distribution, it satisfies

$$\int p_\theta(y | x) dy = 1.$$

Taking the gradient with respect to θ yields

$$\nabla_\theta \int p_\theta(y | x) dy = \nabla_\theta 1 = 0.$$

Under the regularity assumptions, we may interchange differentiation and integration:

$$\int \nabla_\theta p_\theta(y | x) dy = 0.$$

Bartlett Identity: Mathematical Derivation

Using the identity

$$\nabla_{\theta} p_{\theta}(y | x) = p_{\theta}(y | x) \nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(y | x),$$

we obtain

$$\int p_{\theta}(y | x) s(\theta; y, x) dy = 0,$$

which implies

$$\boxed{E_{y \sim p_{\theta}} [s(\theta; y, x)] = 0.}$$

Bartlett Identity: Mathematical Derivation

Second identity: $E[s(\theta)s(\theta)^\top] = -E[\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta]$. We start from the second derivative of the log-likelihood:

$$\nabla_\theta \log p_\theta(y | x) = \frac{\nabla_\theta p_\theta(y | x)}{p_\theta(y | x)}.$$

Taking another derivative with respect to θ gives

$$\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x) = \frac{\nabla_\theta^2 p_\theta(y | x)}{p_\theta(y | x)} - \frac{\nabla_\theta p_\theta(y | x) \nabla_\theta p_\theta(y | x)^\top}{p_\theta(y | x)^2}.$$

Noting that

$$\frac{\nabla_\theta p_\theta(y | x)}{p_\theta(y | x)} = \nabla_\theta \log p_\theta(y | x) = s(\theta; y, x),$$

we can rewrite the above as

$$\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x) = \frac{\nabla_\theta^2 p_\theta(y | x)}{p_\theta(y | x)} - s(\theta; y, x)s(\theta; y, x)^\top.$$

Bartlett Identity: Mathematical Derivation

Multiplying both sides by $p_\theta(y | x)$ and integrating over y , we obtain

$$\int p_\theta(y | x) \nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x) dy = \int \nabla_\theta^2 p_\theta(y | x) dy - \int p_\theta(y | x) s(\theta; y, x) s(\theta; y, x)^\top dy.$$

The first term on the right-hand side satisfies

$$\int \nabla_\theta^2 p_\theta(y | x) dy = \nabla_\theta^2 \int p_\theta(y | x) dy = \nabla_\theta^2 1 = 0.$$

Therefore,

$$E_{y \sim p_\theta} [\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x)] = -E_{y \sim p_\theta} [s(\theta; y, x) s(\theta; y, x)^\top],$$

or equivalently,

$$E_{y \sim p_\theta} [s(\theta; y, x) s(\theta; y, x)^\top] = -E_{y \sim p_\theta} [\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta(y | x)].$$

Bartlett Identity: Mathematical Derivation

Negative log-likelihood form. Let $\ell(\theta; y, x) = -\log p_\theta(y \mid x)$. Then

$$\nabla_\theta \ell = -s(\theta), \quad \nabla_\theta^2 \ell = -\nabla_\theta^2 \log p_\theta.$$

Hence, the Bartlett identity can be written as

$$E[\nabla_\theta \ell \nabla_\theta \ell^\top] = E[\nabla_\theta^2 \ell],$$

which underlies the Gauss–Newton–Bartlett estimator used in second-order optimization methods.

Algorithm 3 Sophia

- 1: **Input:** θ_1 , learning rate $\{\eta_t\}_{t=1}^T$, hyperparameters $\lambda, \gamma, \beta_1, \beta_2, \epsilon$, and estimator choice $\text{Estimator} \in \{\text{Hutchinson}, \text{Gauss-Newton-Bartlett}\}$
 - 2: Set $m_0 = 0, v_0 = 0, h_{1-k} = 0$
 - 3: **for** $t = 1$ **to** T **do**
 - 4: Compute minibatch loss $L_t(\theta_t)$.
 - 5: Compute $g_t = \nabla L_t(\theta_t)$.
 - 6: $m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t$
 - 7: **if** $t \bmod k = 1$ **then**
 - 8: Compute $\hat{h}_t = \text{Estimator}(\theta_t)$.
 - 9: $h_t = \beta_2 h_{t-k} + (1 - \beta_2) \hat{h}_t$
 - 10: **else**
 - 11: $h_t = h_{t-1}$
 - 12: $\theta_t = \theta_t - \eta_t \lambda \theta_t$ (weight decay)
 - 13: $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta_t \cdot \text{clip}(m_t / \max\{\gamma \cdot h_t, \epsilon\}, 1)$
-

Adam-like Momentum Term

➤ Core Update Formula:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \eta_t \cdot \text{clip}\left(\frac{m_t}{\max(\gamma h_t, \epsilon)}, 1\right)$$

➤ Notations:

m_t : EMA of gradients

h_t : EMA of Hessian diagonal estimate

γ : curvature scaling factor

ϵ : numerical stability

➤ Interpretation:

- Hessian diagonal acts as adaptive step size
- Each coordinate has its own curvature-aware scaling
- Update stabilizer: $\max(\gamma h_t, \epsilon)$

Per-coordinate Clipping

➤ Why Needed?

- Hessian estimates are noisy
- High variance may produce excessively large updates

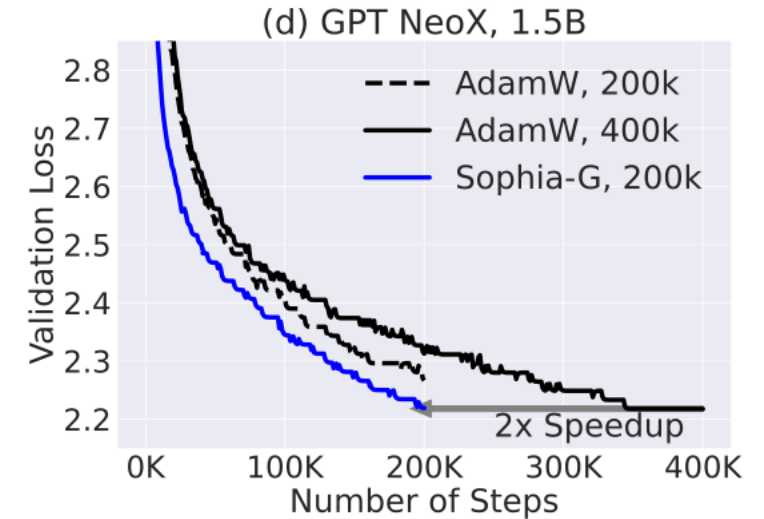
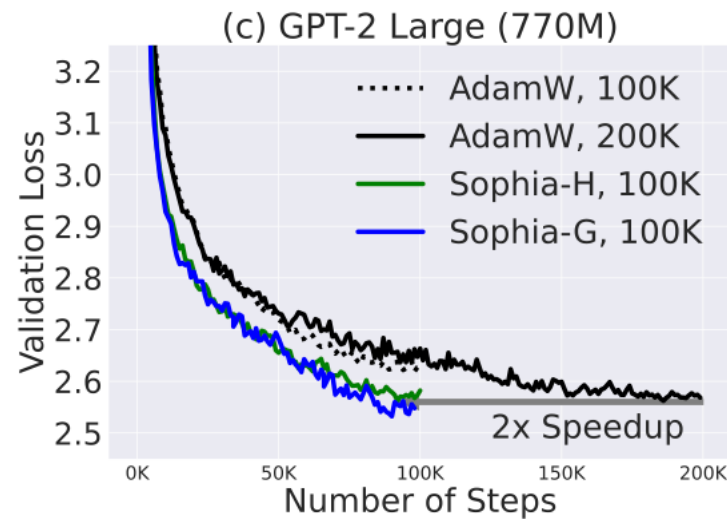
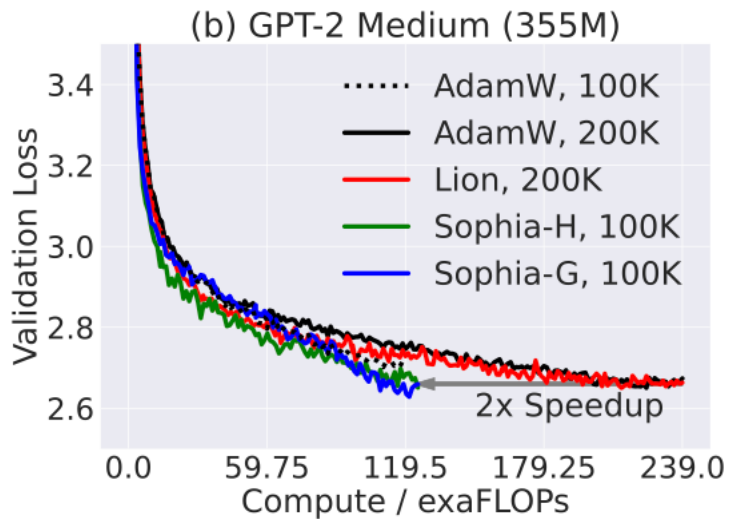
➤ Solution: Per-coordinate Clip

- Bound each coordinate's update:

$$|u_i| \leq 1$$

- In practice: ensures stable training even with imperfect curvature

Experiments



(b) GPT-2 Medium (355M). (c) GPT-2 Large (770M). (d) GPT NeoX 1.5B. Across all model sizes, Sophia achieves a 2x speedup.

Summary

- **Sophia is designed to:**
 - Use informative **second-order curvature** (diagonal Hessian)
 - Maintain very **low computation** cost
 - Remain **stable** via per-coordinate clipping
 - Achieve faster convergence than AdamW in large-scale models
- **Key innovation:**
 - A practical second-order optimizer with LLM-scale compatibility.