Simple and Effective Gradient-Based Tuning of Sequence-to-Sequence Models

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Abstract  Recent trends towards training ever-larger language models have substantially improved machine learning performance across linguistic tasks. However, the huge cost of training larger models can make tuning them prohibitively expensive, motivating the study of more efficient methods. Gradient-based hyper-parameter optimization offers the capacity to tune hyper-parameters during training, yet has not previously been studied in a sequence-to-sequence setting. We apply a simple and general gradient-based hyperparameter optimization method to sequence-to-sequence tasks for the first time, demonstrating both efficiency and performance gains over strong baselines for both Neural Machine Translation and Natural Language Understanding (NLU) tasks (via T5 pretraining). For translation, we show the method generalizes across language pairs, is more efficient than Bayesian hyper-parameter optimization, and that learned schedules for some hyper-parameters can out-perform even optimal constant-valued tuning. For T5, we show that learning hyper-parameters during pre-training can improve performance across downstream NLU tasks. When learning multiple hyper-parameters concurrently, we show that the global learning rate can follow a schedule over training that improves performance and is not explainable by the ‘short-horizon bias’ of greedy methods (Wu et al., 2018). We release the code used to facilitate further research.

1 Introduction

Finding good hyper-parameter values is critical to achieving good performance across machine learning domains; this has inspired much work into hyper-parameter optimization (HPO) (see Feurer and Hutter (2019)). Traditionally popular HPO methods require running many trials of hyperparameter sets in parallel or sequential training runs (Bengio, 2012; Snoek et al., 2012; Li et al., 2016). These methods become infeasible as the cost of individual runs increases. This difficulty is exacerbated by recent trends towards larger models (Devlin et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020; Adiwardana et al., 2020; Chowdhery et al., 2022), which have come to dominate progress on linguistic tasks, yet are only sparsely or indirectly tuned.

The growing field of gradient-based HPO methods offers an alternative to conventional HPO by allowing hyper-parameters to be learned based on a loss function, which can greatly improve over the efficiency of comparing constant values tuned across multiple runs (Maclaurin et al., 2015; Pedregosa, 2016; Franceschi et al., 2018). Many gradient-based methods additionally allow hyper-parameters to dynamically vary in value over a training run as opposed to only taking static values. However, most prior work on gradient-based HPO methods has not focused on text-processing, with notable exceptions in Hu et al. (2019) and Lorraine et al. (2020). This domain mismatch makes it unclear how well these methods may work for the large language model setting.

We present the first study of gradient-based hyper-parameter learning on sequence-to-sequence tasks (Sutskever et al., 2014). We extend a greedy gradient-based approach that has been applied previously to image classification tasks (Luketina et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018; Baydin et al., 2017),

¹See the Appendix for a full description of related works.
²We refer to hyper-parameters which vary over a training run as dynamic, and those which are constant as static.
as it is simple, generalizable, and easily extensible. This allows us to apply greedy hyper-parameter learning to a) multiple hyper-parameters simultaneously and b) experiment across models and tasks. We learn hyper-parameters for momentum and learning rate scaling for Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) sequence-to-sequence models for neural machine translation (NMT) and T5 model pretraining (Raffel et al., 2019).

For NMT, we show that hyper-parameter schedules can be learned greedily with minimal tuning across language pairs, and that those learned schedules can be more efficient than Bayesian-optimized tuning and more performant than optimal constant-valued tuning. We demonstrate the absence of ‘short-horizon bias’ while learning momentum, and the benefit of treating momentum as a dynamic hyper-parameter. For T5, we show that learning a learning rate scalar alongside momentum changes the behavior of that scalar, improving both the convergence speed and performance of T5 pretraining, gains which are reflected in performance on downstream NLU tasks.

2 Method

We use a method that allows hyper-parameters to be learned greedily by gradient descent over the course of training. Per training step, we perform a bi-level optimization to learn both the model parameters via the training loss, and learned hyperparameters via the guidance loss. The guidance set is held-out from the training data to provide the loss by which the hyperparameters are learned.

Let $X$ denote a training dataset and $\Omega$ be a general optimizer function for training a model $\theta$ on $X$, with hyperparameters $\lambda$ and loss function $L_X$. Our training method can be summarized as:

$$g_t = \nabla_{\theta_t} L_X(\theta_t)$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \Omega(\theta_t, g_t, \lambda_t)$$

$$\hat{g}_t = \nabla_{\lambda_t} L_H(\theta_{t+1})$$

$$\lambda_{t+1} = \hat{\Omega}(\lambda_t, \hat{g}_t, \hat{\lambda})$$

where at each time step $t$, the updated model parameters $\theta_{t+1}$ are first computed based on the gradient ($g_t$) of the training loss $L_X$. To compute the guidance loss gradients ($\hat{g}_t$) for the hyper-parameters, we calculate the loss $L_H$ of the new model $\theta_{t+1}$ on the guidance set. Finally, the updated hyperparameter values $\lambda_{t+1}$ are obtained based on a meta-optimizer $\hat{\Omega}$ with corresponding meta-hyperparameters $\hat{\lambda}$. Thus in every training step, we update both the model parameters and the hyperparameters. The process is formalized in Algorithm 1 in the Appendix.

This method is greedy; the horizon of the guidance objective is limited to a single step. Wu et al. (2018) showed that greedy methods applied to learning the learning rate can have a bias towards tiny learning rates, which prevent them from learning and achieving good performance over longer horizons (short-horizon bias). We will explore the practical consequences of this phenomenon by using this method to learn a learning rate scalar $\alpha$ and momentum $\beta_1$.

3 Experiments

For NMT, we use Transformer models with 121M parameters and the LAMB optimizer (You et al., 2019). We train on NMT datasets from the WMT19 machine translation task (Barrault et al., 2019). For evaluation, we decode using beam search and report BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) scores. For T5, we use the small configuration (60M parameters) and the Adafactor optimizer (Shazeer and Stern, 2018). We use the C4 dataset (Raffel et al., 2019). We report loss on the C4 development set and the same evaluation criteria as the original T5 paper for downstream tasks. For all hyper-parameter learning experiments, we use the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2014) with default settings as meta-optimizer, tuning only the meta-learning-rate $\eta$. For the guidance set, we use a single held-out training batch. As the hyper-parameters must vary within constrained ranges, $\alpha$ is kept positive by an exponential activation function, and $\beta_1$ is constrained between 0 and 1 by a sigmoid.

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3For complete experiment setup details, see the Appendix.
4In preliminary experiments, we found no benefit to a larger guidance set.
3.1 Neural Machine Translation

In Figure 1, we compare the evolution of learning the learning rate scalar ($\alpha$) over training for runs with differing meta-learning rates ($\hat{\eta}$) for the German-English language pair. In Figure 2 we do the same for learning $\beta_1$, varying the initialization values in addition to $\hat{\eta}$. For learning $\alpha$, the guidance optimization drives all runs to as low a learning rate as is allowed by the meta-learning rate, demonstrating the 'short horizon bias’. Note that some guided $\alpha$ runs do outperform the baseline, but require tuning of $\hat{\eta}$ to prevent convergence on the guidance objective. In contrast, the learned $\beta_1$ (Figure 2) runs converge to a similar schedule given a sufficiently high $\hat{\eta}$, decaying from high to low momentum over the course of training, regardless of the initialization value. All runs with guided $\beta_1$ outperform the baseline. To evaluate how well these gains generalize, we guide $\alpha$ and $\beta_1$ alone and together for 6 language pairs, setting $\hat{\eta}$ to 3e-5 for all runs (Table 1).

In order to evaluate the practical applicability of guiding these hyperparameters, we compare the guided runs to a typical hyperparameter optimization scheme, against which we can evaluate both performance and efficiency. We tune both the baseline runs (via the hyper-parameters directly) and the guided runs (via $\hat{\eta}$) with Bayesian optimization (BO)

5 for 100 trials. In Table 2, we find that across guided-parameter settings, the non-BO-optimized guided run outperforms the best BO-tuned baseline model, with some slight gains for the guided $\alpha$ run with further BO-tuning

6. Note the guided $\beta_1$ runs do not require $\hat{\eta}$ tuning to reach best performance.

For all setups, the learned hyper-parameters achieve better performance than Bayesian optimization in fewer training runs and less time. Though the 'short-horizon bias' requires tuning $\hat{\eta}$ while learning $\alpha$, doing so still yields performance and efficiency gains over BO-tuning. For $\beta_1$ alone, there seems to be no equivalent bias, as any sufficiently

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5The specific algorithm we use is Gaussian Process Bandits (Frazier, 2018; Golovin et al., 2017).

6We count the 4 different values of $\hat{\eta}$ we tried in Figure 1 as tuning runs for the non-BO-tuned guided setup.
high \( \hat{\eta} \) converges to roughly the same useful schedule. The BO-tuned optimal static \( \beta_1 \) value (0.73) approximates the average \( \beta_1 \) of the converged runs in Figure 2, suggesting that the remaining 0.4 BLEU points are only attainable with a \( \beta_1 \) value that changes over the course of training. Learning both hyper-parameters together does not change their evolution but yields a small additional boost.

### 3.2 T5 pretraining

We run similar experiments for T5 models, learning \( \alpha, \beta_1 \), and both. For \( \alpha \), we see the learning rate scalar decrease prematurely similarly to the NMT setting, demonstrating again the ‘short-horizon bias’ (Appendix, Figure 2), but no guided run outperforms the baseline, even with low \( \hat{\eta} \) values. For \( \beta_1 \) alone, we replicate a similar converged schedule as in the NMT setting, but see only minor changes in development set loss across all models, including those varying \( \beta_1 \) without learning during training (Appendix, Figure 2). This suggests that tuning \( \beta_1 \) in general is less useful in this setting. Interestingly, when we tune both hyper-parameters together, the evolution of the \( \alpha \) parameter changes character (Figure 3), and we find a 3X improvement in speed of convergence relative to baseline and increases in final performance for multiple different settings of \( \hat{\eta} \).

We finetune the baseline and \( \hat{\eta}=1e-5 \) models on each of the downstream NLU tasks drawn from the GLUE (Wang et al., 2018) and superGLUE (Wang et al., 2019) benchmarks, as well as SQuAD (Rajpurkar et al., 2016), using the same finetuning settings as the original T5 paper (Table 3). We find improvements across 15 of 18 downstream NLU tasks, with average improvements of 0.4 points on GLUE and 1.4 points on superGLUE.

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7See the Appendix for full details on isolated \( \alpha \) and \( \beta_1 \) experiments.

8For details on the setup of finetuning, full results, including on SQuAD, see the Appendix.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GLUE</th>
<th>CoLA acc</th>
<th>SST acc</th>
<th>MRPC met</th>
<th>STS met</th>
<th>QQP met</th>
<th>MNLI met</th>
<th>QNLI acc</th>
<th>RTE acc</th>
<th>WNLI acc</th>
<th>avg</th>
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<tr>
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<td>( \alpha + \beta_1 )</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>85.1</td>
<td>87.7</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>BooI acc</th>
<th>CB met</th>
<th>COPA met</th>
<th>MultiRC met</th>
<th>ReCoRD met</th>
<th>RTE acc</th>
<th>WiC acc</th>
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<th>avg</th>
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Table 3: Fine-tuning baseline and \( \alpha + \beta_1 \) models on the GLUE and superGLUE (sGLUE) NLU tasks. \( \text{met} \) denotes the mean of the two metrics typically reported for that task, and \( \text{avg} \) takes the average across tasks. Max value of 5 runs shown, see the Appendix for average results.
4 Discussion and Limitations

Our results shed light into multiple facets of Hyper-parameter optimization (HPO). For Neural Machine Translation, we show that although learning the learning rate scalar decays the learning rate prematurely when allowed to converge to the guidance objective (exhibiting the ‘short-horizon bias’ (Wu et al., 2018)), tuning the meta-learning-rate produces better results with less tuning than Bayesian optimized static tuning. In learning momentum, we demonstrate the absence of short-horizon bias; for momentum, and potentially other hyper-parameters, greedy gradient-based HPO can learn over a single run a schedule which out-performs optimal static tuning. For hyper-parameters such as momentum whose optimal values change over training, methods which allow for dynamic hyper-parameters will always have an edge over static tuning methods.

In our T5 experiments, we show that the ‘recipe’ which yielded good results in NMT produced, with minimal tuning, a pretrained model which outperforms the baseline after finetuning on downstream NLU tasks. We discovered that learning hyper-parameters in conjunction can alter their evolution over training. When learned alongside momentum, the initial growth of the learning-rate scalar followed by gradual decay is a result that is not explicable by the short-horizon bias, which would predict monotonic and premature decay to zero. This raises the possibility that learning certain hyper-parameters dynamically may be constrained by the static values of non-learned hyper-parameters, and that learning multiple hyper-parameters together may be necessary in some settings to make learning any of them useful. Characterizing the phenomenon of interaction between hyper-parameters is a direction for future work.

Our experiments are limited to two global hyper-parameters which are typically tuned. Future work should explore a wider set of hyper-parameters and at a varying granularity (e.g. a distinct hyper-parameter value per parameter (Lorraine et al., 2020)). We show that learning hyper-parameters together can alter their dynamics but leave to future work the characterization of the mechanism and mapping of interactions between learned hyper-parameters. We have shown that greedily learning the learning rate scalar can produce behavior unexplained by the short-horizon bias, but have left to future work the characterization of this phenomenon. The method we explore is limited to differentiable hyper-parameters, and is greedy, so may be improved upon by more complex methods which can take into account either non-differentiable hyperparameters (MacKay et al., 2019) and/or longer horizons (Micaelli and Storkey, 2021).

5 Broader Impact

Since Wu et al. (2018) described short-horizon bias for greedy methods, work in the gradient-based HPO community has progressed towards more complex methods which seek to address short-horizon bias with longer horizons (Micaelli and Storkey, 2021) or by other means (Donini et al., 2019). Our result showing the absence of bias for learning momentum, and easy performance gains for NMT when doing so, should encourage further evaluation of the behavior of diverse learnable hyper-parameters under greedy meta-optimization. Additionally, we have shown that intuitions about the short-horizon bias do not fully explain the behavior of the learning-rate scalar, which increases at the start of training when learned alongside momentum. These observations, taken together, should encourage further exploration of greedy gradient-based methods. We do not anticipate this work having potential negative societal impacts beyond those posed by automated methods in machine learning in general. Rather we hope that it may contribute towards the realization of efficient and general gradient-based HPO, which will help improve the efficiency of training models, reduce energy consumption, and democratize access to machine learning. We hope that our encouraging results and release of the code we used to produce them will facilitate future work within the research community and give practitioners the tools to apply gradient-based HPO in diverse settings.

9https://www.github.com/google-research/google-research/tree/master/gradient_based_tuning
6 Reproducibility Checklist

1. For all authors...

   (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s contributions and scope? [Yes] See Sections 3 and 4.

   (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] See latter portion of Section 4.

   (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A] We anticipate no specific potential negative impacts beyond those of improving automated machine learning methods in general. We state this in Section 5.

   (d) Have you read the ethics author’s and review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? https://automl.cc/ethics-accessibility/ [Yes] We do not violate the guidelines.

2. If you are including theoretical results...

   (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A] We present no theoretical results.

   (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A] We present no theoretical results.

3. If you ran experiments...

   (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results, including all requirements (e.g., requirements.txt with explicit version), an instructive README with installation, and execution commands (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [N/A] We will release the code prior to the publication of the work. While this is clearly not the same as releasing it now (at submission time), we intend to do so as open-sourcing the code is a main aspect of the intended impact of the work.

   (b) Did you include the raw results of running the given instructions on the given code and data? [N/A] See above.

   (c) Did you include scripts and commands that can be used to generate the figures and tables in your paper based on the raw results of the code, data, and instructions given? [N/A] Close analogues of the figures in this paper will be automatically generated by the training code.

   (d) Did you ensure sufficient code quality such that your code can be safely executed and the code is properly documented? [Yes] The code, which will be released prior to publication, will be well documented.

   (e) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, pre-processing, search spaces, fixed hyperparameter settings, and how they were chosen)? [Yes] See the Appendix.

   (f) Did you ensure that you compared different methods (including your own) exactly on the same benchmarks, including the same datasets, search space, code for training and hyperparameters for that code? [Yes] We took care to ensure our experiments comparing methods were fair, including in these mentioned categories.

   (g) Did you run ablation studies to assess the impact of different components of your approach? [Yes] We vary \( \hat{n} \), combination of hyper-parameters, and in comparing NMT to T5 pretraining, we vary optimizer, model, and task.

   (h) Did you use the same evaluation protocol for the methods being compared? [Yes] See section 3 and the Appendix.
(i) Did you compare performance over time? [Yes] See Figures in Section 3.

(j) Did you perform multiple runs of your experiments and report random seeds? [No] We did perform multiple runs of the experiments but do not report random seeds.

(k) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [No] We do not report error bars, we report the max and average metric values over repeated runs.

(l) Did you use tabular or surrogate benchmarks for in-depth evaluations? [N/A] We do not employ NAS approaches.

(m) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes] See the Appendix.

(n) Did you report how you tuned hyperparameters, and what time and resources this required (if they were not automatically tuned by your AutoML method, e.g. in a NAS approach; and also hyperparameters of your own method)? [Yes] See Section 3.

4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...

(a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] See Section 3.

(b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [Yes] See the Appendix.

(c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [No] We will include a link to the code at publication time.

(d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re using/curating? [N/A] Our experiments were performed on publicly available datasets.

(e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable information or offensive content? [No] None of our datasets contains personally identifiable information or offensive content.

5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...

(a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable? [N/A]

(b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]

(c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount spent on participant compensation? [N/A]

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References


