

SparseGrad: A Selective Method for Efficient Fine-tuning of MLP Layers

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Abstract

The performance of Transformer models has been enhanced by increasing the number of parameters and the length of the processed text. Consequently, fine-tuning the entire model becomes a memory-intensive process. High-performance methods for parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) typically work with Attention blocks and often overlook MLP blocks, which contain about half of the model parameters. We propose a new selective PEFT method, namely SparseGrad, that performs well on MLP blocks. We transfer layer gradients to a space where only about 1% of the layer’s elements remain significant. By converting gradients into a sparse structure, we reduce the number of updated parameters. We apply SparseGrad to fine-tune BERT and RoBERTa for the NLU task and LLaMa-2 for the Question-Answering task. In these experiments, our method provides higher quality than LoRA and MeProp, robust popular state-of-the-art PEFT approaches.

1 Introduction

Due to the tendency to increase the size of transformer models with each new generation, we need efficient ways to fine-tune such models on downstream task data. The usual practice is fine-tuning a large pre-trained foundational model on a downstream task. The major problem that prevents efficient fine-tuning is a steady increase in the memory footprint. One of the best strategies is high-performance methods for parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT). Typically, such methods (e.g., LoRA (Hu et al., 2021)) focus on attention blocks and do not consider dense MLP blocks. Since MLP blocks can take a significant fraction of the model parameters (see Table 1), we propose to focus instead on MLP blocks. We introduce a novel selective PEFT approach called SparseGrad. Our method is based on finding a special sparsification transformation that allows us to fine-tune about

1% of the dense MLP layer parameters and still show good performance in downstream tasks.

Table 1: Number of parameters for different layers in various Transformer architectures.

Blocks/Model	BERT		RoBERTa _{base}		LLaMa-2	
Full model	109 M	100%	125 M	100%	6.7 B	100%
MLP	57 M	52%	57 M	45%	4.3 B	64%
Embeddings	24 M	22%	40 M	32%	0.1 B	1%
Attention	28 M	25%	28 M	22%	2.1 B	31%

We validate our approach on BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) and RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) models on GLUE (Wang et al., 2018a) benchmark and in both cases obtain results better than LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) method. We also fine-tune LLaMa-2 (Touvron et al., 2023) 2.7B on the OpenAssistant dataset (Köpf et al., 2023) and also achieve performance higher than LoRA.

2 Related Work

In the last few years, many approaches to PEFT have appeared. Lialin et al. (2023) distinguishes three types of methods: additive, reparametrization-based, and selective. In additive PEFT, small neural networks called adapters are added to the main model to steer the outputs of its modules (Pfeiffer et al., 2020). Adapters are trainable, therefore, the main model remains unchanged. Houlsby et al. (2019) adapt this approach to NLP. In reparametrization-based approaches low-rank representations of trainable parameters are used. For example, LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) parameterizes the weight update by a trainable low-rank matrix decomposition. In the original paper, LoRA is applied to self-attention modules, but not to MLP ones. In the selective methods, parts of the model or sets of the parameters are chosen for fine-tuning using some heuristics. Such methods include, for example, Bit Fit (Zaken et al., 2021) or MeProp (Sun et al., 2017), where only top-k parameters are updated during

backpropagation. The approach proposed in this paper is related to selective methods.

3 Method

Our aim is to reduce the amount of trainable parameters at the fine-tuning stage. Taking into account that fine-tuning data is restricted to a limited scope, we assume there is a basis where the weight gradient matrix is very close to being sparse. We found such a space by collecting information about gradients in the usual pre-training process and applying tensor decomposition to it. We propose a new PyTorch layer class, **SparseGradLinear**, which facilitates the transition to this space, accumulates gradients in a sparse form, and enables the reverse transition.

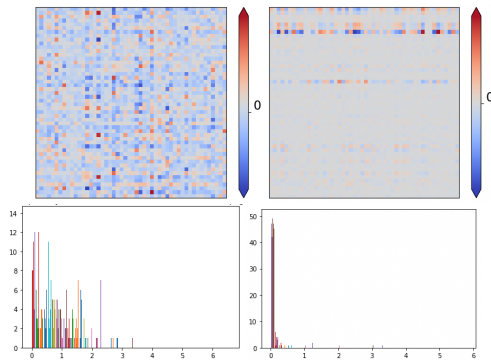


Figure 1: Gradients on the 5-th BERT MLP: $U \frac{\partial L}{\partial W} V^T$ (right) is more sparse than the original $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ (left).

3.1 Pre-training: Finding The Proper Transition Matrices

To obtain transition matrices, a pre-training procedure is necessary. During pre-training, we perform several steps of standard training by freezing the entire model and unfreezing only the linear layers in MLP blocks. By stacking gradients of the weights $W \in \mathcal{R}^{D_{in} \times D_{out}}$ over all blocks and over several training steps, we obtain a 3D tensor of size $D_{in} \times D_{out} \times (n_{step} * n_{blocks})$, where n_{steps} - number of pre-training steps, n_{blocks} - number of MLP blocks in the model. Applying Higher Order SVD (HOSVD) (Cichocki et al., 2016) to this tensor yields matrices $U \in \mathcal{R}^{D_{in} \times D_{in}}$, corresponding to the dimension D_{in} and $V \in \mathcal{R}^{D_{out} \times D_{out}}$, corresponding to D_{out} . These matrices are orthogonal to every stacked gradient in the initial tensor. In this way, we get two orthogonal transition matrices which are shared across all modules of the model. The result

of the multiplication of U, V and $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ turns out to be sparse. Examples of $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ with and without transition to the new space are shown in the Fig. 1.

3.2 Layer with SparseGradients

Table 2: Correspondence of variables in Torch Autograd for a regular Linear layer and SparseGradLinear.

Variable / Layer	Linear	SparseGrad
Weights	W^T	$\tilde{W}^T = UW^TV^T$
Input	X	$\tilde{X} = XU^T$
Output	$Y = XW^T$	$\tilde{Y} = \tilde{X}\tilde{W}^T$
Grad Output	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}$	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{Y}} V^T$
Grad Input	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial X} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial Y} W$	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{X}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{Y}} V^T \tilde{W} U$
Grad Weights	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial Y} X$	$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{W}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \tilde{Y}} \tilde{X}$

SparseGradLinear can be conceptualized as three consecutive linear layers: the first with fixed weights U^T , defined by the HOSVD, the second with trainable new weights $\tilde{W}^T = UW^TV^T$ and the third with fixed weights V , defined by the HOSVD. A Fig. 3 in the Appendix A depicts signal propagation in this structure. We modified the Torch Autograd function to incorporate transition matrices. As the modules following **SparseGradLinear** in both forward and backward passes remain unaltered, it is imperative to ensure consistency in the output $Y = XW^T$ and input gradients $\frac{\partial L}{\partial X}$. Table 2 outlines these adjustments and illustrates the correspondence of variables in Torch Autograd computations between the Linear layer and **SparseGradLinear**.

We explore the gradient matrices $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ calculated using formulas from Table 2 on various BERT and RoBERTa modules. Our findings indicate that approximately 1% of the matrix elements remain significant (see Appendix D). Guided by this heuristic, in our experiments we leave the top 1% of the largest elements and set the rest to zero. To deal with SparseGradients, we use SparseAdam optimizer¹ - the masked version of the Adam algorithm. The remaining model parameters are trained with the standard AdamW optimizer.

3.3 Sparse-by-Dense Matrix Multiplication

We provide the **SparseGradLinear** class with updated Forward and Backward procedures. However, the addition of multiplications by U, V into them increased the execution time and affected peak memory in the training loop.

¹SparseAdam

The sparsity of the gradient tensor $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}^T X$ results in some of the multipliers being sparse. We explore the structure of each component in this formula and figure out that $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}$ has a sparsity approximately equal to $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$. Histograms of the number of its non-zero elements are presented in Fig. 2. It also shows that the sparsity is "strided" - most of the rows are completely filled with zeros. These rows can be excluded from the multiplication procedure, thus optimizing it.

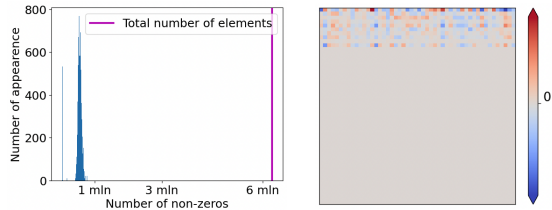


Figure 2: Histograms of nonzeros throughout training with respect to the entire number of elements in $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}$ (left) and the strided structure of $\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y}$ (right).

More precisely, to multiply the sparse matrix $A \in \mathcal{R}^{b \times c}$ by a dense matrix $B \in \mathcal{R}^{c \times d}$ we select *rows* and *cols* - indices of rows and columns of A which contain nonzero elements and multiply as follows:

$$C = A(\text{rows}, :)(:, \text{cols})B(\text{cols}, :) \quad (1)$$

We employ C either for further multiplications, or convert it into COO format and send it to SparseAdam optimizer. Indexes in COO format are defined by restoring indexes of A :

$$C_{\text{coo}}(\text{rows}(k), \text{cols}(l)) = C(k, l). \quad (2)$$

As it is shown in the Table 3, such procedure significantly speeds up the harnessing of **SparseGradLinear**.

4 Time and Memory Consumption per Training Iteration

We measure the peak memory allocated during training using the CUDA memory allocator statistics. Table 3 demonstrates this statistic on average for all GLUE datasets for the RoBERTa_{base} model. The comprehensive Tables 8 and 7, which outline metrics for each dataset separately, can be found in Appendix B. Among all methods, LoRA presents the most efficient memory usage, preserving 30% of the peak memory. SparseGrad, while using

slightly more memory, still achieves a 20% savings. The increase in peak memory with SparseGrad is attributed to the maintenance of matrices U and V and their multiplication to the dense objects, such as Input X .

Table 3: Training speed and memory requirements averaged on the GLUE benchmark. The last two rows of the Table 3 reveal the results for the SparseGrad method with Sparse-by-Dense and Regular matrix multiplication, respectively.

Method	Steps/Sec	Mem, MB
Regular FT	4.11	1345
LoRA	4.7	944
SparseGrad _{SD}	4.3	1016
SparseGrad _{Reg}	0.9	1210

In terms of training time, LoRA demonstrates the fastest training, followed by SparseGrad, and then standard fine-tuning. Table 3 shows that using Sparse-by-Dense multiplication saves approximately 12% memory, leading to an almost five-fold increase in speed.

5 Experiments

We conducted experiments on three transformer-based encoder models, BERT and RoBERTa_{base} and *large*, on the GLUE (Wang et al., 2018b) benchmark, and the LLaMa-2 decoder model on the OpenAssistant Conversations corpus (Köpf et al., 2023). We compared the fine-tuning of the full model (Regular FT scheme) with three PEFT methods, namely LoRA, MeProp and SparseGrad, applying to MLP blocks. To harness LoRA, we use an official repository code. For the MeProp method, we kept the largest elements in the $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ matrix. The proposed SparseGrad involves replacing layers in MLP blocks with its **SparseGradLinear** equivalents.

5.1 Natural Language Understanding with BERT and RoBERTa

We fine-tune BERT, RoBERTa_{base} and RoBERTa_{large} (Liu et al., 2019) using Regular FT, LoRA, and SparseGrad schemes for 20 epochs with early stopping for each task in the GLUE. We varied the batch size and learning rate using the Optuna framework (Akiba et al., 2019). Optimal training parameters for each task are available in the Appendix E. In LoRA we take the rank 10 for RoBERTa_{large} and rank 7 for BERT and RoBERTa_{base} and SparseGrad, MeProp which keeps approximately 1% of the

Table 4: Comparative results of RoBERTa_{large} for 20-epoch task-specific fine-tuning.

Method	#Trainable params		AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
	Model	MLP Layer									
Regular FT	355 mln	4 mln.	85.6	91.9±.4	67.1 ±2.3	90.8 ±.2	89.9±.3	92.9±.9	92.3 ±.1	63.9±7.6	96.7±.3
LoRA	168 mln.	0.05 mln	83.7	92.1±.3	64.4±.8	90.7±.2	89.9±.3	93.2±.3	91.8±.2	60.2±4.1	96.6±.1
SparseGrad	168 mln.	0.05 mln	85.4	92.4 ±.2	63.2±3.4	90.7±.2	90.5 ±.5	93.3 ±.5	91.7±.1	64.7 ±6.1	96.8 ±.2
MeProp	168 mln.	0.05 mln	84.3	92.3±.1	63.7±1.1	90.4±.2	89.4±.9	92.5±.5	91.4±.1	59.2±7.4	96.2±.5

layer parameters. The average scores for all GLUE tasks for BERT and RoBERTa_{base} are in the Table 5; per-task results are placed in the Appendix C. Table 4 depicts the scores for the RoBERTa_{large} model. Our results indicate that SparseGrad outperforms LoRA with an equivalent number of trainable parameters across all models. For BERT, SparseGrad even exceeds the performance of Regular FT. Concerning MeProp, it provides weaker results than SparseGrad in all cases except the RoBERTa_{large} performance on CoLA. It was explained that in MeProp, elements with the largest magnitude in the gradient are selected. In contrast, our approach first transforms the elements into a space where the histogram of the elements is sharper (see Fig 1). This implies that with the same cut-off threshold, MeProp may remove more significant elements compared to SparseGrad.

Table 5: Average scores over the GLUE benchmark for BERT and RoBERTa_{base} models.

Model	BERT		RoB _{base}	
	109 mln	82.5	125 mln	84.2
Regular FT	109 mln	82.5	125 mln	84.2
LoRA	54 mln	81.6	68 mln	83.1
SparseGrad	54 mln	82.6	68 mln	83.6
MeProp	54 mln	82.1	68 mln	82.5

5.2 Conversations with LLaMa-2

We apply the SparseGrad method to fine-tune LLaMa-2 7B (Touvron et al., 2023) model on the OpenAssistant conversational dataset (Köpf et al., 2023). Fine-tuning was performed on a single GPU NVIDIA A40 during 1 epoch with learning rate $9e^{-4}$. For Regular FT, we unfroze *up_proj* and *down_proj* layers in the MLP modules with a block index divisible by 3 (0, 3, 6, ...). We apply LoRA with rank 32 to the selected blocks, leaving the rest of the model untrainable. In the SparseGrad and MeProp methods, we also consider selected MLP modules in the transformer and leave $\approx 100,000$ (0,2%) nonzero elements in the gradient matrix. We validate obtained models

on the question set MT-Bench Inf from Inflection-Benchmarks (Zheng et al., 2023). We use the FastChat platform² for answer generation and GPT-4 to evaluate the responses. We submit the model’s answers to GPT-4, which then rates them on a scale from 1 to 10. The resulting losses and average GPT-4 rates on the Inflection-Benchmarks are shown in Table 6: the models show approximately the same results, but SparseGrad slightly surpasses LoRA, MeProp and Regular FT. The examples of responses on Inflection-Benchmark samples are in the Appendix F.

Table 6: Comparative results for LLaMa-2 on OpenAssistant-1 dataset.

Method (on MLP)	#Train params	Valid Loss	I-Bench Score
Regular FT	22%	1.250 ±0.03	4.407
LoRA	0.5%	1.249 ±0.05	5.025
SparseGrad	0.5%	1.247 ±0.03	5.132
MeProp	0.5%	1.259 ±0.04	4.261

6 Conclusion

We propose a new selective PEFT method called SparseGrad, which identifies a space where the gradients exhibit a sparse structure and updates only its significant part. SparseGrad is validated through experiments conducted on the BERT, RoBERTa and LLaMa-2 model models, demonstrating its superiority over the additive LoRA and selective MeProp method.

In summary, our method serves as an alternative to LoRA in situations where the performance of the final model takes precedence over the execution time. The source code is available at anonymized repository.³

7 Limitations

The main limitation of our method is the additional memory requirements during the Pretrain-

²<https://github.com/lm-sys/FastChat>

³https://anonymous.4open.science/r/sparse_grads-0C5E/

ing Phase. The extra memory is assessed as follows: we need to unfreeze the MLP layers, which hold approximately half of the training parameters in Transformers (see Table 1), store and decompose a large tensor. For instance, 30 pre-training steps result in a tensor of approximately 276 MB for BERT and ROBERTA models, and 5.2 GB for LLaMa-2.7 B models. The decomposition part can be the most memory-consuming, as it involves reshaping a 3-dimensional tensor into a matrix with a dimension size equal to the product of two dimension sizes of the tensor (Cichocki et al., 2016).

However, this part is executed only once during the entire fine-tuning process and can be computed on the CPU in a short time. The Higher Order SVD decomposition of such objects takes approximately 78 seconds for BERT and RoBERTa_{base} layers and about 668 seconds for LLaMa on an Intel Xeon Gold 6342 CPU processor.

8 Ethics Statement

Our proposed approach involves a novel method for fine-tuning large language models, which can be considered as cost-effective as we only update 0.1% of the weights. This type of fine-tuning is environmentally friendly as it reduces resource wastage. We utilized pre-trained models from the Hugging Face repository and implemented updates using the Pytorch library. We exclusively used open-source datasets to avoid any potential harm or ethical concerns. By prioritizing ethical standards and recognizing potential risks, we strive to promote responsible and sustainable research practices.

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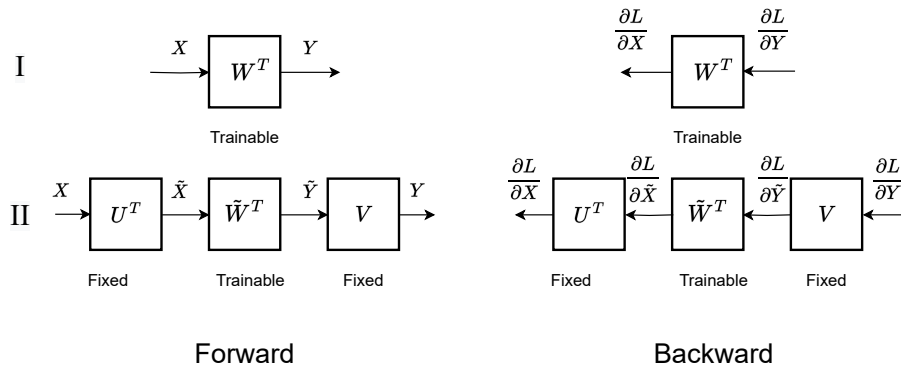


Figure 3: SparseGradLinear is equivalent to 3 linear layers: first with frozen weights U^T , second with trainable new weights $\tilde{W} = UWV^T$, third with frozen weights V . The row **I** illustrates signal propagation in the original Linear Layer, while the **II** row illustrates it in the SparseGradLinear.

B Appendix B

Method / Dataset	AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
Regular FT	4.11	2.9	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.1	4.7	4.2	5.1
LoRA	4.7	2.8	5.8	6.2	6.3	3.4	4.1	3.2	4.4
SparseGrad, Sparse-by-Dense	4.3	3.8	1.8	3.9	3.1	3.5	5.6	6.3	6.2
SparseGrad, Regular	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.9	0.8	0.7	1.6	1.1

Table 7: The training step execution speed, measured in steps per second (where a higher value indicates faster execution), is reported for the RoBERTa base model. The last two rows describe the SparseGradMethod with Sparse-by-Dense multiplication and with Regular matrix multiplication.

Method / Dataset	AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
Regular FT	1345	1344	1358	1350	1362	1369	1333	1314	1339
LoRA	944	969	978	986	998	938	935	902	855
SparseGrad, Sparse-by-Dense	1016	997	1082	1017	1110	1019	981	960	980
SparseGrad, Regular	1210	1283	1212	1256	1183	1245	1172	1116	1209

Table 8: Peak memory measurement in MB for training loop for the model RoBERTa base.

C Appendix C

Table 9: Comparative results of BERT model for 20-epoch task-specific fine-tuning.

Method	#Trainable Parameters		AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
	Model	MLP Layer									
Regular FT	109 mln	3 mln	82.5	89.3 _{±.6}	59.0 _{±1.9}	84.0 _{±.3}	86.2 _{±1.1}	89.3 _{±1.3}	91.1 _{±.0}	67.4 _{±2.8}	92.7 _{±.1}
LoRA	53 mln	0.03 mln	81.6	89.2 _{±.7}	58.4 _{±2.3}	84.2 _{±.2}	83.8 _{±.6}	89.3 _{±.8}	91.0 _{±.0}	64.6 _{±2.1}	92.3 _{±.2}
SparseGrad	53 mln	0.03 mln	82.6	89.2 _{±.4}	58.8 _{±.0}	84.0 _{±1.3}	86.6 _{±.5}	89.4 _{±1.6}	90.9 _{±.3}	69.3 _{±2.9}	92.4 _{±.1}
MeProp	53 mln	0.03 mln	82.1	88.9 _{±.5}	58.4 _{±.8}	83.3 _{±.3}	84.2 _{±.6}	89.6 _{±.3}	90.4 _{±.4}	64.9 _{±.9}	92.1 _{±.1}

Table 10: Comparative results of ROBERTA for 20-epoch task-specific fine-tuning.

Method	#Trainable parameters		AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
	Model	MLP Layer									
Regular FT	125 mln.	3 mln.	84.2	90.4 _{±.3}	59.7 _{±1.4}	87.7 _{±.1}	90.0 _{±.6}	90.6 _{±.8}	91.5 _{±.1}	68.8 _{±2.5}	94.7 _{±.2}
LoRA	68 mln.	0.03 mln.	83.1	90.5 _{±.2}	60.6 _{±1.7}	87.5 _{±.1}	88.4 _{±.6}	90.0 _{±.8}	91.4 _{±.1}	63.1 _{±2.3}	94.5 _{±.1}
SparseGrad	68 mln.	0.03 mln.	83.6	90.8 _{±.2}	60.0 _{±1.6}	87.5 _{±.1}	89.6 _{±1.1}	91.5 _{±.6}	91.5 _{±.1}	65.6 _{±2.1}	94.2 _{±.1}
MeProp	68 mln.	0.03 mln.	82.5	90.7 _{±.1}	59.2 _{±1.3}	85.9 _{±.1}	89.1 _{±0.9}	89.4 _{±.5}	90.5 _{±.1}	61.5 _{±1.6}	94.2 _{±.1}

D Appendix D

The average GLUE results for the BERT and RoBERTa_{base} models with respect to the number of remaining updated parameters in Linear layers. Table 11 shows that under the 0.8% of the remaining parameters, performance tends to decrease.

Table 11: Average GLUE score as a function of the weight gradient sparsity.

% of remaining parameters in MLP layers	Model	
	BERT	RoB _{base}
0.8%	75.44	82.5
1%	82.61	83.1
1.3%	82.63	82.6
4.2%	82.64	82.1

Table 12: GLUE score as a function of the weight gradient sparsity in BERT

Method	AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
SparseGrad	82.6	89.2 \pm .4	58.8 \pm 0	84.0 \pm 1.3	86.6 \pm .5	89.4 \pm 1.6	90.9 \pm .3	69.3 \pm 2.0	92.4 \pm .1
SparseGrad 18k	81.5	89.1 \pm .3	59.1 \pm .5	83.8 \pm .1	84.6 \pm .8	89.4 \pm .8	90.8 \pm .2	63.5 \pm 5.2	92.4 \pm .6
SparseGrad 22k	82.2	89.7 \pm .6	60.0 \pm .4	83.9 \pm .1	84.6 \pm 1.5	88.8 \pm 1.0	91.1 \pm .0	67.7 \pm 2.5	92.3 \pm .3
SparseGrad 30k	82.0	89.2 \pm .4	59.1 \pm .5	84.1 \pm .3	85.4 \pm .6	89.3 \pm .6	90.8 \pm .2	65.6 \pm 4.6	92.2 \pm .4
SparseGrad 100k	82.2	89.3 \pm .3	60.0 \pm .3	83.8 \pm .2	85.1 \pm 1.2	88.9 \pm 1.0	91.2 \pm .0	65.6 \pm 3.3	92.4 \pm .3

Table 13: GLUE score as a function of the weight gradient sparsity in ROBERTA

Method	AVG	STSB	CoLA	MNLI	MRPC	QNLI	QQP	RTE	SST2
SparseGrad	83.6	90.8 \pm .2	60.0 \pm 1.6	87.5 \pm .1	89.6 \pm 1.1	91.5 \pm .6	91.5 \pm .1	65.6 \pm 2.1	94.2 \pm .1
SparseGrad 18k	83.4	90.9 \pm .2	59.7 \pm .1	87.4 \pm .4	89.2 \pm .7	89.1 \pm .4	91.5 \pm .1	60.4 \pm 5.8	94.0 \pm .4
SparseGrad 22k	83.6	90.6 \pm .2	58.8 \pm .4	87.7 \pm .1	90.0 \pm .3	90.1 \pm .1	91.3 \pm .1	65.5 \pm 3.7	94.6 \pm .2
SparseGrad 30k	83.6	90.8 \pm .3	59.4 \pm .4	87.6 \pm .1	89.8 \pm .4	91.0 \pm .1	91.3 \pm .1	64.9 \pm 8.6	94.2 \pm .1
SparseGrad 100k	83.9	90.9 \pm .3	59.8 \pm .5	87.0 \pm .1	89.7 \pm .5	89.6 \pm .5	91.4 \pm .1	69.4 \pm 3.2	94.1 \pm .3

E Appendix E

Best training parameters for all models. In all experiments, we repeat fine-tuning 3 times over different seeds and report the average score.

Table 14: Best training parameters on GLUE benchmark for BERT model.

Dataset	batch size	learning rate
STSB	32	1.24e-4
CoLA	32	3.15e-5
MNLI	32	6.07e-6
MRPC	32	1.22e-5
QNLI	16	1.94e-5
QQP	32	1.41e-5
RTE	16	6.81e-5
SST2	32	1.47e-5

Table 15: Best training parameters on GLUE benchmark for RoBERTa model.

Dataset	batch size	learning rate
STSB	16	2.70e-5
CoLA	16	1.01e-5
MNLI	32	1.51e-5
MRPC	32	1.9e-5
QNLI	16	1.91e-5
QQP	16	5.11e-6
RTE	32	3.05e-5
SST2	16	1.33e-5

Table 16: Best training parameters on GLUE benchmark for RoBERTa-large model.

Dataset	batch size	learning rate
STSB	32	7.71e-5
CoLA	16	1.8e-5
MNLI	16	1.15e-6
MRPC	32	2.47e-5
QNLI	16	8.83e-6
QQP	32	7.2e-6
RTE	32	1.02e-5
SST2	32	1.02e-5

F Appendix F

Responses from the models to an example from Inflection-Benchmarks are shown. While all models perform fairly well, the LoRA-trained model overlooks the fact that public speaking can be stressful for an introvert when answering the first question.

[Question 1]

Write a persuasive email to convince your introverted friend, who dislikes public speaking, to volunteer as a guest speaker at a local event. Use compelling arguments and address potential objections. Please be concise.

LLaMa2-7B Regular FT:

Here's a persuasive email to convince your introverted friend to volunteer as a guest speaker at a local event:

Subject: Join us as a guest speaker at our local event

Dear (Friend's Name), I hope this email finds you well. I hope you're doing well! I'm writing to invite you to be a guest speaker at our upcoming local event. As a friend, I know how passionate you are!

LLaMa2-7B LoRA:

Subject Line: Please, Volunteer as a Guest Speaker! Dear John, I hope you are doing well. I am writing to you because I know you are an introverted person and do not like public speaking. However, I have a great opportunity for you to volunteer as a guest speaker at the event!

LLaMa2-7B Sparse Grad:

Subject: Volunteer as a Guest Speaker at a Local Event

Dear [Name], I hope this email finds you well. I wanted to reach out to you about an exciting opportunity to volunteer as a guest speaker at a local event. As you know, public speaking can be a nerve-wracking experience, but it's also a great way to share your knowledge and expertise with others.

[Question 2]

What are some business etiquette norms when doing business in Japan?

LLaMa2-7B Regular FT:

If you're doing business in Japan, it's important to follow their business etiquette norms. Here are some key things to keep in mind:

1. Hierarchy: In Japan, it's important to respect the hierarchy in the workplace. Address your Japanese colleagues with the appropriate title, and don't speak to them unless they initiate the conversation.
2. Punctuality: Being punctual is considered very important in Japanese culture, so make sure to arrive on time for meetings and events.
3. Business Cards: Business cards are an important part of doing business in Japan. Make sure to have your own business card made beforehand and carry it with you at all times.

LLaMa2-7B LoRA:

Of course! Here are some business etiquette norms when doing business in Japan:

1. Business Cards: Business cards are a vital part of business interactions in Japan. Always have a few business cards with you and exchange them with others during introductions.
2. Punctuality: Time is sacred in Japan, and being punctual is essential for business meetings. Arrive on time or even a few minutes early.
3. Gifts: Gifts are common in business interactions in Japan, especially for special occasions. Small personalized gifts such as chocolates or flowers are appropriate.

LLaMa2-7B Sparse Grad:

Here are some business etiquette norms to keep in mind when doing business in Japan:

1. Respect for seniority: In Japanese culture, age and seniority are highly respected, so it is important to show respect to those who are older or in a higher position than you.
2. Business cards: Business cards are an important part of doing business in Japanese culture, and it is customary to exchange business cards at the beginning of a meeting.
3. Gifts: Gifts are often given as a sign of appreciation or gratitude in Japanese culture. It is important to give gifts that are appropriate for the occasion and not too extravagant.

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