GA-SAM: Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization for Improved Generalization

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Abstract

Recently, Sharpness-Aware Minimization (SAM) algorithm has shown state-of-the-art generalization abilities in vision tasks. It demonstrates that flat minima tend to imply better generalization abilities. However, it has some difficulty implying SAM to some natural language tasks, especially to models with drastic gradient changes, such as RNNs. In this work, we analyze the relation between the flatness of the local minimum and its generalization ability from a novel and straightforward theoretical perspective. We propose that the shift of the training and test distributions can be equivalently seen as a virtual parameter corruption or perturbation, which can explain why flat minima that are robust against parameter corruptions or perturbations have better generalization performances. On its basis, we propose a Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization (GA-SAM) algorithm to help to learn algorithms find flat minima that generalize better. Results in various language benchmarks validate the effectiveness of the proposed GA-SAM algorithm on natural language tasks.

1 Introduction

Recently, researchers (Wu et al., 2020; Weng et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Foret et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021) propose that for better generalization ability, learning algorithms should find flat minima that have better robustness resistant to parameter corruptions or perturbations. Many learning algorithms that take the flatness or sharpness of the parameters into consideration are motivated by the observation that flat minima tend to imply better generalization abilities. Among them, Sharpness-Aware Minimization (SAM) (Foret et al., 2020) algorithm has achieved state-of-the-art generalization abilities in vision tasks. It adopts virtual adversarial parameter corruptions or perturbations during training and lowers the risk after parameter corruptions. However, traditional SAM algorithms usually adopt fixed strengths of parameter corruptions and constraint the corruptions with $L_2$-norm or $L_{+\infty}$-norm balls. It cannot conduct flexible strengths of parameter corruptions for different parameters, or during different stages of training. Thus, it is difficult to apply SAM to some natural language tasks, especially to models with drastic gradient changes, such as RNNs. To settle this issue, many adaptive SAM algorithms (Kwon et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021) are proposed empirically. In this work, we propose a gradient-strength based adaptive solution based on our theoretical framework.

Existing studies (Wu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021) try to explain the relation between the flatness of the local minimum and its generalization ability according to Probably Approximately Correct (PAC) Bayesian generalization bounds (Neyshabur et al., 2017). In this work, we propose a novel theoretical framework to analyze this relation from a more intuitive and direct perspective. In the Distributionally Robust Optimization (DRO) (Rahimian and Mehrrotra, 2019) field, the elementary assumption is that there exists a shift between the distributions of the training set and the test set. We propose that a small distribution shift can be equivalently seen as a virtual parameter corruption or perturbation on the loss function. We conduct analytic trials to verify our theoretical account and the results show that it fits the simulation well and can therefore explain why flat minima that are robust against parameter corruptions or perturbations have better generalization performances. We also analyze the strength of the parameter corruption within this framework, based on which we propose a Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization (GA-SAM) algorithm, which can set flexible strengths of parameter corruptions for different parameter groups, during different training stages.
To validate the effectiveness of the proposed GA-SAM algorithm, we choose several natural language models and benchmarks, including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) (Kim, 2014) on text classification, Long Short-term Memory (LSTM) (Merity et al., 2017) networks on language modeling, and Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) on neural machine translation. We also compare our proposed GA-SAM algorithm with the traditional SAM algorithm (Foret et al., 2020) and its multiple variants, including multi-step adversarial parameter defense algorithm (Zhang et al., 2021), adaptive SAM (Kwon et al., 2021), layer-wise SAM (Liu et al., 2021) and other possible variants of our proposed algorithm. Experimental results show that our proposed GA-SAM gains better generalization compared to the traditional SAM algorithm and other variants.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We propose a novel theoretical framework to analyze the relation between the flatness of the local minimum and its generalization ability. Under our proposed theoretical framework, the shift of the training and test distributions can be equivalently seen as a virtual parameter corruption or perturbation. Thus, the flatness or the robustness against parameter corruptions can indicate the generalization ability.

- On the basis of our novel framework, we further propose a Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization (GA-SAM) algorithm to set flexible strengths of parameter corruptions for different parameter groups, during different stages of training for an improvement over generalization ability.

- Experimental results show the effectiveness of the GA-SAM algorithm compared to the traditional SAM algorithm and its variants.

2 Proposed Theoretical Framework

In this section, we propose a novel theoretical framework to reveal the relation between distribution shifts and parameter corruptions from an intuitive and direct theoretical perspective.

2.1 Preliminary

Let us consider a neural network with the parameter vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$. For a data instance $z = (x, y)$, denote $\ell(w; z)$ as the loss of the data instance, $\mathcal{L}(w; D)$ as the average loss of a dataset $D$, and $p(z)$ as the probability distribution of $D$, we have:

$$\mathcal{L}(w; D) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[\ell] = \int z p(z) \ell(w; z) dz. \quad (1)$$

Denote $\theta$ as the optimal parameter:

$$\theta = \arg \min_w \mathcal{L}(w; D), \quad (2)$$

and the Hessian matrix on $\theta$ is $H = \nabla^2_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta; D)$.

Similarly, denote $D^*$ and $p^*(z)$ as the test set and its distribution, $\theta^*$ as its optimal parameter, and the Hessian matrix on $\theta^*$ is $H^*$. Define the parameter shift of the test and training minima as $\delta = \theta^* - \theta$.

Suppose $n$ parameters are divided into $l$ groups and the $i$-th group has $n_{(i)}$ parameters (e.g., $l = 1, n = n_{(1)}$ when the whole model adopt the same strength and we call it model-wise, $n = l, n_{(i)} = 1$ when element-wise, $l$ is the layer number when layer-wise, $l$ is the filter number when filter-wise, etc.), $w = [w_1^T, \cdots, w_l^T]^T$ and $g = \nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w; D) = [g_1^T, \cdots, g_l^T]^T$, and $\delta = [\delta_1^T, \delta_2^T, \cdots, \delta_{(i)}^T, \cdots, \delta_{(l)}^T]^T$.

2.2 The Distribution Shift between the Training and Test Sets

The elementary assumption in the Distributionally Robust Optimization (DRO) (Rahimian and Mehrotra, 2019) field is that there exists a small distributional shift between the training and test sets. Previous studies usually assume that the divergence or the distance of the training and test distributions is bounded by a constant, e.g., the Kullback-Leibler divergence (Kullback and Leibler, 1951), $\text{KL}(p(z)||p^*(z)) \leq \text{Constant}$. In this work, more generally, we assume that the $f$-divergence (Rényi, 1961) $D_f$ of the distributions is bounded by $C_f$:

$$D_f (p^*(z)||p(z)) = \int z p(z) f \left( \frac{p^*(z)}{p(z)} \right) \leq C_f, \quad (3)$$

where the function $f$ is convex and $f(1) = 0$, its Taylor expansion should also satisfy $f(1 + x) = a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + o(x^2)$, $a_2 \neq 0$. For example, for the Kullback-Leibler divergence (KL-div), $f(1 + x) = (1 + x) \log(1 + x) = x + x^2/2 + o(x^2)$.

2.3 Parameter Corruptions as Results of Distribution Shifts

We propose a novel theoretical framework to analyze this relation from a more intuitive and direct
perspective. The main theoretical motivation is Theorem 1. Proofs and details are in Appendix.

**Theorem 1.** The distribution shifts of datasets \( D \) and \( D^* \) can be equivalently treated as a parameter corruption near the corresponding minima,

\[
\mathcal{L}(\theta^* + \nu; D^*) \approx \mathcal{L}(\theta + \nu; D) + \text{Constant}, \tag{4}
\]

where \( \text{Constant} = \mathcal{L}(\theta^*; D^*) - \mathcal{L}(\theta; D) \). Let \( \alpha = -\delta \), when \( w \) is near \( \theta \) and \( \theta^* \), we have

\[
\mathcal{L}(w; D^*) \approx \mathcal{L}(w + \alpha; D) + \text{Constant}. \tag{5}
\]

It shows that the distribution shifts will cause a parameter corruption or parameter shift. Therefore, optimizing the parameter corruption risk \( \mathcal{L}(w + \alpha; D) \) can help optimize the loss on the test set \( \mathcal{L}(w; D^*) \). Define \( S \) as the possible corruption constraint set of potential corruptions \( \alpha \). Since \( \alpha = -\delta \) is determined by the invisible distribution shifts, we optimize the risk under potential corruptions \( \alpha \) instead, which is exactly the SAM optimization,

\[
\theta_{\text{SAM}} = \arg \min_w \max_{\alpha \in S} \mathcal{L}(w + \alpha; D). \tag{6}
\]

Thus, we reveal why flat minima that are robust against potential parameter corruptions or perturbations have better generalization performances in our theoretical framework. Traditional SAM algorithms adopt fixed strengths of parameter corruptions and constrain the corruptions with \( L_2 \)-norm or \( L_{\infty} \)-norm balls, namely \( S = \{ \alpha : \| \alpha \|_2 \leq \epsilon \} \) or \( S = \{ \alpha : \| \alpha \|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon \} \). However, in Theorem 2, it reveals that the potential parameter corruption \( \delta \) is determined by the distribution shifts and the local geometry near the local minimum in the loss basin. Based on this, we have Proposition 1.

**Theorem 2.** Define \( r(z) = p^*(z)/p(z) - 1 \). When the distribution shift is small enough, namely \( r(z) \) is small, we can estimate the parameter shift \( \delta \) as

\[
\delta = -H^{-1}E_p[r(z)\nabla \ell(\theta; z)] + o(\|\delta\|_2). \tag{7}
\]

**Proposition 1.** Suppose the loss \( \mathcal{L}(w; D) \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex, and \( D_f(p^* \| p) \leq C_f \), there exists

\[
C_\delta = \frac{1 + o(1)}{\mu} \sqrt{\frac{C_f}{\alpha^2} E_p(z) \| \nabla \ell(\theta; z) \|_2^2} \tag{8}
\]

such that \( \| \delta \|_2 \leq C_\delta \), namely \( C_\delta \) is a upper bound.

\[\footnote{Note that \( \mathcal{L} \) is only required to be \( \mu \)-strongly convex in the neighborhood of the loss basin including \( \theta \) and \( \theta^* \), instead of the entire \( \mathbb{R}^n \).}\]

2.4 Verification of the Theoretical Framework

In this section, we conduct several analytic trials\(^2\) to verify our theoretical explanations and analyze the corruption strength. Results show that our theoretical framework fits the simulation.

**Visualization of Distribution Shift Effects.** Fig. 1 visualizes the training loss, test loss and the shifted training loss. The shifted training loss is similar to the test loss near the local minimum, namely we have \( \mathcal{L}(w; D^*) \approx \mathcal{L}(w - \delta; D) + \text{Constant} \), which validates Theorem 1. This phenomenon can also be observed in visualizations of training and test loss landscapes in other studies.

**Relation between Corruption Strength and Distribution Shift Strength.** We conduct analytic trials to reveal the relation between the corruption strength and the distribution shift to verify our theoretical framework. Suppose \( D \) is the training set and \( D^* \) is the test set. We can construct a mixed dataset \( D_{\text{mix}} \), mixed with \( (1 - \eta) \) of the training data from \( D \) and \( \eta \) of the test data from \( D^* \). We have \( p_{\text{mix}} = (1 - \eta)p + \eta p^* \) approximately. Define \( \eta \) as the relatively distribution shift strength between \( D_{\text{mix}} \) and \( D \). Proposition 2 reveals that the corruption strength is proportional to the distribution shift strength, which fits both the simulation results of analytic trails in Fig. 2 and the intuition.

**Proposition 2.** Suppose the mixed distribution of \( D_{\text{mix}} \) is \( p_{\text{mix}} \), then we have \( D_f(p_{\text{mix}} \| p) \leq C_f \), Denote \( \theta_{\text{mix}} \) as the optimal parameter on \( D_{\text{mix}} \), \( \delta_{\text{mix}} = \theta_{\text{mix}} - \theta \), then

\[\footnote{The details of trials are in Appendix.}\]
we have:

\[ \frac{\|\delta^{\text{mix}}\|_2}{\|\delta\|_2} = \frac{C^{\text{mix}}}{C_{\delta}} = \eta + o(1). \tag{9} \]

3 Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization

In this section, we propose a Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization (GA-SAM) algorithm based on the proposed theoretical framework, which conducts flexible strengths of parameter corruptions for different parameter groups for better generalization abilities.

3.1 Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization

As illustrated in Section 2.3, the SAM (Foret et al., 2020) optimization objective is exactly the risk under potential corruption as a result of distribution shift,

\[ \theta = \arg \min_{w} \max_{a \in S} L(w + a; D), \tag{10} \]

where the constraint \( S \) is \( S = \{ a : \| T^{-1}a \|_p \leq \epsilon \} \).

Adaptive SAM algorithms (Kwon et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021) are proposed to set flexible strengths of parameter corruptions, which set the constraint \( S \) as \( S = \{ a : \| T^{-1}a \|_p \leq \epsilon \} \), where \( T \) is the transformation matrix (usually diagonal) controlling the corruption strengths of corresponding parameter groups. Define \( T = \text{diag}\{ T_1 I_{n_1}, \ldots, T_i I_{n_i} \} \), where \( T_i \) controls the corruption strengths of group \( i \). Adaptive SAM (ASAM) (Kwon et al., 2021) empirically adopts \( T_i = \| w_i \|_2 \) element-wisely or filter-wisely in CNNs, and layer-wise SAM (Layer-SAM) (Liu et al., 2021) empirically adopts \( T_i = \| w_i \|_2 / \| g_i \|_2 \) layer-wisely.

3.2 The Relation between the Corruption Strength and the Gradient Strength

We hope to derive \( T \) from the theoretical framework instead of setting \( T \) empirically.

In Theorem 2, besides the term \( r(z) \) determined by the distribution shift, corruption strength is also determined by the local geometry near the local minimum \( (H, \nabla \theta^\ell(\theta; z)) \). Suppose \( n \) is the parameter number, \( G = E_p(z) [\| \nabla \theta^\ell(\theta; z) \|_2^2] / \sqrt{n} \) is the average gradient strength. Suppose the Fisher information matrix assumption (Pascual and Bengio, 2013) holds, namely \( H = E_p(z) [\nabla \theta^\ell(\theta; z) \nabla \theta^\ell(\theta; z)^\top] \), the local geometry is determined by the gradient strength \( G \).

In Proposition 3, we analyze the relation between the corruption strength and the gradient strength.

Proposition 3. Define the average gradient strength as \( G = E_p(z) [\| \nabla \theta^\ell(\theta; z) \|_2^2] / \sqrt{n} \), and the average gradient strength of group \( i \) as \( G_i = E_{p(z)} [\| \nabla \theta^{\ell(i)}(\theta; z) \|_2^2] / \sqrt{n_i} \), then

\[ \| \delta \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n_i} / G, \quad \| \delta^{(i)} \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n_i} / G_i. \tag{11} \]

3.3 Proposed Algorithm

Our proposed algorithm adopts the constraint \( S = \{ a : \| T^{-1}a \|_p \leq \epsilon \} \) in SAM learning, where \( T \) are adaptive scales derived from the theoretical framework, and we adopt the multi-step implementation.

In Proposition 3, we have \( \| \delta^{(i)} \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n_i} / G_i \). To make the scale of the virtual corruptions \( a^{(i)} \) proportional to the scale of \( \delta^{(i)} \), we should ensure that \( \| a^{(i)} \|_2 \propto \| \delta^{(i)} \|_2 \). Suppose \( a = \| a^{(i)} \|_2 / \sqrt{n_i} \) is the average scale of \( a^{(i)} \), we have \( a \propto T_i \epsilon \), we should ensure that

\[ \| a^{(i)} \|_2 = a \sqrt{n_i} \propto \| \delta^{(i)} \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n_i} / G_i. \tag{12} \]

and we can set \( T_i \epsilon \sqrt{n_i} \propto \sqrt{n_i} / G_i \), therefore \( T_i \propto 1 / G_i = \sqrt{n_i} / E_p(z) [\| \nabla a^{(i)}(\theta; z) \|_2^2] \).
We use $\|g(i)\|_2$ to replace $E_p(z) [\|\nabla\theta(i) \ell(\theta; z)\|_2^2]$, then our proposal is derived,

$$T(i) = \frac{\|g(i)\|_2}{\sqrt{n(i)}},$$  
(13)

Existing algorithms are mainly single-step based, we adopt the multi-step implementation inspired by multi-step adversarial parameter defense algorithm (Zhang et al., 2021), which optimizes

$$\theta = \arg\min_w E_B \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{K} \frac{L(w + a_k; B)}{K + 1} \right],$$  
(14)

where $a_0 = 0$. Suppose the $k$-th update of the corruption is $u_k = \arg\max_{u} |T^{-1}u|_p \leq \eta u \cdot T g_{k-1}$, which is generated based on $a_{k-1}$ and $g_{k-1} = \nabla_w L(w + a_{k-1}; B)$, where $\eta$ is the step size and following Zhang et al. (2021), we set $\eta = 1.5\epsilon/K$, then

$$u_k = \frac{\eta(T \text{sgn}(g_{k-1})) \odot [T g_{k-1}]_p^{-\frac{1}{\epsilon - 1}}}{\|T g_{k-1}]_p^{-\frac{1}{\epsilon - 1}}\|_p}.$$  
(15)

To get the $k$-th corruption $a_k$, we project the updated corruption $a_{k-1} + u_k$ into the set $S$,

$$a_k = \Pi_S(a_{k-1} + u_k),$$  
(16)

and the solutions to the commonly adopted $L_2$-norm and $L_{+\infty}$-norm constraints are:

$$\Pi_{\|T^{-1}v\|_2 \leq \epsilon}(v) = \min \{ \|T^{-1}v\|_2, \epsilon \} v;$$  
(17)

$$\Pi_{\|T^{-1}v\|_{+\infty} \leq \epsilon}(v) = T\text{clip}(T^{-1}v, -\epsilon, \epsilon).$$  
(18)

To summarize, we adopt the adaptive scale $T(i)$ according to the gradient strength and a multi-step implementation. It should be noted that even when $K = 1$, our multi-step implementation, which optimizes $(L(w) + L(w + a_1))/2$, is different from the single-step SAM implementation, which optimizes $L(w + a_1)$. However, when $K = 1$, they have similar speeds since they both require to generate $a_1$ and need two backward propagation processes. Our multi-step implementation, however, allows setting a larger $K$ for better generalization.

We name the proposed algorithm as the Gradient-Strength based Adaptive SAM (GA-SAM). The algorithm is shown in Algorithm 1. The proofs and theoretical details are in Appendix.

4 Experiments

In this section, we report the tasks, datasets, and implementation details. Main results are in Table 1.

**Algorithm 1 GA-SAM Algorithm**

**Require:** Parameters $w$; loss $L$ and dataset $D$; steps $K$; training iterations; batch size $|B|$.

1. Prepare batches $\{B\}$ and initialize $w$.
2. Calculate $T$ with $T(i) = \frac{\|g(i)\|_2}{\sqrt{n(i)} \sqrt{n(i)}}$.
3. while Training do
4. $a_0 \leftarrow 0$.
5. Calculate the initial loss: $L(w; B)$.
6. for $k = 1$ to $K$ do
7. Get $u_k = \frac{\eta(T \text{sgn}(g_{k-1})) \odot [T g_{k-1}]_p^{-\frac{1}{\epsilon - 1}}}{\|T g_{k-1}]_p^{-\frac{1}{\epsilon - 1}}\|_p}.$
8. Get $a_k \leftarrow \Pi_S(a_{k-1} + u_k)$ as Eq. (16).
9. Calculate the risk: $L(w + a_k; B)$.
10. end for
11. Update $w$ as minimizing Eq. (14).
12. end while

4.1 Tasks and Datasets

We adopt three typical neural networks and natural language tasks to validate the effectiveness of the proposed GA-SAM algorithm on NLP tasks.

On the text classification task, we adopt Convolution Neural Networks (CNN) (Kim, 2014) on the IMDB movie reviews dataset (IMDB) (Maas et al., 2011) with the accuracy (ACC) evaluation metric. On the language modeling task, we adopt Long Short-term Memory (LSTM) (Merity et al., 2017) networks on the English Penn TreeBank (PTB-LM) (Marcus et al., 1993) dataset with the perplexity (PPL) evaluation metric. On the neural machine translation task, we adopt the Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) model based on the Fairseq implementation (Ott et al., 2019) on IWSLT 15 English-Vietnamese (En-Vi) (Cettolo et al., 2015) and IWSLT 14 German-English (De-En) (Cettolo et al., 2014) datasets with the BLEU score evaluation metric. Compared with the classification and language modeling tasks, the datasets of the machine translation task are relatively large. Other details are in Appendix.

4.2 Implementations

We implement our proposed GA-SAM algorithm with a multi-step risk minimization, and set layer-wise adaptive scales $T(i) = \frac{\|g(i)\|_2}{\sqrt{n(i)} \sqrt{n(i)}}$. We also compare our proposed GA-SAM with other existing algorithms. The traditional SAM algorithm (Foret et al., 2020) adopts a single-step risk implementation and sets fixed scales. ASAM (Kwon et al., 2021) adopts a single-step
risk implementation and sets element-wise adaptive scales $T(i) = ||w(i)||$. Layer-SAM (Liu et al., 2021) adopts a single-step risk implementation and sets layer-wise adaptive scales $T(i) = ||w(i)||/||g(i)||$. The multi-step adversarial parameter defense algorithm (Zhang et al., 2021) adopts a multi-step risk implementation and sets fixed scales. We also try to combine these techniques and implement other possible variants of GA-SAM, and we conduct an ablation study to compare GA-SAM with these variants.

For a fair comparison, the settings of different SAM algorithms and variants are the same as the base models except for the SAM settings $(K, \epsilon, L_p, T(i))$. We grid search the optimal SAM hyper-parameters for each algorithm. The details of base models and hyper-parameters are in Appendix.

### 4.3 Main Results

The main results are shown in Table 1. Evidently, our proposed GA-SAM leads to significant performance gains over the base models.

| Approach | IMDB (ACC) | PTB-LM (PPL) |
|----------|------------|--------------|
| Baseline | 84.42±0.12 | 86.70±0.54   |
| SAM      | 84.75±0.31 (±0.33) | 89.66±0.25 (±2.96) | 30.79±0.15 (±0.19) | 35.61±0.18 (±0.20) |
| ASAM     | 85.05±0.22 (±0.63) | 90.08±0.24 (±3.38) | 30.81±0.24 (±0.21) | 35.56±0.17 (±0.15) |
| Layer-SAM| 85.27±0.19 (±0.83) | 89.82±0.10 (±3.12) | 30.70±0.27 (±0.10) | 35.78±0.08 (±0.37) |
| Multi-step Defense | 84.87±0.15 (±0.45) | 84.74±0.42 (±1.96) | 30.95±0.12 (±0.35) | 35.86±0.13 (±0.45) |
| Proposed GA-SAM | 86.11±0.22 (±1.69) | 84.52±0.26 (±2.18) | 31.15±0.29 (±0.55) | 35.95±0.15 (±0.54) |

Table 1: Results of baselines and different SAM algorithms. Results show the effectiveness of GA-SAM.

Table 2: Results of the ablation study. GA-SAM ($K = 1$) is compared to multiple variants. Results show that GA-SAM outperforms other variants, and gradient-strength based adaptive scales usually outperform other scales.

### 5 Analysis

In this section, we first conduct an ablation study and analyze the hyper-parameters. Then we illustrate the sharpness and Hessian spectra with GA-SAM and analyze the difference between CV and NLP learning to explain why NLP tasks need GA-SAM.

#### 5.1 Ablation Study

We implement the single-step variants, element-wise or model-wise variants, and variants with other scales $T(i)$ on IMDB and PTB-LM. The results of the ablation study are reported in Table 2.
| Approach | IMDB (ACC) | PTB-LM (PPL) |
|----------|------------|--------------|
| Baseline | 84.42±0.12 | 86.70±0.54   |

GA-SAM w/ diff. (with different) $K$:
- $K = 1$ | 86.11±0.22 (+1.69) | 84.52±0.26 (-2.18) |
- $K = 2$ | 85.83±0.23 (+1.41) | 84.48±0.52 (-2.22) |
- $K = 3$ | 84.97±0.23 (+0.55) | 84.14±0.29 (-2.56) |
- $K = 4$ | 77.55±3.25 (-6.87) | 84.05±0.23 (-2.65) |
- $K = 5$ | 70.49±5.10 (-13.9) | 84.59±0.36 (-2.11) |

w/ diff. $\epsilon (L_2)$:
- $\epsilon = 0.1 \times 10^{-2}$ | 84.93±0.27 (+0.51) | 85.24±0.40 (-1.46) |
- $\epsilon = 0.5 \times 10^{-3}$ | 85.11±0.22 (+0.69) | 84.90±0.09 (-1.80) |
- $\epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-3}$ | 85.36±0.26 (+0.94) | 84.91±0.17 (-1.79) |
- $\epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$ | 85.62±0.70 (+1.20) | 84.69±0.40 (-2.01) |
- $\epsilon = 10 \times 10^{-4}$ | 85.77±0.11 (+1.35) | 85.38±0.41 (-1.32) |
- $\epsilon = 50 \times 10^{-5}$ | 64.14±10.3 (-20.3) | 507.0±243 (+420) |

w/ diff. $\epsilon (L_\infty)$:
- $\epsilon = 0.2 \times 10^{-4}$ | 84.91±0.89 (+0.49) | 85.12±0.55 (-1.58) |
- $\epsilon = 0.5 \times 10^{-5}$ | 85.54±0.18 (+1.12) | 85.19±0.86 (-1.51) |
- $\epsilon = 0.8 \times 10^{-5}$ | 85.63±0.15 (+1.21) | 84.52±0.26 (-2.18) |
- $\epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-5}$ | 86.11±0.22 (+1.69) | 85.06±0.51 (-1.64) |
- $\epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ | 85.74±0.18 (+1.32) | 85.20±0.94 (-0.96) |
- $\epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-5}$ | 65.96±2.74 (-18.5) | 85.87±1.19 (-0.83) |

Table 3: Analysis of hyper-parameters. We implement GA-SAM with different $K$ and $\epsilon$ (under $L_2$ and $L_\infty$).

Experimental results show that layer-wise implementation outperforms element-wise or model-wide implementations and GA-SAM with the multi-step implementation ($K = 1$) outperforms GA-SAM with the single-step implementation.

For adaptive scales, the multi-step adversarial parameter defense algorithm (Zhang et al., 2021) adopts $T(i) = 1$. We also adopt $T(i) = \|w_i\|_2/\|g_i\|_2$ following Liu et al. (2021), and $T(i) = \|w_i\|_2$ following Kwon et al. (2021). We also try other variants with similar formulas. Experimental results show that GA-SAM outperforms other variants. Gradient-strength ($\|g_i\|_2$) based adaptive scales usually outperform other adaptive scales, and adaptive scales can enhance the multi-step adversarial parameter defense algorithm generally, which validates our theoretical framework.

5.2 Analysis of Hyper-parameters
We analyze the influence of hyper-parameters and settings in GA-SAM learning in Table 3.

On IMDB, adopting larger $K$ cannot improve the accuracy, while on PTB-LM, larger $K$ can achieve better PPL. The reason might be that on PTB-LM, the LSTM model with more drastic gradient changes needs more steps for better stability.

Table 4: The parameter robustness of baselines and GA-SAM on En-Vi. Minima with GA-SAM are more robust.

Both under $L_2$ and $L_\infty$ constraints, on both datasets, the performance can often be improved substantially with small $\epsilon$. However, when $\epsilon$ grows too large, it may harm the learning and the performance will drop. We also find that in this work, the best performance is achieved under $L_\infty$.

5.3 Sharpness and Parameter Robustness
As analyzed in our theoretical framework, flat minima tend to imply better generalization abilities. In this section, we validate that GA-SAM can help find flat minima, which tends to help improve the generalization abilities of models.

The sharpness near the local minima can be evaluated by the parameter robustness against parameter corruptions via the multi-step adversarial parameter corruption algorithm (Zhang et al., 2021). In Table 4, we evaluate the robustness of the baselines and models with GA-SAM against the $L_2$ or $L_\infty$ constrained parameter corruptions on En-Vi. We can see that models with GA-SAM are more robust than baselines, which implies that GA-SAM can help find flat minima. We also adopt the Fisher
| Approach  | En-Vi (BLEU) | De-En (BLEU) |
|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| Baseline  | 30.60±0.21   | 35.41±0.13   |
| SAM       | 30.79±0.15 (+0.19) | 35.61±0.18 (+0.20) |
| FreeLB    | 30.91±0.09 (+0.31) | 35.49±0.11 (+0.08) |
| GA-SAM    | 31.15±0.29 (+0.55) | 35.95±0.15 (+0.54) |

Table 5: Comparisons to FreeLB.

information matrix assumption (Pascanu and Bengio, 2013) to estimate the top 50 eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix to evaluate the sharpness of minima. As shown in Fig. 3, the eigenvalues of models with GA-SAM are lower, which illustrates that GA-SAM can help find flat minima.

5.4 Comparisons to Adversarial Training.

Some adversarial training algorithms improve the generalization ability of neural networks by optimizing the loss of virtual adversarial examples. In this section, we compare GA-SAM with FreeLB (Zhu et al., 2019), an existing high-performance algorithm for NLP tasks, on En-Vi and De-En. Detailed settings are in Appendix.

In Table 5, we can see that FreeLB (Zhu et al., 2019) can improve the accuracy of NLP models. The reasons that FreeLB (Zhu et al., 2019) works may lie in two aspects: (1) FreeLB adopts a multi-step minimization that is helpful for training stability; and (2) FreeLB only involves attacks on word embeddings while the ideal attack strengths for parameters in different layers vary a lot due to gradient vanishing and explosion in NLP models. Therefore, FreeLB does not need flexible scales as necessarily as SAM. However, GA-SAM can still outperform FreeLB.

5.5 Why NLP Tasks Need GA-SAM

Compared with the traditional SAM algorithm, GA-SAM adopts the multi-step risk minimization and gradient-strength based adaptive corruption strengths. From the ablation study, we can see that the multi-step risk minimization can enhance the traditional SAM algorithm on NLP tasks. It shows that NLP tasks do need GA-SAM for better stability and generalization with the multi-step risk minimization algorithm. The gradient-strength based adaptive corruption strengths can also enhance SAM algorithms since gradient strengths change drastically during different learning phases and gradient strengths vary in different layers.

5.6 Computational Complexity

Single-step implementations usually involve two forward and backward propagations, including one
for generating the corruption $a$ and another for optimizing the $L(w + a)$ loss function or the $L(w) + \lambda a^T \nabla_w L(w)$ loss function. Multi-step implementations involve $K + 1$ forward and backward propagations, including $K + 1$ times for forwarding and backwarding $\{L(w + a_k)\}_{0 \leq k \leq K}$.

Therefore, when $K = 1$, the neural network forward and backward propagation cost (involving two forward and backward propagations) of GA-SAM is the same as SAM or GA-SAM with the single-step implementation. In Table 2, we conduct a fair comparison between GA-SAM ($K = 1$) and SAM or GA-SAM with the single-step implementation (all involve two forward and backward propagations). GA-SAM still outperforms SAM and GA-SAM with the single-step implementation, which illustrates the effectiveness of our proposed GA-SAM and the multi-step implementation.

6 Related Work

6.1 Parameter Corruptions or Perturbations

Besides adversarial examples (Szegedy et al., 2014; Kurakin et al., 2017; Carlini and Wagner, 2017) and adversarial training (Goodfellow et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019; Madry et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019) concerning adversarial examples, existing studies also concerns small changes on neural network parameters, namely parameter corruptions (Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021) or perturbations (Garg et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020).

Existing studies research parameter corruptions or perturbations mainly for better generalization ability (Zheng et al., 2020; Forret et al., 2020; Kwon et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Du et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021), safety issue (Garg et al., 2020; Rakin et al., 2020), analyzing the loss change allocation to parameters (Lan et al., 2019), analyzing the compression (Arora et al., 2018) or parameter quantization (Nagel et al., 2019; Migacz, 2017; Alizadeh et al., 2020).

6.2 Generalization and Flat Minima

Existing studies (Dinh et al., 2017; Keskar et al., 2017; Chaudhari et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021) show that local minima that are robust against to parameter corruptions are usually flat minima, which tends to have better generalization ability. A line of Sharpness-aware Minimization (SAM) (Forret et al., 2020) algorithms drive parameters away from sharp minima via virtual parameter corruptions. Other researches acquire flat minima via adopting adaptive scales of parameter corruptions (Kwon et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021), rescaling parameter corruptions (Liu et al., 2021; Du et al., 2021), adopting a multi-step implementation (Zhang et al., 2021) or sharpness-aware learning rates (Yue et al., 2020).

7 Limitation and Broader Impact

Limitation. One limitation of our work is that, similar to other SAM learning, the hyper-parameters tuning, especially $\epsilon$, involves many numerical experiments, which is time costly and environmentally unfriendly. To settle this issue, we recommend researchers binary search the proper order of magnitude of $\epsilon$ first, and then grid search $\epsilon$ in a small range for a faster hyper-parameter search, instead of directly grid searching $\epsilon$ in a large range.

Broader Impact. Our work is beneficial for the security of NLP models since our work can help improve the robustness of NLP models against parameter corruptions, which can occur as random noises at the hardware level, quantization, or model compression. Our work also has negative social impacts. Our proposed GA-SAM can be utilized to enhance NLP models and improve the accuracy of base models. However, the hyper-parameters tuning, especially $\epsilon$, involves many numerical experiments, which is also a limitation of our work, and it is environmentally unfriendly.

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose a novel theoretical framework to analyze the relation between parameter corruptions and generalization abilities. Based on our proposed framework, we propose a Gradient-Strength based Adaptive Sharpness-Aware Minimization (GA-SAM) algorithm. Experimental results validate the effectiveness of GA-SAM compared to the traditional SAM algorithm and its variants. Further analyses also show that GA-SAM can help find flat minima and improve the generalization ability of neural networks.

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A Theoretical Details

A.1 Proofs of Theorem 1

Theorem 1. The distribution shifts of datasets $D$ and $D^*$ can be equivalently treated as a parameter corruption near the corresponding minima,

$$L(\theta^* + v; D^*) \approx L(\theta + v; D) + \text{Constant,}$$

(19)

where Constant $= L(\theta^*; D^*) - L(\theta; D)$. Let $\alpha = -\delta$, when $w$ is near $\theta$ and $\theta^*$, we have

$$L(w; D^*) \approx L(w + \alpha; D) + \text{Constant.}$$

(20)

Proof. Define $f(v) = L(\theta^* + v; D^*) - L(\theta + v; D)$, namely $L(\theta^* + v; D^*) = L(\theta + v; D) + f(v)$. First we prove there exists $C_H = \rho C_f^2 + LC_\delta = o(1)$ such that $\|H^* - H\|_2 \leq C_H$, where

$$\rho = E_{p(z)}[\|D^\beta(\theta; z)\|_2^2],$$

and $\|D^\beta(\theta^*; z) - D^\beta(\theta; z)\|_2 \leq L\|\theta^* - \theta\|_2$. We have,

\begin{align*}
\|H^* - H\|_2 & \leq \int_z \left\{ (p^*(z) - p(z)) \nabla^2 \ell(\theta; z) \\
& + p^*(z) \nabla^2 \ell(\theta^*; z) - \nabla^2 \ell(\theta; z) \right\} dz_2 \\
& \leq \left\{ E_{p(z)} \left[ D^\beta(z) - 1 \right] \nabla^2 \ell(\theta; z) \right\} dz_2 + \left\{ E_{p^*(z)} \left[ \nabla^2 \ell(\theta^*; z) - \nabla^2 \ell(\theta; z) \right] \right\} dz_2 \\
& \leq \left\{ E_{p(z)} [r(z)]^2 \right\} \|D(\theta; z)\|_2^2 + \left\{ E_{p(z)} \left[ \nabla^2 \ell(\theta; z) \right] \right\} dz_2 \\
& \leq \rho C_f^2 + LC_\delta = C_H.
\end{align*}

(21)

(22)

(23)

(24)

(25)

(26)

(27)

(28)

(29)

Consider the gradients,

$$\nabla_v f(v) = \nabla_v L(\theta^* + v; D^*) - \nabla_v L(\theta + v; D)$$

(30)

$$= (H^* - H)v + o(\|v\|_2),$$

(31)

$$\nabla_v L(\theta + v; D) = Hv + o(\|v\|_2),$$

(32)

$$\|\nabla_v f(v)\|_2 \leq \|\nabla_v L(\theta^* + v; D^*)\|_2 + o(\|v\|_2) \leq C_H + o(1),$$

(33)

(34)

(35)

(36)

Therefore, the change in the term $f(v)$ in the loss function can be omitted compared to the change in the loss function,

$$L(\theta^* + v; D^*) \approx L(\theta + v; D) + f(v),$$

(46)

(47)

(48)

(49)

Let $\alpha = -\delta, w = \theta^* + v$, we have,

$$L(w; D^*) \approx L(w + \alpha; D) + \text{Constant.}$$

(50)

A.2 Proofs of Theorem 2

Theorem 2. Define $r(z) = p^*(z)/p(z) - 1$. When the distribution shift is small enough, namely $r(z)$

$$\nabla f(0) = 0, \nabla^2 f(0) = H^* - H,$$

(37)

(38)

(39)

(40)

(41)

(42)

(43)

(44)

(45)
is small, we can estimate the parameter shift $\delta$ as,
$$
\delta = -H^{-1}E_p[r(z)\nabla \ell(\theta; z)] + o(\|\delta\|_2). \quad (51)
$$

**Proof.** With the change-of-measure technique, we have
$$
E_{p(z)}[r(z)] = 0. \quad (52)
$$
According to the definition,
$$
\nabla_\theta L(\theta; D) = \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) = 0. \quad (53)
$$

Conduct Taylor Expansion, we have,
$$
0 = \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) - \nabla_\theta L(\theta; D)
= \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) - (\nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D) - \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D)) - H(-\delta) + o(\|\delta\|_2). \quad (54)
$$

Solve it, we have,
$$
\delta = -H^{-1}(\nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) - \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D)) + o(\|\delta\|_2). \quad (55)
$$

Consider $\nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) - \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D)$,
$$
\nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D^*) - \nabla_\theta L(\theta^*; D)
= \int_z (p^*(z) - p(z)) \nabla_\theta \ell(\theta^*; z)dz
= \int_z (p^*(z) - 1)p(z)\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta^*; z)dz
= E_{p(z)}[r(z)\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)]
= E_{p(z)}[r(z)(\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z) + \nabla_\theta^2 \ell(\theta; z)\delta + o(\|\delta\|_2))] + o(\|\delta\|_2),
$$

where the term $r(z)\nabla_\theta^2 \ell(\theta; z)\delta = o(\|\delta\|_2)$ since the distribution shift $r(z) = o(1)$. To conclude,
$$
\delta = -H^{-1}E_p[r(z)\nabla \ell(\theta; z)] + o(\|\delta\|_2). \quad (56)
$$

---

### A.3 Proofs of Propositions

**Proposition 1.** Suppose the loss $L(w; D)$ is $\mu$-strongly convex, and $D_f(p^*||p) \leq C_f$, there exists
$$
C_\delta = \frac{1}{\mu}(1 + \eta)p + \eta\mu, \quad (57)
$$

such that $\|\delta\|_2 \leq C_\delta$, namely $C_\delta$ is a upper bound. \[ \Box \]

---

**Proof.** With the change-of-measure technique, we have:
$$
E_{p(z)}[r(z)] = 0. \quad (68)
$$

Then
$$
D_f(p^*||p) = E_{p(z)}[f(1 + r(z))] \quad (69)
= E_{p(z)}[a_1 r + a_2 |r|^2 + o(r)] \quad (70)
= (a_2 + o(1))E_{p(z)}[|r|^2] \leq C_f. \quad (71)
$$

Therefore,
$$
E_{p(z)}[|r|^2] \leq \frac{1 + o(1)}{a_2}C_f. \quad (72)
$$

According to the upper bound of $E_{p(z)}[|r|^2]$,
$$
\frac{\|E_{p(z)}[r(z)\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)]\|_2^2}{\|E_{p(z)}[\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)]\|_2^2} \leq \frac{(1 + o(1))C_f}{a_2}E_{p(z)}[\|\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)\|_2^2]. \quad (73)
$$

Therefore,
$$
\mu\|\delta\|_2 \leq \|H\delta\|_2 \quad (74)
= \|E_{p(z)}[r(z)\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)]\|_2 \quad (75)
\leq \sqrt{\frac{(1 + o(1))C_f}{a_2}E_{p(z)}[\|\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)\|_2^2]. \quad (76)
$$

There exists
$$
C_\delta = \frac{1 + o(1)}{\mu} \sqrt{\frac{C_f}{a_2}E_{p(z)}[\|\nabla_\theta \ell(\theta; z)\|_2^2]. \quad (77)
$$

such that $\|\delta\|_2 \leq C_\delta$. \[ \Box \]

---

**Proposition 2.** Suppose the mixed distribution of $D_{mix}$ is $\mu_{mix} = (1 - \eta)p + \eta p^*$, then we have $D_f(p_{mix}||p) \leq C_{mix} = \eta^2C_f$. Denote $\theta_{mix}$ as the optimal parameter on $D_{mix}$, $\delta_{mix} = \theta_{mix} - \theta$, then we have:
$$
\frac{\|\delta_{mix}\|_2}{\|\theta\|_2} = \frac{C_{mix}}{C_\delta} = \frac{\eta^2}{\mu} + o(1). \quad (80)
$$

**Proof.**
$$
\delta_{mix} = \frac{p_{mix}(z)}{p(z)} - 1 = \eta r(z). \quad (81)
\] \[ \Box \]
Proposition 3. Define the average gradient strength as $G = \mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\| \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z) \|_2] / \sqrt{n}$, and the average gradient strength of group $i$ as $G_{(i)} = \mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\| \nabla_{\theta_{(i)}} \ell(\theta; z) \|_2] / \sqrt{m_{(i)}}$, then
\[
\| \delta \|_2 \sim \frac{\sqrt{n}}{G}, \quad \| \delta_{(i)} \|_2 \sim \frac{\sqrt{m_{(i)}}}{G_{(i)}}. \tag{82}
\]

Proof. Suppose $\lambda$ denotes the average values of eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix, according to the average gradient strength of group $G$ Proposition 3. Define the average gradient strength
\[
H = \mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z)^T], \tag{83}
\]
\[
\rho = \frac{\text{tr}(H)}{n} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\text{tr}(\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z)^T)]}{n} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\| \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z) \|^2_2]}{n} \propto G^2. \tag{86}
\]

We have,
\[
H \delta = -\mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[r(z) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z)] + o(\| \delta \|_2), \tag{87}
\]
\[
\| H \delta \|_2 \propto \lambda \| \delta \|_2 \propto G^2 \| \delta \|_2, \tag{88}
\]
\[
\| \mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[r(z) \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta; z)] \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n} G. \tag{89}
\]

Therefore,
\[
G^2 \| \delta \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n} G, \tag{90}
\]
\[
\| \delta \|_2 \propto \sqrt{n} G. \tag{91}
\]

Assume $\partial^2 \mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{D})/(\partial \theta_{(i)} \partial \theta_{(j)}) = 0$ for $i \neq j$, namely $H = \text{diag}\{H_{(1)}, H_{(2)}, \ldots, H_{(l)}\}$, where $H_{(i)} = \mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[\nabla_{\theta_{(i)}} \ell(\theta; z) \nabla_{\theta_{(i)}} \ell(\theta; z)^T]$, then
\[
H_{(i)} \delta_{(i)} = -\mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[r(z) \nabla_{\theta_{(i)}} \ell] + o(\| \delta_{(i)} \|_2), \tag{92}
\]
\[
\| \delta_{(i)} \|_2 \propto \frac{\sqrt{m_{(i)}}}{G_{(i)}}. \tag{93}
\]

A.4 Details of Multi-step Implementation

Zhang et al. (2021) give the close-formed solution of $u_{k+1}$ under the constraint $\| u \|_p = \eta$,
\[
u_{k+1} = \arg \max_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \| g_k^T u \|_p = \eta,
\]
\[
\eta \left( \text{sgn}(g_k) \circ \frac{g_k^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\| g_k^{\frac{1}{p-1}} \|_p} \right). \tag{95}
\]

When the constraint is $S = \{u : \| T^{-1} u \|_p = \eta\}$, $g_k^T u = (T g_k^T)(T^{-1} u)$, namely
\[
T^{-1} u_{k+1} = \eta (\text{sgn}(T g_k) \circ |T g_k|^{\frac{1}{p-1}}) \frac{\| T g_k \|_p^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\| T g_k \|_p}, \tag{96}
\]

Therefore,
\[
u_{k+1} = \eta (\text{sgn}(g_k) \circ |T g_k|^{\frac{1}{p-1}}) \frac{\| T g_k \|_p^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\| T g_k \|_p}. \tag{97}
\]

To get the $k$-th corruption $\alpha_k$, we project the updated corruption $\alpha_{k-1} + u_k$ into the set $S$. Zhang et al. (2021) give the projecting functions,
\[
\Pi_S(v) = \min\{\| v \|_2, \epsilon \} \frac{v}{\| v \|_2} \quad (p = 2); \tag{98}
\]
\[
\Pi_S(v) = \text{clip}(v, -\epsilon, \epsilon) \quad (p = +\infty); \tag{99}
\]
similarly, when $S = \{u : \| T^{-1} u \|_{p \leq \epsilon}\}$, we may assume $T^{-1} \Pi_S(v) = \Pi_S(T^{-1} v)$. Suppose $x = T^{-1} v$, we have,
\[
T^{-1} \Pi_{\| x \|_2 \leq \epsilon}(v) = \min\{\| x \|_2, \epsilon \} \frac{x}{\| x \|_2}; \tag{100}
\]
\[
T^{-1} \Pi_{\| x \|_{+\infty} \leq \epsilon}(v) = \text{clip}(x, -\epsilon, \epsilon). \tag{101}
\]

Therefore,
\[
\Pi_{\| T^{-1} v \|_2 \leq \epsilon}(v) = \min\{\| T^{-1} v \|_2, \epsilon \} \frac{v}{\| T^{-1} v \|_2}; \tag{102}
\]
\[
\Pi_{\| T^{-1} v \|_{+\infty} \leq \epsilon}(v) = T \text{clip}(T^{-1} v, -\epsilon, \epsilon). \tag{103}
\]

B Datasets and Baseline Implementations

In this section, we introduce the datasets and baseline implementations. The models enhanced with SAM algorithms adopt the same hyper-parameters to baselines except for the SAM hyper-parameter settings ($K, T_{(i)}, \epsilon, L_p$). All experiments are conducted on NVIDIA TITAN RTX GPUs. We conduct every experiment for 4 runs and report the mean and validation results.

B.1 IMDB

We implement the base model TextCNN (Kim, 2014) on the IMDB movie reviews dataset (IMDB) (Maas et al., 2011). The reviews are classified into 3 classes, namely the positive reviews, negative reviews, and neutral reviews. The training size is 25000, the validation size is 25000, and the test size is 50000. In the preprocessing of the text, the vocab size is 30000, and the text length is 200.
The embedding size is 500. In TextCNN, the filter window sizes are 3, 4, and 5, with 500 feature maps each. The optimizer is Adam with a learning rate of $10^{-3}$ and a batch size of 64. We train models for 10 epochs and test the accuracy on the checkpoint with the best valid accuracy.

**B.2 PTB-LM**

We implement a 2-layer LSTM as a language model following Merity et al. (2017) on the word-level Penn TreeBank dataset (PTB)\(^4\)(Marcus et al., 1993). In the preprocessing of the text, the vocab size is 10000. We use the SGD optimizer with an initial learning rate of 50 and a gradient norm clip of 0.25. We adopt a learning rate decay of 0.5 after 10 epochs. The input and output embeddings are tied. The embedding size is 500, and the hidden size is 500. We train models for 20 epochs and test the perplexity on the checkpoint with the lowest valid perplexity.

**B.3 En-Vi**

We implement the transformer model following the fairseq Ott et al. (2019) “transformer_wmt_en_de” implementation as our baseline model on the En-Vi dataset, which is provided by the IWSLT 2015 Evaluation Campaign (Cettolo et al., 2015). The training size is 133K, the validation set is TED tst2012 with a size of 1553 sentences, and the test set is TED tst2013 with a size of 1268 sentences. In the preprocessing of the text, the English and Vietnamese vocabulary sizes are 17200 and 7800 respectively. We use the same hyper-parameters following fairseq (Ott et al., 2019). We train the model for 52 epochs and adopt a checkpoint average of 10. In testing, We adopt the BLEU metric and the beam size of the model inference is 5.

**B.4 De-En**

We implement the transformer model following the fairseq Ott et al. (2019) “transformer_wmt_en_de” implementation as our baseline model on the De-En dataset, which is provided by the IWSLT 2014 Evaluation Campaign (Cettolo et al., 2014). We use the same dataset splits and the same hyper-parameters following fairseq (Ott et al., 2019). The training, validation, and test sizes are 153K, 7K, and 7K, respectively. In the preprocessing of the text, we adopt the BPE technique, and the German and English vocabulary sizes are 8848 and 6632 respectively. We train the model for 70 epochs and adopt a checkpoint average of 10. In testing, We adopt the BLEU metric and the beam size of the model inference is 5.

**C Experimental Settings**

In this section, we report experimental settings in the paper, including analytic trial details and hyper-parameters of different algorithms.

**C.1 Analytic Trial Settings**

We conduct a 3-layer Multi-Layer Perceptrons (MLP, sizes are 784, 100, 10, 10) on the MNIST dataset (LeCun et al., 1998). The test minimum $\theta^*$ is fine-tuned from the training minimum $\theta$, and $\delta = \theta^* - \theta$. We utilize linear interpolation to plot $\alpha \theta + (1 - \alpha) \theta^*$ for different $\alpha$, for visualizing the training loss, test loss and the shifted training loss. It can be concluded that the shifted training loss is similar to the test loss near the local minimum. To visualize the relation between $\| \delta \|_2$ and the distribution shift. We conduct 100 trials with the same training set $D$ and different mixed test sets $D^{mix}$ (mixed with $(1 - \eta)$ of the training data from $D$ and $\eta$ of the test data from $D^*$). Here the test minimum is fine-tuned from the training minimum and $\delta = \theta^* - \theta$. $\eta$ can be utilized to measure the strength of the distribution shift between $D$ and $D^{mix}$. $\eta = 1\%, 2\%, 3\%, \ldots, 99\%, 100\%$. Results show that there exists an approximately linear relationship between $\| \delta \|_2$ and distribution shift strengths.

**C.2 Main Result Settings**

We try both $L_2$ and $L_{+\infty}$. For $\epsilon$, we first binary search proper order of magnitude, for example $10^{-5}$ to $10^{-4}$, then we grid search $\epsilon$, for example, \{1 × $10^{-5}$, 2 × $10^{-5}$, 5 × $10^{-5}$, 8 × $10^{-5}$, 1 × $10^{-4}$, 2 × $10^{-4}$, 5 × $10^{-4}$, 8 × $10^{-4}$\}.

**SAM on Transformer Models.** The Transformer models need larger $K$ and more detailed hyper-parameter tuning since SAM learning on the Transformer is unstable. Besides, Zhang et al. (2021) propose that SAM learning in the early stage may harm the learning. In our GA-SAM, $\| g \|_2$ is large and we can omit the SAM learning in the early stage. Therefore, we adopt $K = 2$ in multi-step implementations, and following Zhang et al. (2021), we adopt a start epoch of 30 for Transformer models.
C.2.1 IMDB
On the IMDB dataset, we adopt $K = 1$. On SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-5}$. On ASAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. On Layer-SAM, $L_2, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-5}$. On Multi-step Defense, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-5}$. On GA-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-4}$.

C.2.2 PTB-LM
On the PTB-LM dataset, we adopt $K = 1$. On SAM, $L_2, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. On ASAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$. On Layer-SAM, $L_2, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-6}$. On Multi-step Defense, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-3}$. On GA-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$.

C.2.3 En-Vi
On the En-Vi dataset, we adopt $K = 2$ in multi-step implementations, and following Zhang et al. (2021), we adopt a start epoch of 30 and similar hyper-parameters. On SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1.2 \times 10^{-3}$. On ASAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$. On Layer-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-3}$. On Multi-step Defense, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$. On GA-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 0.9$.

C.2.4 De-En
On the De-En dataset, we adopt $K = 2$ in multi-step implementations, and following Zhang et al. (2021), we adopt a start epoch of 30 and similar hyper-parameters. On SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$. On ASAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-4}$. On Layer-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 3 \times 10^{-3}$. On Multi-step Defense, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-4}$. On GA-SAM, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 0.8$.

C.3 Ablation Study Settings
In this section, we report hyper-parameter settings in the ablation study.

C.3.1 IMDB
On the IMDB dataset, on single-step implementation, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-5}$. On element-wise implementation, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-6}$. On model-wise implementation, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-5}$. For $T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2 / \|g(i)\|_2$, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-5}$. For $T(i) = 1 / \|g(i)\|_2$, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-5}$. For $T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2 / \sqrt{\|g(i)\|_2}$, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. For $T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2$, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-6}$.

C.3.2 PTB-LM
On the PTB-LM dataset, on single-step implementation, $L_2, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. On element-wise implementation, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-6}$. On model-wise implementation, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-6}$. For $T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2 / \|g(i)\|_2$, $L_2, \epsilon = 2 \times 10^{-5}$. For $T(i) = 1 / \|g(i)\|_2$, $L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 5 \times 10^{-6}$.

C.4 Adversarial Training Settings
In this section, we report hyper-parameter settings in the study of adversarial training.

C.4.1 En-Vi
On the En-Vi dataset, we adopt $K = 1$ and adopt a start epoch of 30. We adopt the $L_{+\infty}$ constraint on virtual attacks on word embeddings and grid search $\epsilon$ in $\{0.001, 0.002, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5\}$. The best configuration is $\epsilon = 0.02$.

C.4.2 De-En
On the De-En dataset, we adopt $K = 3$ and adopt a start epoch of 30. We adopt the $L_{+\infty}$ constraint on virtual attacks on word embeddings and grid search $\epsilon$ in $\{0.001, 0.002, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5\}$. The best configuration is $\epsilon = 0.005$. 

\[ T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2 / \sqrt{\|g(i)\|_2}, L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-4}. \]
\[ T(i) = \|w(i)\|_2, L_{+\infty}, \epsilon = 1 \times 10^{-7}. \]