

A Learning Rate Path Switching Training Paradigm for Version Updates of Large Language Models

Zhihao Wang^{1*} Shiyu Liu^{3*} Jianheng Huang¹ Zheng Wang²
Yixuan Liao² Xiaoxin Chen² Junfeng Yao¹ Jinsong Su^{1,3,4†}

¹School of Informatics, Xiamen University, China ²vivo AI Lab, China

³Institute of Artificial Intelligence, Xiamen University, China

⁴Shanghai Artificial Intelligence Laboratory, China

{zhwang, liushiyu213}@stu.xmu.edu.cn jssu@xmu.edu.cn

Abstract

Due to the continuous emergence of new data, version updates have become an indispensable requirement for Large Language Models (LLMs). The training paradigms for version updates of LLMs include pre-training from scratch (PTFS) and continual pre-training (CPT). Preliminary experiments demonstrate that PTFS achieves better pre-training performance, while CPT has lower training cost. Moreover, their performance and training cost gaps widen progressively with version updates. To investigate the underlying reasons for this phenomenon, we analyze the effect of learning rate adjustments during the two stages of CPT: preparing an initialization checkpoint and continual pre-training based on this checkpoint. We find that a large learning rate in the first stage and a complete learning rate decay process in the second stage are crucial for version updates of LLMs. Hence, we propose a learning rate path switching training paradigm. Our paradigm comprises one main path, where we pre-train a LLM with the maximal learning rate, and multiple branching paths, each of which corresponds to an update of the LLM with newly-added training data. Extensive experiments demonstrate the effectiveness and generalization of our paradigm. Particularly, when training four versions of LLMs, our paradigm reduces the total training cost to 58% compared to PTFS, while maintaining comparable pre-training performance.

1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been significant progress in the research of Large Language Models (LLMs). By performing large-scale training on massive datasets, LLMs have demonstrated remarkable capabilities, contributing to various fields (Wu et al.,

2023; Cui et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2024). However, the training cost of LLMs is significantly higher than that of traditional NLP models. Particularly, in practical applications, LLMs have to face the need for *version updates* due to the continuous emergence of new data, which exacerbates the training cost of LLMs. Therefore, reducing training cost while maintaining optimal pre-training performance across different versions has become one of the pivotal challenges for LLMs.

Generally, training paradigms applicable for version updates of LLMs can be categorized into two types: 1) Pre-Training From Scratch (PTFS): retraining new versions of LLMs on both old and new data. The well-known LLMs including LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023a,b), GLM (Zeng et al., 2023), and Baichuan (Yang et al., 2023) are updated via this paradigm. 2) Continual Pre-Training (CPT): further pre-training new versions of LLMs on only new data based on the checkpoints from old versions. This paradigm is often utilized in resource constrained scenarios, such as limited computational resources or unavailability of old data.

In this paper, we firstly conduct preliminary experiments to compare the above two paradigms in version updates of LLMs. Compared with PTFS, CPT uses previous checkpoints for initialization, resulting in lower total training cost. However, CPT suffers from inferior pre-training performance, which becomes increasingly serious as version updates progress. To study the reasons for this phenomenon, we break down the CPT process into two stages: the first stage involves preparing an initialization checkpoint, and the second stage performing continual pre-training based on this checkpoint. Then, we conduct two groups of experiments to analyze the effect of learning rate adjustments during these two stages, leading to two conclusions: 1) the larger the learning rate in the first stage, the better the performance of updated LLMs in the second

Work was done when Zhihao Wang, Shiyu Liu and Jianheng Huang were interning at vivo AI Lab.

* Equal contribution.

† Corresponding author.

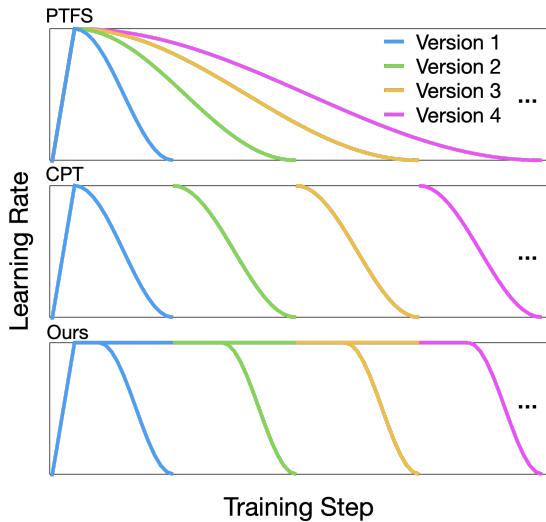


Figure 1: The learning rate curves of cosine learning rate schedule under PTFS, CPT¹ and our paradigm, all of which are used to update four versions of LLMs. Here, different color curves represent different version updates of LLMs.

stage; 2) for the second stage, a complete learning rate decay process is beneficial to ensure the optimal performance of updated LLMs.

Based on the above analyses, we propose a learning rate path switching training paradigm for version updates of LLMs. To better illustrate our paradigm, we take the most commonly used cosine learning rate schedule (Smith and Topin, 2019) as an example, and plot the learning rate curves of PTFS, CPT and our paradigm in Figure 1. Please note that our paradigm is also applicable to other schedules, such as Knee (Iyer et al., 2023), and multi-step (Bi et al., 2024) learning rate schedules.

In short, the learning rate curve of our paradigm comprises one main path and multiple branching paths, each of which corresponds to a version update of LLM. As shown by the main path in Figure 1, we pre-train a LLM with the maximal learning rate, providing superior initialization checkpoints for subsequent continual pre-training. When we want to update the LLM with newly-added training data, we perform continual pre-training on the LLM with a dynamically-adjusted learning rate. Referring back to Figure 1, after a few steps of training with the maximal learning rate, the learning rate fast decays to its minimum, which

¹In fact, multiple CPT variants can be used for version updates of LLMs. We compare these variants in Appendix B and retain only the best-performing variant in the subsequent experiments.

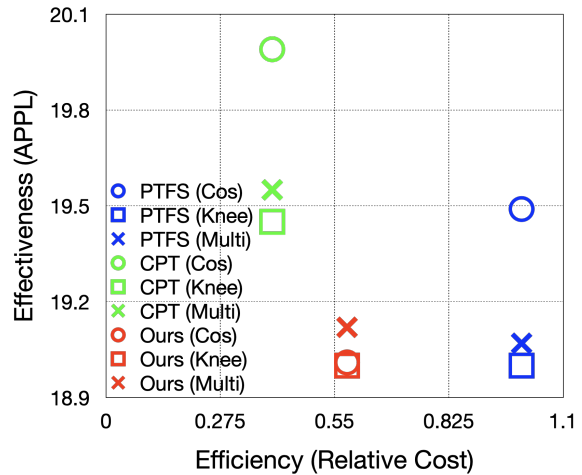


Figure 2: The comparison of different training paradigms. “APPL” (\downarrow) denotes the average perplexity of LLMs across different versions, “Relative Cost” (\downarrow) is the ratio of the total training steps across different versions of each paradigm to the total training steps of PTFS. The lower left corner achieves the best trade-off.

effectively ensures the training performance of the updated LLM. Meanwhile, on the main path, we continue to pre-train the original checkpoint with the maximal learning rate, facilitating subsequent LLM updates.

Our paradigm better balances model performance and training cost compared to the other two paradigms, as detailed in Figure 2. To summarize, our main contributions are as follows:

- We conduct preliminary experiments to compare PTFS and CPT for version updates of LLMs. Furthermore, our in-depth analyses show that initially using a large learning rate and subsequent learning rate decay are crucial for improving the performance of updated LLMs.
- We propose a learning rate path switching paradigm for version updates of LLMs. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first attempt to explore how to balance model performance and training cost for version updates of LLMs.
- Experimental results and in-depth analyses strongly demonstrate the effectiveness and generalization of our paradigm. Particularly, when training four versions of LLMs, our paradigm achieves comparable pre-training performance to PTFS with only 58% of the total training cost.

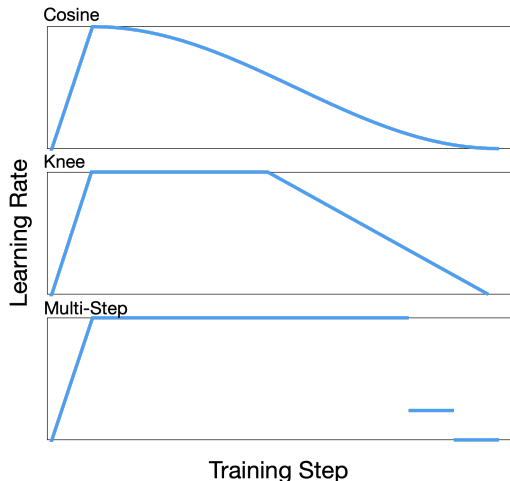


Figure 3: The learning rate curves of cosine (Smith and Topin, 2019), Knee (Iyer et al., 2023), and multi-step (Bi et al., 2024) learning rate schedules.

2 Preliminary Study

In this section, we first compare the performance of PTFS and CPT in version updates of LLMs, and then analyze the underlying reasons for their performance gap.

2.1 Setup

Model In this study, we use LLaMA-1.2B (Touvron et al., 2023a,b) as our base LLM and train for four versions. When employing PTFS, the total training steps for these four versions are 10K, 20K, 30K, and 40K, respectively. For CPT, each LLM update only requires 10K training steps. We train all LLMs with a batch size of 1.05M tokens.

Learning Rate Schedule We conduct experiments with three learning rate schedules: cosine (Smith and Topin, 2019), Knee (Iyer et al., 2023), and multi-step (Bi et al., 2024) learning rate schedules.² The specific learning rate curves of these schedules are plotted in Figure 3. Notably, cosine learning rate schedule is the most commonly used one for training LLMs (Zhao et al., 2023), and both Knee and multi-step learning rate schedules can achieve comparable or even superior performance than cosine learning rate schedule. For all learning rate schedules, we implement a linear warm-up phase of 2K steps (approximately 2.1B tokens). Besides, we set the maximum and minimum learning rates for these schedules to $3e-4$ and

²We also evaluate constant and inverse square root learning rate schedules, both of which yield inferior performance compared to the three selected schedules.

LRS	TP	Cost	PPL		
			V2	V3	V4
Cos	PTFS	1.00×	20.84	19.28	18.36
	CPT	0.40×	21.11	19.70	18.87
	Δ	-	-0.27	-0.42	-0.51
Knee	PTFS	1.00×	20.22	18.80	17.98
	CPT	0.40×	20.56	19.27	18.52
	Δ	-	-0.34	-0.47	-0.54
Multi	PTFS	1.00×	20.28	18.88	18.06
	CPT	0.40×	20.62	19.37	18.65
	Δ	-	-0.34	-0.49	-0.59

Table 1: The comparison between PTFS and CPT for training four versions of LLMs. “LRS” and “TP” indicate learning rate schedule and training paradigm, respectively. “V*” means the *-th version of LLM. Notably, regardless of PTFS or CPT, the learning rate curve and pre-training performance of the first version remain identical. Thus, we do not report the performance of the first version in all experiments.

$3e-5$, respectively.

Dataset Similar to LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023a,b), our training corpus comprises a mixture of data from publicly available sources, including code, paper, Wikipedia, books, mathematics, CommonCrawl and C4, webpage, translation and others. In total, our training data contains 764M English and Chinese samples. Due to the limitation of GPU resource, we do not experiment with the entire dataset. To simulate the scenario of version updates, we perform non-replacement sampling on the training data to obtain 10.5B tokens as the newly-added data for each update. Hence, when using PTFS, we train four versions of LLMs from scratch with 10.5B, 21B, 31.5B, and 42B tokens, respectively. By contrast, using CPT to update the LLMs only involves the newly-added 10.5B tokens each time.

Evaluation Following previous studies (Qin et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2023; Bi et al., 2024), we mainly use perplexity (PPL) to evaluate the pre-training performance of LLMs. Meanwhile, we also focus on the training cost of each paradigm, defined as the total training steps required for different versions.

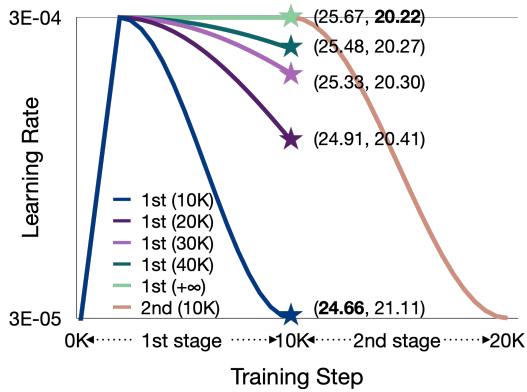


Figure 4: The effect of learning rate adjustment in the first stage. In the first stage, we vary the cosine cycle length as 10K, 20K, 30K, 40K and $+\infty$ steps, respectively, where the checkpoints at the 10K-th steps are selected as the initialization ones for the subsequent 10K-steps continual pre-training. “(-,-)” indicates the PPLs of the initialization checkpoint and corresponding updated LLM.

2.2 Comparison Between PTFS and CPT

Experimental results are shown in Table 1. It is evident that CPT has lower training cost, whereas PTFS achieves superior performance. More importantly, as the version updates progress, the performance gap between PTFS and CPT progressively widens.

To understand the underlying cause of this phenomenon, we focus on the learning rate, the key distinction between PTFS and CPT during version updates of LLMs. Using the cosine learning rate schedule, we conduct two groups of experiments to examine its impact on updated LLM performance across the two stages of CPT: 1) preparing an initialization checkpoint, and 2) continual pre-training based on this checkpoint.

Effect of Learning Rate Adjustment During the First Stage As depicted in Figure 4, in the first group of experiments, we vary the cosine cycle length across 10K, 20K, 30K, 40K, and $+\infty$ steps, respectively. The checkpoints at the 10K-th steps are selected as initialization checkpoints for the second stage. Then, we continually pre-train LLMs for 10K steps, where the learning rate gradually decays from its maximum to minimum. Referring back to Figure 4, we observe that **with the increase in the cosine cycle length during the first stage, the performance of the initialization checkpoint drops, whereas its corresponding updated LLM performs better**. Therefore, we conclude that a

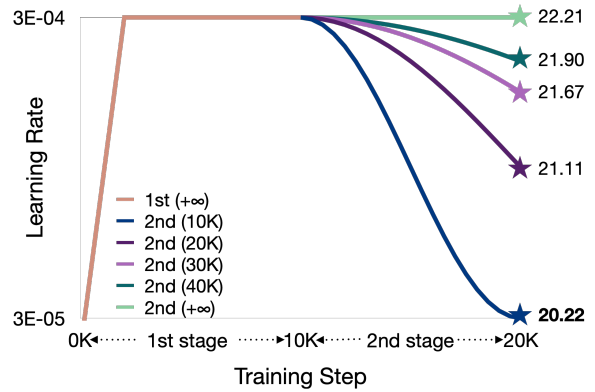


Figure 5: The effect of learning rate adjustment in the second stage. In the first stage, we directly use the maximal learning rate after warm-up. During the second stage, we try cosine cycle length with 10K, 20K, 30K, 40K and $+\infty$ steps, respectively, where the PPLs of LLMs at the 20K-th steps are compared.

large learning rate in the first stage benefits continual pre-training in the second stage.

Effect of Learning Rate Adjustment During the Second Stage Based on the above conclusion, we directly set the cosine cycle length as $+\infty$ steps in the first stage, as illustrated in Figure 5. Then, during continual pre-training, we experiment with the cosine learning rate schedule using different cosine cycle lengths: 10K, 20K, 30K, 40K, $+\infty$ steps, and report the performance of updated LLMs at the 20K-th steps. As shown in Figure 5, it is evident that **a complete learning rate decay process enables the updated LLMs to achieve the best performance**. This finding is consistent with the results from the first group of experiments mentioned above. In other words, when the learning rate undergoes complete decay during the first stage, the performance of the initialization checkpoint is also optimal.

Based on the findings of the above two groups of experiments, we conclude that CPT is difficult to achieve good performance across different versions of LLMs. Specifically, according to the findings from the second group of experiments, if the current LLM is expected to achieve optimal performance, its learning rate in the second stage should undergo a complete decay process. However, such decay results in a lower learning rate in the first stage of the subsequent update, further degrading the performance of the updated LLM.

LRS	α	Cost	PPL		
			V2	V3	V4
Cos	0.2	0.49 \times	20.34	19.13	18.44
	0.4	0.53 \times	20.16	18.91	18.21
	0.6	0.58 \times	20.13	18.81	18.09
	0.8	0.62 \times	20.15	18.77	18.02
Knee	0.2	0.49 \times	20.33	19.12	18.42
	0.4	0.53 \times	20.16	18.91	18.20
	0.6	0.58 \times	20.12	18.81	18.08
	0.8	0.62 \times	20.15	18.77	18.01
Multi	0.2	0.49 \times	20.33	19.08	18.37
	0.4	0.53 \times	20.29	18.91	18.16
	0.6	0.58 \times	20.40	18.88	18.09
	0.8	0.62 \times	20.63	18.91	18.06

Table 2: The effect of hyper-parameter α on the pre-training performance and training cost of our paradigm. Experiments are conducted on LLaMA-1.2B.

3 Our Paradigm

Based on the conclusions from Section 2, we propose a learning rate path switching paradigm for version updates of LLMs in this section. The training cost of our paradigm is lower than that of PTFS, and it achieves significantly better performance than CPT, with performance even comparable to that of PTFS.

3.1 Paradigm Overview

Let us revisit Figure 1, which shows the learning rate curves of our paradigm applied to the cosine learning rate schedule. Please note that our paradigm is also applicable to other schedules, such as Knee and multi-step and so on. The learning rate curve of our paradigm comprises one main path and multiple branching paths, each of which corresponds to one version update. On the main path, we pre-train the LLM from scratch with the maximal learning rate, providing initialization checkpoints for subsequent version updates. When we want to obtain an updated LLM, we directly use the current checkpoint of the main path as the initialization one, and then perform continual pre-training. During this process, the learning rate undergoes a complete fast-decaying process, effectively ensuring the performance of the updated LLM. Meanwhile, on the main path, we still use newly-added data to pre-train the existing checkpoint with the maximal learning rate, so as to facilitate subsequent updates.

LRS	TP	Cost	PPL		
			V2	V3	V4
Cos	PTFS	1.00 \times	20.84	19.28	18.36
	CPT	0.40 \times	21.11	19.70	18.87
	Ours	0.58 \times	20.13	18.81	18.09
Knee	PTFS	1.00 \times	20.22	18.80	17.98
	CPT	0.40 \times	20.56	19.27	18.52
	Ours	0.58 \times	20.12	18.81	18.08
Multi	PTFS	1.00 \times	20.28	18.88	18.06
	CPT	0.40 \times	20.62	19.37	18.65
	Ours	0.58 \times	20.40	18.88	18.09

Table 3: The comparison of different paradigms for training four versions of LLaMA-1.2B.

Obviously, our paradigm has lower training cost than PTFS, as it conducts continual pre-training based on the initialization checkpoints from the main path. Unlike CPT, these checkpoints are obtained through training from scratch with the maximum learning rate, which enables the updated LLMs to achieve better performance, as analyzed in Section 2. The following experiments fully confirm the superiority of our paradigm in balancing model performance and training cost.

3.2 Time Complexity Analysis

To further compare different training paradigms in terms of training cost, we define their time complexity functions as the total training steps of version updates.

Before providing our definitions, we first introduce two symbols to facilitate the subsequent descriptions: 1) N_v : the number of version updates of LLMs; 2) T : the amount of data added for each update, assuming it remains consistent. When updating the i -th version of LLMs, PTFS requires updating iT ($1 \leq i \leq N_v$) steps each time, CPT needs to train for T steps, and our paradigm requires training $T + \alpha T$ steps, where α ($0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$) controls the proportion of fast-decaying steps to the total steps in each update.

Formally, the time complexity functions of PTFS, CPT and our paradigm can be described

Ver.	TP	C ³	GSM8K	MMLU	CSL	C-EVAL	BBH	CMMLU	GAOKAO	AGIEval	AVG
V2	PTFS	38.00	4.63	24.00	38.25	30.09	17.43	25.37	18.10	14.59	23.38
	CPT	37.00	4.09	23.52	35.11	27.42	18.55	25.63	18.86	13.40	22.62
	Ours	38.60	5.08	22.94	39.08	28.38	20.79	24.88	18.48	14.73	23.66
V3	PTFS	40.30	3.34	24.33	39.17	25.85	17.11	25.30	22.03	14.34	23.53
	CPT	38.30	4.70	23.32	36.40	28.38	21.11	24.76	17.85	13.47	23.14
	Ours	42.10	4.63	23.22	34.91	29.35	19.70	24.73	19.24	14.90	23.64
V4	PTFS	35.70	4.25	24.93	38.75	27.04	16.73	24.97	21.01	14.10	23.05
	CPT	43.90	4.55	22.20	38.69	27.19	21.62	24.43	18.23	13.50	23.81
	Ours	41.90	5.53	24.09	40.24	27.71	21.84	24.78	17.24	14.40	24.19

Table 4: The performance of LLMs across different versions on downstream tasks. ‘‘Ver.’’ indicates the version number of the LLMs. Additional experimental results for LLMs with larger model sizes or data sizes are listed in Appendix C.

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
C_{\text{ptfs}}(N_v) &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_v} iT = 0.5TN_v^2 + 0.5TN_v, \\
C_{\text{cpt}}(N_v) &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_v} T = TN_v, \\
C_{\text{ours}}(N_v) &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_v-1} (T + \alpha T) + T \\
&= (1 + \alpha)TN_v - \alpha T.
\end{aligned}$$

Please note that, for the last version, the additional main path training for preparing the initialization checkpoint for the next update can be omitted, which counts as αT steps. Thus, only T steps are required.

Comparing the above functions, we observe that $C_{\text{ptfs}}(N_v)$ is a quadratic function in terms of N_v , whereas both $C_{\text{cpt}}(N_v)$ and $C_{\text{ours}}(N_v)$ are linear functions. Moreover, the gaps between $C_{\text{ptfs}}(N_v)$ and the other two functions significantly widens as N_v increases. For example, when $N_v = 4$, the values of these three time complexity functions are $10T$, $4T$ and $5.8T$, respectively. When $N_v = 10$, the gaps widen as the values of these functions increase to $55T$, $10T$ and $15.4T$.

4 Experiment

In this section, we still use the settings of the preliminary study to conduct more experiments, comparing the performance and training cost of different training paradigms.

4.1 Effect of Hyper-Parameter α

As described in Section 3, α is one of the most important hyper-parameters in our paradigm, as it controls the proportion of fast-decaying steps to the total steps in each update. The fast-decaying steps influence model performance and training cost of our paradigm. To select an optimal α value, we experiment with different α values, ranging from 0.2 to 0.8 with an interval of 0.2, and then observe the changes in pre-training performance and training cost.

Experimental results are listed in Table 2, showing that the overall performance of LLMs across different versions is optimal at $\alpha = 0.6$ and $\alpha = 0.8$. However, when $\alpha = 0.6$, our paradigm achieves lower training cost. Thus, we adopt $\alpha = 0.6$ in subsequent experiments.

4.2 Main Experiments

Then, we compare different paradigms in terms of training cost, pre-training performance and downstream performance. To comprehensively examine our paradigm, we conduct a series of experiments with the three aforementioned learning rate schedules.

Pre-Training Performance From Table 3, we observe that, **compared to PTFS, our paradigm reduces the total training cost to 58% while maintaining comparable pre-training performance**. Particularly, when using the cosine learning rate schedule, our paradigm even slightly outperform PTFS. On the other hand, as expected, the training cost of our paradigm is still higher than that of CPT, however, it always achieves better performance than CPT, regardless of the schedule used.

LRS	TP	Cost	PPL		
			V2	V3	V4
Cos	PTFS	1.00×	20.94	19.35	18.41
	CPT	0.40 ×	21.23	19.78	18.92
	Ours	0.58×	20.23	18.87	18.11
Knee	PTFS	1.00×	20.30	18.84	17.98
	CPT	0.40 ×	20.67	19.34	18.56
	Ours	0.58×	20.20	18.85	18.09
Multi	PTFS	1.00×	20.37	18.92	18.06
	CPT	0.40 ×	20.74	19.44	18.68
	Ours	0.58×	20.49	18.92	18.09

Table 5: The generalization of our paradigm in terms of model architecture. Based on Qwen-1.2B, we conduct experiments with the same setting as LLaMA-1.2B.

Overall, our paradigm achieves a better balance between pre-training performance and total training cost during version updates of LLMs.³

Performance on Downstream Tasks Furthermore, we investigate the performance of different training paradigms across nine downstream tasks, including C³ (Sun et al., 2020), GSM8K (Cobbe et al., 2021), MMLU (Hendrycks et al., 2021), CSL (Li et al., 2022), C-EVAL (Huang et al., 2023), BBH (Suzgun et al., 2023), CMMLU (Li et al., 2024), GAOKAO (Zhang et al., 2023) and AGIEval (Zhong et al., 2024). To this end, we first construct a general supervised fine-tuning (SFT) dataset with 1.8B tokens and then we perform SFT on each of the four versions of the updated LLMs.

From the results listed in Table 4, we clearly find that our paradigm can still obtain better average performance than PTFS and CPT, which further proves the effectiveness of our paradigm.

4.3 Generalization of Our Paradigm

Subsequently, we explore the generalization of our paradigm in the following aspects, including model architecture, model size, data size, and maximum learning rate, all of which are crucial for the practical applications of LLMs. In all of these experiments, we maintain the use of the cosine learning rate schedule.

³We also compare our paradigm with CPT based on equal training cost, with results detailed in Appendix D. Besides, we also compare PTFS, CPT and our paradigm in the scenario with varying data increments. The corresponding results are listed in Appendix E.

Size	TP	PPL		
		V2	V3	V4
203M	PTFS	30.97	29.50	28.65
	CPT	31.31	29.90	29.07
	Ours	30.25	28.94	28.19
406M	PTFS	26.58	25.06	24.19
	CPT	26.89	25.49	24.67
	Ours	25.85	24.52	23.79
608M	PTFS	23.12	21.75	20.93
	CPT	23.50	22.26	21.52
	Ours	22.59	21.43	20.77
1.2B	PTFS	20.84	19.28	18.36
	CPT	21.22	19.79	18.97
	Ours	20.13	18.81	18.09
2.1B	PTFS	18.33	16.88	16.04
	CPT	18.76	17.47	16.72
	Ours	17.82	16.63	15.97
3.1B	PTFS	17.22	15.87	15.07
	CPT	17.67	16.48	15.77
	Ours	16.84	15.72	15.09

Table 6: The generalization of our paradigm in terms of model size. The model sizes range from 203M to 3.1B.

Model Architecture To demonstrate the generalization of our paradigm on model architecture, we use Qwen-1.2B (Bai et al., 2023) to re-conduct experiments with the same setting as LLaMA-1.2B.

Similar to the experimental results of LLaMA-1.2B presented in Table 3, the experimental results of Qwen-1.2B shown in Table 5 further demonstrate the superiority of our paradigm in balancing model performance and training cost. This validates the generalization of our paradigm in terms of model architecture.

Model Size We then focus on the generalization of our paradigm on model size. To this end, we vary the number of model parameters to conduct experiments. In total, we consider the following six model sizes: 203M, 406M, 608M, 1.2B, 2.1B, 3.1B, of which detailed hyper-parameters are listed in Appendix A.

From the results shown in Table 6, we observe that our paradigm achieves pre-training performance comparable to PTFS across different sizes of LLMs and outperforms CPT. This validates the generalization of our paradigm in terms of model size.

Data	TP	PPL		
		V2	V3	V4
21B	PTFS	24.66	22.31	20.84
	CPT	25.10	22.84	21.56
	Ours	23.59	21.41	20.27
42B	PTFS	20.84	19.28	18.36
	CPT	21.11	19.70	18.87
	Ours	20.13	18.81	18.09
168B	PTFS	16.70	15.97	15.54
	CPT	16.90	16.25	15.86
	Ours	16.47	15.86	15.51

Table 7: The generalization of our paradigm in terms of data size. The total data sizes (for four versions) range from 21B to 168B.

Data Size Next, we switch our attention to the generalization of our paradigm on data size. To do this, we conduct experiments using different sizes of training data: 21B, 42B, and 168B tokens. Correspondingly, the training steps are 5K, 10K and 40K for each LLM update, respectively.

As shown in Table 7, our paradigm achieves optimal pre-training performance across different data sizes, which further demonstrates the generalization of our paradigm.

Maximum Learning Rate Finally, we aim to verify the generalization of our paradigm in terms of the maximum learning rate. We conduct experiments by setting the maximum learning rates as 5e-5, 1e-4, 3e-4, 5e-4, 8e-4, respectively.

As shown in Table 8, as the maximum learning rate increases, our paradigm consistently achieves better or comparable performance than PTFS, and significantly outperforms CPT. This strongly highlights the generalization of our paradigm in terms of the maximum learning rate.

5 Related Work

Continual Training As one of the most direct approaches for version updates of LLMs, continual training has attracted increasing attention, of which related studies can be broadly categorized into the following four types: 1) methods introducing additional parameters (Ke et al., 2022, 2023; Song et al., 2023; PENG et al., 2024), 2) prompt-based methods (Wang et al., 2022b,a; Razdaibiedina et al., 2023), 3) multi-stage training methods (Liu et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2022, 2023; Liu et al., 2023;

MLR	TP	PPL		
		V2	V3	V4
5e-5	PTFS	34.78	29.53	26.65
	CPT	35.23	30.08	27.23
	Ours	29.99	25.54	23.27
1e-4	PTFS	26.34	23.28	21.57
	CPT	26.64	23.70	22.04
	Ours	23.89	21.32	19.97
3e-4	PTFS	20.84	19.28	18.36
	CPT	21.22	19.79	18.97
	Ours	20.13	18.81	18.09
5e-4	PTFS	19.89	18.62	17.85
	CPT	20.17	19.05	18.38
	Ours	19.53	18.45	17.85
8e-4	PTFS	19.38	18.26	17.58
	CPT	19.69	18.73	18.16
	Ours	19.22	18.30	17.78

Table 8: The generalization of our paradigm in terms of the maximum learning rate. The maximum learning rate ranges from 5e-5 to 8e-4. “MLR” indicates the maximum learning rate.

Huang et al., 2024), and 4) scenario-specific methods (Peng et al., 2023; Gogoulou et al., 2024; Xie et al., 2024). Significantly different from the above studies, our paradigm comprises one main learning rate path, where we perform pre-training from scratch with the maximal learning rate, and multiple learning rate branching paths, where we perform continual pre-training with a complete learning rate decay process. Thus, our paradigm achieve a better trade-off between the performance and training cost than PTFS and CPT.

Learning Rate The learning rate is one of the most crucial hyper-parameters for training LLMs. Existing learning rate schedules can be broadly divided into the following four policies (Wu et al., 2019; Wu and Liu, 2023; Jin et al., 2023): 1) Fixed learning rate policy, such as constant learning rate schedule; 2) Decaying learning rate policy, such as inverse square root learning rate schedule; 3) Cyclic learning rate policy, such as cosine learning rate schedule; 4) Composite learning rate policy, such as Knee and multi-step learning rate schedules. In addition, there are some recent studies exploring learning rate schedules for LLMs, including Warmup-Stable-Decay schedule (Hu et al., 2024)

and constant learning rate with cooldown (Hägele et al., 2024). Particularly, our paradigm is a well-designed training paradigm for version updates of LLMs, which is applicable to cosine, Knee, and multi-step and other learning rate schedules.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

This paper focuses on how to effectively balance model performance and training cost for version updates of LLMs. We begin by comparing two training paradigms: PTFS and CPT, concluding that PTFS achieves better pre-training performance, while CPT has lower training cost. Through the analysis in the preliminary study, we find that 1) a large learning rate is beneficial for providing better initialization checkpoints for subsequent updates, and 2) a complete learning rate decay process enables the updated LLMs to achieve optimal performance. Based on the above two findings, we propose a learning rate path switching paradigm for version updates of LLMs, which comprises one main path and multiple branching paths. On the main path, we pre-train the LLMs with the maximal learning rate to provide superior initialization checkpoints for subsequent updates. When an update is required, our paradigm switches from the main path to a branching path, undergoing a complete learning rate decay process. Experimental results and further analyses strongly demonstrate the effectiveness and generalization of our paradigm.

In the future, we will further expand the practical scope of our paradigm. Current research mainly focuses on the pre-training phase and does not include supervised fine-tuning, safety alignment, etc., which could be integrated into the fast-decaying stage of our paradigm. Additionally, we plan to explore the applicability of our paradigm in the context of multimodal large language models.

Limitations

Although the training cost of our paradigm is significantly lower than that of PTFS, it is still higher than that of CPT. Hence, we plan to design a precise method to determine the proportion of the fast-decaying steps to the total steps, which can further reduce the training cost of our paradigm.

Acknowledgements

The project was supported by National Key R&D Program of China (No. 2022ZD0160501), National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.

62276219), and the Public Technology Service Platform Project of Xiamen (No. 3502Z20231043).

References

- Jinze Bai, Shuai Bai, Yunfei Chu, Zeyu Cui, Kai Dang, Xiaodong Deng, et al. 2023. *Qwen technical report*. *arXiv*.
- Xiao Bi, Deli Chen, Guanting Chen, Shanhuang Chen, Damai Dai, Chengqi Deng, et al. 2024. *Deepseek llm: Scaling open-source language models with longtermism*. *arXiv*.
- Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, et al. 2021. *Training verifiers to solve math word problems*. *arXiv*.
- Can Cui, Yunsheng Ma, Xu Cao, Wenqian Ye, Yang Zhou, Kaizhao Liang, et al. 2024. *A survey on multimodal large language models for autonomous driving*. In *WACVW Workshops*.
- Evangelia Gogoulou, Timothée Lesort, Magnus Boman, and Joakim Nivre. 2024. *Continual learning under language shift*. In *TSD*.
- Taicheng Guo, Xiuying Chen, Yaqi Wang, Ruidi Chang, Shichao Pei, Nitesh V. Chawla, et al. 2024. *Large language model based multi-agents: A survey of progress and challenges*. *arXiv*.
- Kshitij Gupta, Benjamin Thérien, Adam Ibrahim, Mats L. Richter, Quentin Anthony, Eugene Belilovsky, et al. 2023. *Continual pre-training of large language models: How to (re)warm your model?* In *ICML Workshop*.
- Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt. 2021. *Measuring massive multitask language understanding*. In *ICLR*.
- Shengding Hu, Yuge Tu, Xu Han, Chaoqun He, Ganqu Cui, Xiang Long, et al. 2024. *Minicpm: Unveiling the potential of small language models with scalable training strategies*. In *COLM*.
- Jianheng Huang, Leyang Cui, Ante Wang, Chengyi Yang, Xinting Liao, Linfeng Song, Junfeng Yao, and Jinsong Su. 2024. *Mitigating catastrophic forgetting in large language models with self-synthesized rehearsal*. In *ACL*.
- Yuzhen Huang, Yuzhuo Bai, Zhihao Zhu, Junlei Zhang, Jinghan Zhang, Tangjun Su, et al. 2023. *C-eval: A multi-level multi-discipline chinese evaluation suite for foundation models*. In *NeurIPS*.
- Alexander Hägele, Elie Bakouch, Atli Kosson, Loubna Ben Allal, Leandro Von Werra, and Martin Jaggi. 2024. *Scaling laws and compute-optimal training beyond fixed training durations*. In *ICML Workshop*.

- Nikhil Iyer, V Thejas, Nipun Kwatra, Ramachandran Ramjee, and Muthian Sivathanu. 2023. [Wide-minima density hypothesis and the explore-exploit learning rate schedule](#). *JMLR*.
- Hongpeng Jin, Wenqi Wei, Xuyu Wang, Wenbin Zhang, Hongpeng Wu, Yanzhao Jin, Wenqi Wei, et al. 2023. [Rethinking learning rate tuning in the era of large language models](#). In *CogMI*.
- Jared Kaplan, Sam McCandlish, Tom Henighan, Tom B Brown, Benjamin Chess, Rewon Child, et al. 2020. [Scaling laws for neural language models](#). *arXiv*.
- Zixuan Ke, Haowei Lin, Yijia Shao, Hu Xu, Lei Shu, and Bing Liu. 2022. [Continual training of language models for few-shot learning](#). In *EMNLP*.
- Zixuan Ke, Yijia Shao, Haowei Lin, Tatsuya Konishi, Gyuhak Kim, and Bing Liu. 2023. [Continual pre-training of language models](#). In *ICLR*.
- Haonan Li, Yixuan Zhang, Fajri Koto, Yifei Yang, Hai Zhao, Yeyun Gong, Nan Duan, and Timothy Baldwin. 2024. [Cmmlu: Measuring massive multitask language understanding in chinese](#). In *Findings of ACL*.
- Yudong Li, Yuqing Zhang, Zhe Zhao, Linlin Shen, Weijie Liu, Weiquan Mao, and Hui Zhang. 2022. [Csl: A large-scale chinese scientific literature dataset](#). In *COLING*.
- Junpeng Liu, Kaiyu Huang, Hao Yu, Jiuyi Li, Jinsong Su, and Degen Huang. 2023. [Continual learning for multilingual neural machine translation via dual importance-based model division](#). In *EMNLP*.
- Xin Liu, Baosong Yang, Dayiheng Liu, Haibo Zhang, Weihua Luo, Min Zhang, Haiying Zhang, and Jinsong Su. 2021. [Bridging subword gaps in pretrain-finetune paradigm for natural language generation](#). In *ACL*.
- Ben Mann, N Ryder, M Subbiah, J Kaplan, P Dhariwal, A Neelakantan, et al. 2020. [Language models are few-shot learners](#). In *NeurIPS*.
- Bohao PENG, Zhuotao Tian, Shu Liu, Ming-Chang Yang, and Jiaya Jia. 2024. [Scalable language model with generalized continual learning](#). In *ICLR*.
- Guangyue Peng, Tao Ge, Si-Qing Chen, Furu Wei, and Houfeng Wang. 2023. [Semiparametric language models are scalable continual learners](#). *arXiv*.
- Yujia Qin, Jiajie Zhang, Yankai Lin, Zhiyuan Liu, Peng Li, Maosong Sun, and Jie Zhou. 2022. [Elle: Efficient lifelong pre-training for emerging data](#). In *Findings of ACL*.
- Anastasia Razdaibiedina, Yuning Mao, Rui Hou, Madihan Khabsa, Mike Lewis, and Amjad Almahairi. 2023. [Progressive prompts: Continual learning for language models](#). In *ICLR*.
- Leslie N Smith and Nicholay Topin. 2019. [Super-convergence: Very fast training of neural networks using large learning rates](#). In *Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning for Multi-domain Operations Applications*.
- Chenyang Song, Xu Han, Zheni Zeng, Kuai Li, Chen Chen, Zhiyuan Liu, et al. 2023. [Conpet: Continual parameter-efficient tuning for large language models](#). *arXiv*.
- Kai Sun, Dian Yu, Dong Yu, and Claire Cardie. 2020. [Investigating prior knowledge for challenging chinese machine reading comprehension](#). *TACL*.
- Mirac Suzgun, Nathan Scales, Nathanael Schärli, Sebastian Gehrmann, Yi Tay, Hyung Won Chung, et al. 2023. [Challenging big-bench tasks and whether chain-of-thought can solve them](#). In *Findings of ACL*.
- Hugo Touvron, Thibaut Lavril, Gautier Izacard, Xavier Martinet, Marie-Anne Lachaux, Timothée Lacroix, et al. 2023a. [Llama: Open and efficient foundation language models](#). *arXiv*.
- Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, et al. 2023b. [Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models](#). *arXiv*.
- Lei Wang, Chen Ma, Xueyang Feng, Zeyu Zhang, Hao Yang, Jingsen Zhang, et al. 2024. [A survey on large language model based autonomous agents](#). *Frontiers Comput. Sci*.
- Zifeng Wang, Zizhao Zhang, Sayna Ebrahimi, Ruoxi Sun, Han Zhang, Chen-Yu Lee, et al. 2022a. [Dualprompt: Complementary prompting for rehearsal-free continual learning](#). In *ECCV*.
- Zifeng Wang, Zizhao Zhang, Chen-Yu Lee, Han Zhang, Ruoxi Sun, Xiaoqi Ren, et al. 2022b. [Learning to prompt for continual learning](#). In *CVPR*.
- Jiayang Wu, Wensheng Gan, Zefeng Chen, Shicheng Wan, and Philip S. Yu. 2023. [Multimodal large language models: A survey](#). In *IEEE BigData*.
- Yanzhao Wu and Ling Liu. 2023. [Selecting and composing learning rate policies for deep neural networks](#). *ACM TIST*.
- Yanzhao Wu, Ling Liu, Juhyun Bae, Ka-Ho Chow, Arun Iyengar, Calton Pu, et al. 2019. [Demystifying learning rate policies for high accuracy training of deep neural networks](#). In *IEEE BigData*.
- Yong Xie, Karan Aggarwal, and Aitzaz Ahmad. 2024. [Efficient continual pre-training for building domain specific large language models](#). In *Findings of ACL*.
- Aiyuan Yang, Bin Xiao, Bingning Wang, Borong Zhang, Ce Bian, Chao Yin, et al. 2023. [Baichuan 2: Open large-scale language models](#). *arXiv*.

- Aohan Zeng, Xiao Liu, Zhengxiao Du, Zihan Wang, Hanyu Lai, Ming Ding, et al. 2023. [Glm-130b: An open bilingual pre-trained model](#). In *ICLR*.
- Xiaotian Zhang, Chunyang Li, Yi Zong, Zhengyu Ying, Liang He, and Xipeng Qiu. 2023. [Evaluating the performance of large language models on gaokao benchmark](#). *arXiv*.
- Wayne Xin Zhao, Kun Zhou, Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Xiaolei Wang, Yupeng Hou, et al. 2023. [A survey of large language models](#). *arXiv*.
- Wanjun Zhong, Ruixiang Cui, Yiduo Guo, Yaobo Liang, Shuai Lu, Yanlin Wang, Amin Saied, Weizhu Chen, and Nan Duan. 2024. [Agieval: A human-centric benchmark for evaluating foundation models](#). In *Findings of NAACL*.
- Chulun Zhou, Yunlong Liang, Fandong Meng, Jie Zhou, Jinan Xu, Hongji Wang, Min Zhang, and Jinsong Su. 2023. [A multi-task multi-stage transitional training framework for neural chat translation](#). *TPAMI*.
- Chulun Zhou, Fandong Meng, Jie Zhou, Min Zhang, Hongji Wang, and Jinsong Su. 2022. [Confidence based bidirectional global context aware training framework for neural machine translation](#). In *ACL*.

Size	MLR	Hidden	Head	Layer
203M	1e-3	512	8	24
406M	6e-4	1,024	16	12
608M	6e-4	1,024	16	24
1.2B	3e-4	1,536	16	24
2.1B	3e-4	1,536	16	48
3.1B	3e-4	8,192	32	40

Table 9: The detailed hyper-parameters of LLMs with different model sizes.

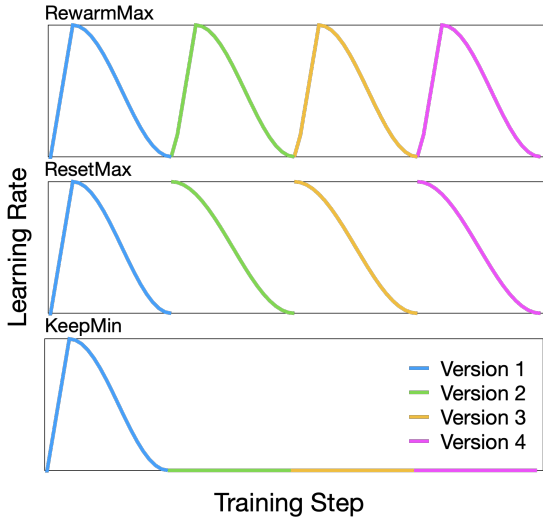


Figure 6: The learning rate curves of different adaptation method of CPT for version updates of LLMs. The learning rate curves are plotted based on cosine learning rate schedules.

A Detailed Hyper-Parameters

In this work, we compare PTFS, CPT and our paradigm based on LLMs with different sizes, whose hyper-parameters are listed in Table 9. Following Kaplan et al.; Mann et al., we set smaller maximum learning rates for larger LLMs. Besides, the minimum learning rate is configured to be 10% of the maximum learning rate.

B CPT Variants

In order to adapt traditional CPT for version updates of LLMs, we compare three variants of CPT in Figure 6:

- **RewarmMax:** Warm up the learning rate periodically, and use the learning rate schedule of the old version to train the new version of LLMs (Gupta et al., 2023).

LRS	Variant	PPL		
		V2	V3	V4
Cos	RewarmMax	21.22	19.79	18.97
	ResetMax	21.11	19.70	18.87
	KeepMin	23.00	21.99	21.26
Knee	RewarmMax	20.74	19.46	18.70
	ResetMax	20.56	19.27	18.52
	KeepMin	22.22	21.36	20.37
Multi	RewarmMax	20.80	19.55	18.82
	ResetMax	20.62	19.37	18.65
	KeepMin	22.11	21.24	20.60

Table 10: The comparison among RewarmMax, ResetMax and KeepMin for CPT.

- **ResetMax:** Directly set the learning rate as the maximum periodically, and use the learning rate schedule of the old version to train the new version of LLMs (Gupta et al., 2023).
- **KeepMin:** Keep the learning rate at the minimum by using a constant learning rate schedule to ensure the convergence of LLMs during training (Gogoulou et al., 2024).

Experimental results are listed in Table 10. We observe that ResetMax achieves the best pre-training performance among these variants. Therefore, we use ResetMax for the other experiments.

C Performance of Downstream Tasks

In addition to the standard training scale (LLaMA-1.2B trained for 42B tokens), we also evaluate LLMs with a larger training dataset (LLaMA-1.2B trained for 168B tokens) and a larger model size (LLaMA-3.1B trained for 42B tokens). We report the performance of downstream tasks across different versions of LLMs, as shown in Table 11. Experimental results show that our paradigm achieves superior average performance compared with PTFS and CPT across different training scales for downstream tasks.

D Comparison between CPT and Ours

Existing experimental results show that while our paradigm outperforms CPT in terms of performance, it has higher training cost. To provide a more direct comparison between CPT and our paradigm, we conduct an experiment where the training cost (measured by training steps) are kept

Scale	Ver.	TP	C ³	GSM8K	MMLU	CSL	C-EVAL	BBH	CMMLU	GAOKAO	AGIEval	AVG
1.2B 42B	V2	PTFS	38.00	4.63	24.00	38.25	30.09	17.43	25.37	18.10	14.59	23.38
		CPT	37.00	4.09	23.52	35.11	27.42	18.55	25.63	18.86	13.40	22.62
		Ours	38.60	5.08	22.94	39.08	28.38	20.79	24.88	18.48	14.73	23.66
	V3	PTFS	40.30	3.34	24.33	39.17	25.85	17.11	25.30	22.03	14.34	23.53
		CPT	38.30	4.70	23.32	36.40	28.38	21.11	24.76	17.85	13.47	23.14
		Ours	42.10	4.63	23.22	34.91	29.35	19.70	24.73	19.24	14.90	23.64
	V4	PTFS	35.70	4.25	24.93	38.75	27.04	16.73	24.97	21.01	14.10	23.05
		CPT	43.90	4.55	22.20	38.69	27.19	21.62	24.43	18.23	13.50	23.81
		Ours	41.90	5.53	24.09	40.24	27.71	21.84	24.78	17.24	14.40	24.19
1.2B 168B	V2	PTFS	38.90	6.82	23.49	40.33	29.27	23.28	25.14	23.29	14.39	24.99
		CPT	43.80	7.13	24.61	37.22	26.52	22.96	25.40	20.13	14.25	24.67
		Ours	43.20	8.95	25.43	40.45	26.90	22.16	25.45	18.73	15.94	25.25
	V3	PTFS	47.40	8.49	25.04	42.42	27.42	26.88	25.06	18.23	16.59	26.39
		CPT	40.30	8.42	24.30	41.61	26.30	24.07	24.59	20.00	18.00	25.29
		Ours	47.70	9.33	25.35	44.39	25.85	23.05	24.85	17.60	15.63	25.97
	V4	PTFS	48.50	8.19	24.73	44.37	26.82	25.70	25.19	19.49	15.36	26.48
		CPT	49.10	8.34	25.48	40.60	27.27	22.54	25.38	21.39	17.44	26.39
		Ours	48.20	9.02	26.30	44.56	27.27	23.69	25.56	22.53	14.20	26.81
3.1B 42B	V2	PTFS	41.10	6.37	24.00	36.43	24.15	21.62	24.97	19.75	14.22	23.62
		CPT	46.00	6.14	24.00	40.81	27.04	21.94	23.57	20.89	13.28	24.85
		Ours	43.70	8.57	24.23	40.17	25.78	24.59	25.70	19.37	14.22	25.15
	V3	PTFS	44.30	8.34	23.83	40.99	27.12	21.71	24.73	21.65	15.48	25.35
		CPT	43.90	8.11	25.23	41.24	26.00	25.00	25.44	20.00	13.40	25.37
		Ours	47.90	9.48	24.02	40.74	25.71	25.73	25.09	19.62	14.54	25.87
	V4	PTFS	50.20	11.22	25.98	39.89	27.64	23.12	25.47	21.65	15.46	26.74
		CPT	50.60	9.78	25.12	41.03	28.08	22.48	25.38	21.01	13.93	26.38
		Ours	49.80	10.77	25.77	42.95	26.97	22.45	26.25	22.41	14.80	26.91

Table 11: The performance of downstream tasks for LLMs across four versions. In addition to the standard training scale (LLaMA-1.2B trained for 42B tokens), we further evaluate LLMs trained on more data (LLaMA-1.2B trained for 168B tokens) and LLMs with a larger size (LLaMA-3.1B trained for 42B tokens).

α	TP	PPL		
		V2	V3	V4
0.2	CPT	21.40	20.69	20.20
	Ours	20.96	20.05	19.59
0.4	CPT	21.06	20.43	20.18
	Ours	20.81	19.88	19.42
0.6	CPT	20.85	20.21	19.85
	Ours	20.82	19.86	19.40

Table 12: The comparison between CPT and our paradigm with equal training cost. The α ranges from 0.2 to 0.6.

TP	PPL		
	10.5B	21.0B	31.5B
PTFS	20.84	19.28	18.36
CPT	21.11	19.50	18.47
Ours	20.13	18.81	18.09

Table 13: The comparison of different paradigms for training two versions of LLaMA-1.2B. The data increment of the second version varies from 10.5B to 31.5B tokens.

consistent. Concretely, we sample a dataset of approximately 5.25B tokens (5K steps) and use it to train four versions of LLMs. As mentioned in section 3.2, we analyze the time complexity of CPT and our paradigm, obtaining that the time complexity of ours is about $1 + \alpha$ times that of CPT.

We compare the results for different α (proportion of fast-decaying steps) set as 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6, respectively. To ensure that the total training cost used for these two paradigms are consistent, our paradigm always includes an additional 10K steps for each version update, while CPT uses additional 12K ($\alpha = 0.2$), 14K ($\alpha = 0.4$) and 16K ($\alpha = 0.6$) steps for each version update, respectively. The experimental results in Table 12 demonstrate that our paradigm remains effective even when the total training cost are kept consistent with CPT.

E Version Updates with Inconsistent Data Increments

Existing experiments are based on the assumption of consistent data increments during version updates of LLMs. The effectiveness of our paradigm has not yet been validated in the scenario with varying data increments. Hence, we conduct a compar-

ative experiment involving PTFS, CPT, and ours, training two versions of LLMs. For all paradigms, the LLMs of the first version are trained with 10.5B tokens (10K steps), while the LLMs of second version are trained with 10.5B, 21B, and 31.5B tokens, respectively. As the experimental results shown in Table 13, our paradigm maintains a better pre-training performance than PTFS and CPT in the scenario with inconsistent data increments. This further demonstrates the generalization of our paradigm.