Clustering Examples in Multi-Dataset NLP Benchmarks with Item Response Theory

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Abstract
In natural language processing, multi-dataset benchmarks for common tasks (e.g., SuperGLUE for natural language inference and MRQA for question answering) have risen in importance. Invariably, tasks and individual examples vary in difficulty. Recent analysis methods infer properties of examples such as difficulty. In particular, Item Response Theory (IRT) jointly infers example and model properties from the output of benchmark tasks (i.e., scores for each model-example pair). Therefore, it seems sensible that methods like IRT should be able to detect differences between datasets in a task. This work shows that current IRT models are not as good at identifying differences as we would expect, explain why this is difficult, and outline future directions that incorporate more (textual) signal from examples.

1 Introduction
Understanding and describing the data in natural language processing (NLP) benchmarks is crucial to ensuring their validity and reliability (Ferraro et al., 2015; Gebru et al., 2018; Bender and Friedman, 2018). This is even more important as multi-dataset task benchmarks have—for better or worse—become the norm (Raji et al., 2021). For example, SuperGLUE incorporates eight natural language inference (NLI) datasets (Wang et al., 2019), and MRQA incorporates twelve question answering (QA) datasets (Fisch et al., 2019). To better understand benchmark data, there are methods for analyzing examples in isolation (Lalor et al., 2018), characterizing a dataset’s data distribution (Swayamdipta et al., 2020), using individual models to glean insight about datasets and examples (Feng et al., 2018), and using many models to do the same (Rodriguez et al., 2021; Vania et al., 2021). This paper investigates how effectively one method—Item Response Theory (IRT)—gives insight into multi-dataset benchmarks.

Outside of NLP, IRT provides insight into educational test questions (Lord et al., 1968; Baker, 2001) and political ideologies of legislators (Poole and Rosenthal, 2017). In NLP, IRT is used to identify helpful training examples (Lalor and Yu, 2020), detect errors in evaluation examples (Rodriguez et al., 2021), and estimate the future utility of examples in benchmarks (Vania et al., 2021). The goal of this paper is to identify the characteristics of multi-dataset benchmarks that IRT methods focus on. Are certain datasets easier than others? Can clustering highlight dataset or example properties?

We hypothesize that examples from similar datasets will cluster together as they should have similar IRT characteristics (such as difficulty level) compared to examples from other datasets. However, we do not see any distinct dataset-based clusters in our results. Instead, we find that IRT characteristics tend to group the examples of similar labels in the same clusters, suggesting that some label types are more difficult or more discriminating regardless of the datasets they belong to. In the rest of this paper, we describe IRT methods for benchmark analysis (§2), our clustering methods (§3), and our experimental results (§4).1

2 IRT for Benchmark Analysis
In this paper, we adapt IRT methods to explain why benchmarks examples are difficult, rather than solely assigning them difficulty values. This section describes the IRT models in our experiments and the test-bed we use in our experiments.

2.1 Item Response Theory Models
IRT is a probabilistic framework that models the likelihood that subject $j$ (e.g., a model) answers test item $i$ (e.g., a sentiment prediction) correctly.

1Code and data at www.pedro.ai/multidim-irt.
### Table 1: Details of the datasets used in our experiments.

| Task | N   | Datasets |
|------|-----|----------|
| Sentiment | 24,620 | Amazon reviews (Zhang et al., 2015), Yelp reviews, SST-3 (Socher et al., 2013), and Dynasent ROUNDS 1 & 2 (Potts et al., 2021) |
| NLI  | 63,018 | ANLI rounds one through three (Nie et al., 2020), HANS (McCoy et al., 2019), MNLI matched & MNLI mismatched (Williams et al., 2018, SNLI (Bowman et al., 2015), and Winograd (Rudinger et al., 2018) |

*https://www.yelp.com/dataset

The likelihood of a correct response (Equation 1) is modeled as a relationship between the difficulty ($\beta_i$) of an item, its discriminability ($\gamma_i$), its feasibility ($\lambda_i$), and the subject’s ability ($\theta_j$). Typically, $\theta_j$ and $\beta_i$ are unconstrained, $\lambda_i$ is between zero and one, and $\gamma_i$ is non-negative.

This model is a four parameter (4PL) IRT model (Equation 1) and while complex, easily simplifies to simpler models.\(^2\) For example, when $\lambda_i = 1$ and $\gamma_i = 1$ this is a 1PL model. In this case, the difference between subject ability and item difficulty ($\theta_j - \beta_i$) determines the likelihood of a correct answer: as subject ability increases, the likelihood of a correct response increases. When only $\lambda_i = 1$, this is a 2PL model as in topic modeling experiments (§4.2). IRT parameters can also be multidimensional. In two experimental setups (§4.1 and §A), we use a 2PL model ($\lambda_i = 1$) where $\gamma_i$, $\beta_i$, and $\theta_j$ are multidimensional. We fit all models with py-irt (Lalor and Rodriguez, 2022).

2.2 Benchmark Data

Ideally, IRT methods should generalize across multiple datasets, tasks, and models. To accomplish this while minimizing engineering overhead, we use data from dynabench.org (Kiela et al., 2021)—a dynamic benchmark of multiple tasks, datasets, and model submissions (Table 1).\(^3\) For each task, there are seven models: a majority baseline (always positive), ALBERT (Lan et al., 2020), BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), DEBERTa (He et al., 2020), FastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017; Joulin et al., 2017), ROBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), and T5 (Raffel et al., 2020). In experiments, IRT infers parameters from the subject-item (i.e., model-example) matrix where entries are one if the subject answered the item correctly and zero otherwise.

IRT analysis offers a way to assign properties like difficulty and discriminability to examples, but does little to explain why a particular example may be hard or easy. Next, we identify interpretable features that might explain IRT parameter values (e.g., label, topics, and embeddings).

3 Interpreting IRT Parameters

This section explains the methods that our experiments (§4) use to interpret IRT parameters. These methods fall into two categories: (1) methods that correlate examples’ IRT parameters with dataset or label features and (2) methods that correlate derived textual information with IRT parameters (e.g., topic models or embeddings).

3.1 Multidimensional IRT Clustering

Intuitively, test instances—be they NLI examples or SAT questions—can be difficult along more than one dimension. An example might focus on testing commonsense reasoning instead of testing background knowledge. Therefore, it is sensible for IRT models to learn multidimensional parameters, but do different difficulty dimensions align with our intuitions on what might make examples easier or harder? To interpret evaluation data with multidimensional IRT, we: (1) train multidimensional IRT models,\(^4\) (2) use t-SNE for dimensionality reduction (Poličar et al., 2019), (3) plot the resulting points in 2D space, and (4) color the points by

\(^2\)4PL models usually include a guessing parameter that indicates the likelihood of answering the item correctly by random guess. The guessing parameter is set to zero in our experiments.

\(^3\)To avoid test set leakage, we use development set data.

\(^4\)We set the dimension of the IRT model to the number of datasets per task (5 for sentiment and 8 for NLI), and the number of labels in each task (3 for both sentiment and NLI).
characteristics of each example such as the classification label or source dataset (§4.1).

3.2 Topic Models

Our next method is based on the intuition that textual information—in particular topical associations—affects example difficulty. If true, topical associations should correlate with IRT parameters. To test this, we fit a topic model to the five datasets in the Dynabench sentiment task (Table 1). To avoid having too many topics to interpret, we fit the model with five topics using the mallet software package (McCallum, 2002). We obtain IRT parameters from a one dimensional, 2PL IRT model (Equation 1). As with multidimensional IRT, we jointly visualize an interpretable feature (topic embeddings) and IRT parameter values (§4.2).

3.3 Using BERT to Predict IRT Parameters

If textual information is correlated item difficulty, then transformer models like BERT should also be able to predict IRT parameters given the item text. We test this idea by fine-tuning a BERT model (Devlin et al., 2019) with regression heads to predict the difficulty and discriminance parameters of a 4PL IRT model (Equation 1). As with the multi-dimensional clustering method, we also visualize embeddings from BERT-base (§4.3). The goal of our visualizations is to test: (1) how BERT embeddings change with IRT fine-tuning and (2) whether clusters correspond to interpretable instance features (e.g., label or source dataset).

4 Experiments

Next, we discuss what each interpretation method (§3) tells us about IRT parameter values.

4.1 Multidimensional IRT Clustering

Using the subject-item response matrix from Dynabench, we fit a multidimensional 2PL model, cluster with t-SNE, and color the datapoints by either dataset name or the example label.

When we run t-SNE on the difficulty parameters of a 5-dimensional 2PL model for sentiment datasets and color-code by dataset, we do not observe any distinct dataset-based clusters (Figure 1a). However, when we color-code by label, we observe more well-defined clusters, especially for the positive and negative labels (Figure 1b). This result suggests that some label types are more difficult for models to learn or more discriminating among the models regardless of which dataset they belong to. While the lack of dataset-based clustering is a negative result, label-based trends indicate consistency among items with the same label in terms of learned IRT parameters. However, the lack of breadth within a label suggests that each label can only accurately estimate a narrow range of ability levels in models.

4.2 How Do Topics Relate to Item Difficulty?

We first validate that the topics inferred by the topic model (Table 2) are reasonable through manual inspection. The topic model successfully identifies at least five distinct review themes: media (e.g., movies, music), hotels, books, products, and food. Having verified that the topic model is at least reasonable, we next inspect the relationship between the highest scoring topic per example and its difficulty (Figure 3). We see that certain topics are more prevalent at different levels of difficulty; however, there is no clear delineation between topics and difficulties. This suggests that at least this topic model alone does not fully explain difficulty.

4.3 How Does IRT Difficulty Influence BERT?

Figure 2 compares t-SNE visualizations of embeddings from a normal BERT model as opposed to a BERT model that is fine-tuned to predict 4PL difficulty and discriminance parameters from the sentiment task. When points are color coded by label, the embeddings of the IRT fine-tuned BERT model clearly form label-based clusters. In contrast, we do not observe clear patterns or clusters for the embeddings of the vanilla BERT model. This indicates separation of labels by IRT parameters. This suggests that IRT parameters are correlated with dataset labels, and the BERT embeddings learned on IRT parameters encode label properties.

4.4 Discussion

It is generally agreed that some datasets are more challenging than others. Therefore, items in the

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8We performed additional clustering analyses on the sentiment and NLI datasets, varying the IRT models learned and the IRT parameters used for clustering (Appendix A). In all cases we observed more well-defined label-based clusters than dataset-based clusters.

9We also replicate the plot with discriminance, but do not observe any visually discernible patterns.

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For model training, we use an optimization interval of 10 with 3,000 iterations.
Methods that train these components in isolation. For example, it may be that the signal provided by dataset properties is second order to labels and our methods may not effectively model this (potential) multi-level relationship. Multidimensional IRT models that encode relationships between difficulty dimensions ought to better fit the data (e.g., predicting sentiment of restaurant reviews should overlap with hotel reviews, as they both involve service). If these models succeed, they should aid the interpretation of benchmarks. Lastly, as models provide more information through initiatives like Model Cards (Mitchell et al., 2019), IRT could jointly model these properties with latent ability parameters to glean insights into which differences in models yield empirical impacts.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this work, our expectation was that datasets would be separable by IRT-learned parameters. However, we found that clustering was more interpretable at the label level than the dataset level.

Future work in IRT should better jointly model the characteristics of NLP data as opposed to our methods that train these components in isolation. For example, it may be that the signal provided by dataset properties is second order to labels and our methods may not effectively model this (potential) multi-level relationship. Multidimensional IRT models that encode relationships between difficulty dimensions ought to better fit the data (e.g., predicting sentiment of restaurant reviews should overlap with hotel reviews, as they both involve service). If these models succeed, they should aid the interpretation of benchmarks. Lastly, as models provide more information through initiatives like Model Cards (Mitchell et al., 2019), IRT could jointly model these properties with latent ability parameters to glean insights into which differences in models yield empirical impacts.
Figure 2: Clustering results for the Dynasent datasets using a BERT embeddings from a BERT model used to predict IRT parameters. 2a: Cluster by labels using untrained BERT. 2b: Cluster by labels using trained BERT. Without fine-tuning, there are no clear patterns between BERT embeddings and label. However, fine-tuning to predict IRT parameters shows clear clustering patterns between embeddings and labels. This suggests that embeddings learned to predict IRT parameters can encode the properties of dataset labels.

Figure 3: To observe the relationship between topics and IRT difficulty, we plot the un-normalized histogram of example difficulty (top) and the normalized difficulty partitioned by topic (bottom). Topic 4 in green (food reviews) is more prevalent with lower difficulty examples, while topic 1 in orange (hotel reviews) is more prevalent in higher difficulty examples.

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A Additional Visualizations

A.1 Dataset Based Clustering
In Figure 4a, we run t-SNE on the discriminability parameters of a 5-dimensional 2PL model learned for the Dynasent datasets and color-code by dataset. We do not observe any distinct dataset-based clusters. We repeat the same visualizations using difficulty and discriminability parameters of a 3-dimensional 2PL model learned on Dynasent dataset (Figure 5a and 5c), a 3-dimensional 2PL model learned on NLI datasets (Figure 7a and 7c), and an 8-dimensional 2PL model learned on NLI datasets (Figure 6a and 6c). In all these experiments, we do not observe any distinct dataset-based cluster.

A.2 Label Based Clustering
In Figure 4b, we run t-SNE on the discriminability parameters of a 5-dimensional 2PL model learned for the Dynasent datasets and color-code by dataset labels. We repeat the same visualizations using difficulty and discriminability parameters of a 3-dimensional 2PL model learned on Dynasent dataset (Figure 5b and 5d), a 3-dimensional 2PL model learned on NLI datasets (Figure 7b and 7d), and an 8-dimensional 2PL model learned on NLI datasets (Figure 6b and 6d). In all these experiments, we observe clearer clusters compared to Section A.1.
Figure 4: T-SNE visualisation of the Dynasent datasets on the discriminability parameter of a 5-dimensional 2PL model: (a) marked by dataset, (b) marked by label.
Figure 5: T-SNE visualisation of the Dynasent datasets on the parameters of a 3-dimensional 2PL model: (a) Difficulty marked by dataset, (b) Difficulty marked by label, (c) Discriminability marked by dataset, (d) Discriminability marked by label.
Figure 6: T-SNE visualisation of the NLI datasets on the parameters of a 8-dimensional 2PL model: (a) Difficulty marked by dataset, (b) Difficulty marked by label, (c) Discriminability marked by dataset, (d) Discriminability marked by label.
Figure 7: T-SNE visualisation of the NLI datasets on the parameters of a 3-dimensional 2PL model: (a) Difficulty marked by dataset, (b) Difficulty marked by label, (c) Discriminability marked by dataset, (d) Discriminability marked by label.
Figure 8: Distributions of examples for the sentiment datasets (3PL model): (a) Diff by dataset, (b) Disc by dataset, (c) Diff by label, (d) Disc by label.