Efficiently Tuned Parameters are Task Embeddings

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Abstract

Intermediate-task transfer can benefit a wide range of NLP tasks with properly selected source datasets. However, it is computationally infeasible to experiment with all intermediate transfer combinations, making choosing a useful source task a challenging problem. In this paper, we anticipate that task-specific parameters updated in parameter-efficient tuning methods are likely to encode task-specific information. Therefore, such parameters can be predictive for inter-task transferability. Thus, we propose to exploit these efficiently tuned parameters as off-the-shelf task embeddings for the efficient selection of source datasets for intermediate-task transfer. We experiment with 11 text classification tasks and 11 question answering tasks. Experimental results show that our approach can consistently outperform existing inter-task transferability prediction methods while being conceptually simple and computationally efficient. Our analysis also reveals that the ability of efficiently tuned parameters on transferability prediction is disentangled with their in-task performance. This allows us to use parameters from early checkpoints as task embeddings to further improve efficiency.1

1 Introduction

The pretraining then fine-tuning paradigm (Peters et al., 2018; Devlin et al., 2019; Radford et al., 2018, 2019; Brown et al., 2020; Lewis et al., 2020; Raffel et al., 2019) has substantially improved the state-of-the-art on a wide range of natural language processing (NLP) tasks. In this paradigm, we first pretrain a large language model on large-scale corpora in a general domain, and then fine-tune the pretrained model to be a task-specific model on the target dataset. In addition to directly transferring from a general pretrained language model, prior work (Phang et al., 2018) also shows that intermediate-task transfer, i.e., fine-tuning on intermediate source tasks before the target task, can further improve target task performance. However, the success of intermediate-task transfer heavily relies on the selection of a proper source dataset while an inappropriate source dataset often leads to performance degradation compared to plain fine-tuning. Therefore, some recent works (Vu et al., 2020; Poth et al., 2021) investigate methods to efficiently predict inter-task transferability without actually trying out all intermediate-task combinations.

The current state of the art (Vu et al., 2020) on predicting inter-task transferability is built on Task2Vec (Achille et al., 2019), which considers the Fisher information matrix of a model fine-tuned on a task as the “task embedding”, and predicts inter-task transferability by computing the cosine similarity between the task embedding of the source and target tasks. Despite empirically performing well, this approach requires fine-tuning the full model and (inefficiently) computing the Fisher matrix of the model. Moreover, the resulting task embeddings generally have a high dimensionality similar to the size of the underlying model. Therefore, intermediate task selection, which requires storing task embeddings for each source/target task, can be space-consuming, especially when experimen-
menting with large language models.

In this work, we opt for parameter-efficient tuning approaches (Houlsby et al., 2019; Li and Liang, 2021; Guo et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2022; Zaken et al., 2022) for the efficient and accurate prediction of inter-task transferability. Our key insight is that task-specific parameters updated in parameter-efficient tuning methods are likely to encode high density task-specific information since they are used as a query for retrieving task-related knowledge in a frozen pretrained language model. Therefore, we propose to directly use task-specific parameters learned via parameter-efficient tuning on source/target datasets as task embeddings, as shown in Figure 1. Compared to task embeddings obtained by calculating the Fisher matrix of the fine-tuned model (Achille et al., 2019; Vu et al., 2020), efficiently tuned parameters are of much lower dimensionality and do not suffer from noise from uninformative weights in the model parameters, thus leading to more accurate transferability prediction. Also, our method only requires parameter-efficient tuning on the tasks and stores task-specific parameters, making both computing and storing task embeddings more efficient. Moreover, with the development of open-source parameter-efficient tuning platforms like Adapter-Hub (Pfeiffer et al., 2020), we can easily access off-the-shelf parameters of the source and target datasets downloaded from the model zoo and then compute the similarity between the downloaded parameters.

We empirically verify the effectiveness of our approach by experimenting with 11 text classification tasks and 11 question answering tasks, following Vu et al. (2020). Our results show that our approach consistently outperforms existing inter-task transferability prediction methods while being simpler and more efficient. In addition, we find that the ability of efficiently tuned parameters on transferability prediction is not strongly correlated with their in-task performance. Therefore, task-specific parameters tuned with a relatively small number of steps are already highly predictive for inter-task transferability, allowing us to further improve the efficiency of intermediate task selection.

2 Related Work

Prior work (Phang et al., 2018) shows that positive transfer can be elicited by training a model on intermediate source tasks before fine-tuning on the target task. However, the choice of an appropriate source task is crucial for effective transfer. Phang et al. (2018) show that the size of the source dataset is an good prior for source task selection. Pruksachatkun et al. (2020) propose to use task requiring complex reasoning and inference as source tasks. Besides these heuristics, a number of work also focuses on systematic prediction of intermediate task transferability. Vu et al. (2020) propose to used TASK2VEC to construct task embeddings based on the input text or Fisher information matrix of a fine-tuned model. Poth et al. (2021) further extend similar ideas for adapter-based transfer learning. More recently, Vu et al. (2021) explore prompt-based transfer and propose to use prompt similarity as a predictor for prompt transferability to select proper soft prompts for initialization. This can be viewed as a special case of our proposed method where the parameter-efficient tuning method is restricted to vanilla prompt tuning (Lester et al., 2021) and the transfer method is restricted to prompt transfer instead of general intermediate-task transfer.

3 Methodology

3.1 Parameter-Efficient Tuning

Parameter-efficient tuning only updates a small portion of parameters in a large pretrained model. In this paper, we experiment with three types of parameter-efficient tuning: Prompt Tuning (Liu et al., 2021), Bias Tuning (Zaken et al., 2022), and Low-Rank Tuning (Hu et al., 2022).

Prompt Tuning We experiment with P-Tuning v2 (Liu et al., 2021). Specifically, P-Tuning v2 implements a prompt tuning method by introducing additional attention prefix matrices \(K_t = \{k_1 \ldots k_n\}\) and \(V_t = \{v_1 \ldots v_n\}\) for each Transformer layer, where \(n\) is a hyperparameter controlling the added prefix length; \(k\) and \(v\) are vectors with dimension \(d_k\); \(d_h\) is the hidden size of the Transformer model.

For each Transformer layer, the added vectors are concatenated with the original key and value matrices to be \(K' = K_t \oplus K\) and \(V' = V_t \oplus V\), where \(K\) and \(V\) are the original key and value in each layer’s attention block. Then, the new scaled dot-product attention is calculated by replacing the original \(K\) and \(V\) with the new \(K'\) and \(V'\), respectively.
Bias Tuning  BitFit (Zaken et al., 2022) simply updates all bias terms \( b \) in all linear layers \( h = Wx + b \) in each Transformer layer.

Low-Rank Tuning  LoRA (Hu et al., 2022) injects trainable rank decomposition matrices into each layer of the Transformer model. For each linear layer \( h = Wx \) where \( W \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k} \), the forward pass is modified to \( h = Wx + BAx \), where \( B \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r} \), \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times k} \), and the rank \( r \ll \min(d, k) \).

3.2 Tuned Parameters as Task Embeddings

After parameter-efficient tuning, we concatenate all tuned parameters in each Transformer layer and average them across all layers to obtain a vector as a representation for a task, namely Tuned Parameters as Task Embedding (TuPaTE). Following Vu et al. (2020), we calculate the cosine similarity between the embeddings of a given targeted task and the candidate source tasks. Then, we rank the candidate source tasks in descending order by the similarity scores.

4 Experiments

4.1 Datasets

Following Vu et al. (2020), we conduct experiments with 11 tasks of text classification or regression (CR) and 11 tasks of question answering (QA). Note that Vu et al. (2020) also includes 11 tasks of sequence labeling. We do not include those datasets since most of them are not publicly available. The list of datasets can be found in Appendix A. To be consistent with Vu et al. (2020), we use two metrics to evaluate the performance of the task embeddings: (1) the average rank \( \rho \) of the source task with the highest absolute transfer gain; (2) Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain (NDCG), which is a widely used metric for evaluating the quality of the entire ranking, instead of focusing on the highest rank as \( \rho \) does.

4.2 Baselines

We use the following methods as baselines: (1) DATASIZE (Vu et al., 2020) is a simple baseline that ranks all source tasks by the number of training examples. (2) CURVEGRAD (Bingel and Søgaard, 2017; Vu et al., 2020) is a baseline that uses the gradients of the loss curve of BERT for each task. It is originally proposed in Bingel and Søgaard (2017) for predicting gains from multi-task learning and adapted by Vu et al. (2020) for predicting transferability. (3) TEXT EMB (Vu et al., 2020) averages sentence representations over the entire dataset. The sentence representation is obtained by averaging the hidden states in the last layer of BERT. (4) TASK EMB (Vu et al., 2020) represents tasks based on the Fisher information matrix. It is adapted from the task embedding originally proposed in Achille et al. (2019) for meta-learning.

4.3 Training Details

We apply P-Tuning v2, BitFit, and LoRA on BERT-base for fine-tuning on the aforementioned datasets. For each method, we adopt the default hyperparameters from their corresponding papers. Specifically, for P-Tuning v2, we use a prefix length of 20 and search the learning rate from \( \{1e^{-2}, 1e^{-3}\} \); For LoRA, we set LoRA’s \( r \) to 8 and \( \alpha \) to 8, and search a learning rate from \( \{5e^{-4}, 2e^{-4}\} \); For BitFit, we search a learning rate from \( \{1e^{-4}, 4e^{-4}\} \). We train all models with a batch size of 32 for 20 epochs on all datasets. We use the parameters tuned for 2 epochs as “early” task embeddings and those corresponding to the best validation set performance as “late” task embeddings. We compare the number of tunable parameters and the final task embedding dimensions in Table 1. We can see that TuPaTE has a significantly lower dimensionality compared to the TASK EMB baseline. We also include an ensemble of the three efficient tuning methods (denoted as “3 ENSEMBLE”), by averaging the inter-task similarity scores of each model.

4.4 Experimental Results

We present the main results in Table 2. We find that TuPaTE with different parameter-efficient tuning methods consistently outperforms prior works including TEXT EMB and TASK EMB. Interestingly, the performance improvement is larger in \( \text{FULL} \rightarrow \text{LIMITED} \) and \( \text{LIMITED} \rightarrow \text{LIMITED} \) settings. We conjecture that this is because in limited resource...
We conduct additional experiments in the in-class setting on classification/regression tasks to better understand how TuPaTE works. We first analyze the correlation between the in-task performance (e.g., accuracy) and transferability prediction ability of efficiently tuned parameters. We train TuPaTE with 5 random combinations between searchable hyperparameters and random seeds, and present the correlation in Table 3. We observe that there is only a weak correlation between in-task performance and transferability prediction results, indicating that the ability of efficiently tuned parameters to encode task-related information is disentangled with their final in-task performance. This also shows the robustness of TuPaTE with respect to hyperparameters.

The fact that in-task performance only correlates weakly with transferability prediction motivates us to explore whether early checkpoints of efficiently tuned parameters can be used for transferability prediction. From Table 4, we find that...
early checkpoints are also effective task embeddings. This allows us to reduce the computation cost by around 90% while substantially outperforming the TASKEMB baseline.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we show that efficiently tuned parameters are highly predictive for inter-task transferability and thus can be used as off-the-shelf task embeddings for source task selection in intermediate-task transfer learning. Our empirical investigation with three parameter-efficient tuning methods on 22 NLP tasks demonstrates that our approach outperforms prior works on inter-task transferability prediction despite being more efficient.

Limitations

We select three representative works for three types of parameter-efficient tuning. However, there are other parameter-efficient tuning methods that we have not investigated. Although we believe our conclusion can generalize to other methods, we will conduct more experiments to confirm for future work.

Ethics Statement

We propose to use efficiently tuned parameters as task embedding, only for predicting the performance of intermediate transfer learning. Thus, we do not anticipate any major ethical concern.

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# A List of Datasets

| Task                        | Train  |
|-----------------------------|--------|
| Text classification / Regression (CR) |        |
| SNLI (Bowman et al., 2015)  | 570k   |
| MNLI (Williams et al., 2018)| 393k   |
| QQP (Iyer et al., 2017)     | 364k   |
| QNLI (Wang et al., 2019)    | 105k   |
| SST-2 (Socher et al., 2013) | 67k    |
| SciTail (Khot et al., 2018) | 27k    |
| CoLA (Warstadt et al., 2019)| 8.5k   |
| STS-B (Cer et al., 2017)    | 7k     |
| MRPC (Dolan and Brockett, 2005) | 3.7k   |
| RTE (Dagan et al., 2005)    | 2.5k   |
| WNLI (Levesque, 2011)       | 634    |
| Question Answering (QA)     |        |
| SQuAD-2 (Rajpurkar et al., 2018) | 162k   |
| NewsQA (Trischler et al., 2017) | 120k   |
| HotpotQA (Yang et al., 2018) | 113k   |
| SQuAD-1 (Rajpurkar et al., 2016) | 108k   |
| DuoRC-p (Saha et al., 2018)  | 100k   |
| DuoRC-s (Saha et al., 2018)  | 86k    |
| DROP (Dua et al., 2019)     | 77k    |
| WikiHop (Welbl et al., 2018) | 51k    |
| BoolQ (Clark et al., 2019)  | 16k    |
| ComQA (Abujabal et al., 2019) | 11k    |
| CQ (Bao et al., 2016)       | 2k     |

Table 5: The datasets used in our experiments and their training set size (Vu et al., 2020).