ADA MIX: MIXTURE-OF-ADAPTER FOR PARAMETER-EFFICIENT TUNING OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

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ABSTRACT

Fine-tuning large-scale pre-trained language models to downstream tasks require updating hundreds of millions of parameters. This not only increases the serving cost to store a large copy of the model weights for every task, but also exhibits instability during few-shot task adaptation. Parameter-efficient techniques have been developed that tune small trainable components (e.g., adapters) injected in the large model while keeping most of the model weights frozen. The prevalent mechanism to increase adapter capacity is to increase the bottleneck dimension which increases the adapter parameters. In this work, we introduce a new mechanism to improve adapter capacity without increasing parameters or computational cost by two key techniques. (i) We introduce multiple shared adapter components in each layer of the Transformer architecture. We leverage sparse learning via random routing to update the adapter parameters (encoder is kept frozen) resulting in the same amount of computational cost (FLOPs) as that of training a single adapter. (ii) We propose a simple merging mechanism to average the weights of multiple adapter components to collapse to a single adapter in each Transformer layer, thereby, keeping the overall parameters also the same but with significant performance improvement. We demonstrate these techniques to work well across multiple task settings including fully supervised and few-shot Natural Language Understanding tasks. By only tuning 0.23% of a pre-trained language model’s parameters, our model is the first one to fully outperform the full model fine-tuning performance and several competing methods.

1 INTRODUCTION

Large-scale language models (Devlin et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020; Raffel et al., 2019) are pre-trained in a self-supervised fashion over massive amounts of unlabeled data. Adapting these models to downstream tasks require fine-tuning all of the model parameters. Given the ever-increasing size of large pre-trained language models (PLMs) (e.g., GPT-3 consists of 175 billion parameters and MT-NLG consists of 530 billion parameters), such adaptation mechanism massively increases the serving cost since it requires storing one copy of the model weights for every task. To address these challenges, recent works have developed parameter-efficient fine-tuning techniques. These approaches typically keep most of the model weights frozen and update only a part of the model parameters or inject small trainable modules in the Transformer layers that are tuned for every task. While there are many varieties of such parameter-efficient tuning techniques, including prefix-tuning (Li & Liang, 2021) and prompt-tuning (Lester et al., 2021) to condition frozen language models via natural language descriptions of the task, low dimensional projections using adapters (Houlsby et al., 2019; Pfeiffer et al., 2020; 2021) and more recently using low-rank approximation (Hu et al., 2021). However, for all of the above methods, we observe a performance gap with respect to full model tuning where all the parameters are updated for many of the tasks.

The above parameter-efficient adaptation techniques introduce certain hyper-parameters to control for the adaptation capacity, for instance, the rank for low-rank adaptation techniques or the bottleneck

1 Code and model checkpoints will be made available at https://aka.ms/AdaMix
dimension of adapters like Houlsby (Houlsby et al., 2019). The prevalent mechanism to increase the capacity to match the full model tuning performance is to increase the rank or the adapter width which increases the number of adapter parameters. In this work, we develop a different mechanism to increase adapter capacity to match the full model tuning performance without increasing overall number of newly-added parameters or FLOPs.

We take inspiration from sparsely-activated mixture-of-experts (MoE) models. In traditional dense models (e.g., Transformer-based language models like BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020)), all of the model weights are activated for every input example. MoE models induce sparsity by activating only a subset of the neural network weights for each incoming example. This is achieved via conditional computation based on routing input examples to a subset of experts introduced in each other layer of the Transformer model. This conditional computation, for instance, selection of top − 1 expert in each other layer, allows the sparse models to be computationally efficient i.e. match the FLOPs of that of a dense model, but also improves its capacity by increasing the number of parameters.

With this design in mind, we introduce multiple adapter components in each layer of the Transformer architecture to take best advantage of the pre-trained knowledge in PLMs. Consider the Houlsby (Houlsby et al., 2019) adapter as one of the most popular parameter-efficient fine-tuning technique for illustration. It introduces two feedforward layers to down-project the hidden representation to a low dimension $d$ (also called the bottleneck dimension) followed by another up-project operation to match the dimensionality of the next layer. In order to introduce sparsity, we inject multiple feedforward layers (FFN) (corresponding to project-up and project-down) in each Transformer layer. We introduce a simple protocol to stochastically route instances to one of the project-up and then to one of the project-down FFN’s resulting in the same amount of computational cost (FLOPs) as that of using a single adapter but introducing more capacity.

The above design, however, introduces two major challenges. The first one results from training instability due to stochastic selection of different adapter components, e.g., routing instances via different pairs of FFN-up and FFN-down projections in different training steps. To mitigate this, we explore different design choices like consistency regularization and sharing of adapter components during stochastic routing. The second challenge results in increased number of adapter parameters that increases the serving cost although it keeps the computational cost the same. To address this, we develop a merging mechanism to average weights from differently learned adapter components to a single adapter that preserves the performance gains, while keeping the number of parameters and FLOPs also the same as that of a single adapter design. Our adapter merging is inspired by recent works on model weight averaging like model soups (Wortsman et al., 2022) and multi BERTs (Devlin et al., 2019). Such weight averaging of models with different random initialization has been shown to improve model performance in recent works (Matena & Raffel, 2021; Neyshabur et al., 2020; Frankle et al., 2020) that show the optimized models to lie in the same basin of error landscape. While the above works are geared towards fine-tuning independent models, we extend this idea to parameter-efficient fine-tuning with randomly initialized adapters and a frozen language model. Overall, our work makes the following contributions:

- We propose a new mechanism of increasing adapter capacity for parameter-efficient fine-tuning by stochastic routing to a mixture of adapter components while keeping the same computational cost (FLOPs) as that of a single adapter design.

- We propose a merging mechanism to average weights of multiple adapter components to preserve the improved performance from the aforementioned design while keeping the parameters also the same as that of a single adapter design.
We demonstrate this simple technique to work well in different task settings and variable amounts of labeled training data, including fully supervised and few-shot fine-tuning of large language models on Natural Language Understand tasks. By tuning only 0.23% of a pre-trained model’s parameters, our method outperforms the full model fine-tuning performance on GLUE and several competing methods.

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Mixture-of-Experts

The objective of sparsely-activated model design is to support conditional computation and increase the parameter count of neural models like Transformers while keeping the floating point operations (FLOPs) for each input example constant. Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) Transformer models (Shazeer et al., 2017; Fedus et al., 2021; Lepikhin et al., 2020; Zuo et al., 2021) achieve this by using $N$ feed-forward networks (FFN), namely “experts” denoted as $E_i$, each with its own set of learnable weights that compute different representations of an input token $x$ based on context. In order to sparsify the network to keep the FLOPs constant, there is an additional gating network $G$ whose output is a sparse $N$-dimensional vector to route each token via a few of these experts. Note that, a sparse model with $N = 1$ corresponding to only one FFN layer in each Transformer block collapses to the traditional dense model.

Consider $x_s$ as the input token representation in the $s^{th}$ position to the MOE layer comprising of the $\{E\}_{i=1}^N$ expert FFNs. Also, consider $w_{in}^i$ and $w_{out}^i$ to be the input and output projection matrices for $i^{th}$ expert. Expert output $E_i(x_s)$ is given by:

$$E_i(x_s) = w_{out}^i \cdot \text{GeLU}(w_{in}^i \cdot x_s)$$

Consider $G(x_s)$ to be output of the gating network. Output of the sparse MoE layer is given by:

$$h(x_s) = \sum_i G(x_s)_i \cdot E_i(x_s)$$

where $G(x_s)_i$, the $i^{th}$ logit of the output of $G(x_s)$ denotes the probability of selecting expert $E_i$.

In order to keep the number of FLOPs in the sparse Transformer to be the same as that of a dense one, the gating mechanism can be constrained to route each token to only one expert FFN, i.e. $\sum_i G(x_s)_i = 1$.

2.2 Adapters

The predominant methodology for task adaptation is to tune all of the trainable parameters of the PLMs for every task. This raises significant resource challenges both during training and deployment. A recent study (Aghajanyan et al., 2021) shows that PLMs have a low intrinsic dimension that can match the performance of the full parameter space.

To adapt PLMs for downstream tasks with a small number of parameters, adapters (Houlsby et al., 2019) have recently been introduced as an alternative approach for lightweight tuning. The adapter tuning strategy judiciously introduces new parameters into the original PLMs. During fine-tuning, only the adapter parameters are updated while keeping the remaining parameters of the PLM frozen. Adapters usually consist of two fully connected layers as shown in Figure 2, where the adapter layer uses a down projection $W_{down} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times r}$ to project input representation $x$ to a low dimensional space $r$ (referred as the bottleneck dimension) with $d$ being the model dimension, followed by a nonlinear activation function.
f(·), and a up-projection with $W_{up} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times d}$ to project the low-dimensional features back to the original dimension. The adapters are further surrounded by residual connections.

**Practical benefits of lite tuning.** The most significant benefit of lightweight adapter tuning comes from the reduction in memory and storage usage. For a Transformer, the VRAM consumption could be significantly reduced as we do not need to keep track of the optimizer states for the frozen parameters. For storage usage, we also reduce the checkpoint size by 444x (from 355MB to 0.8MB in our setting with RoBERTa-large encoder) since we store only task-specific adapter parameters instead of shared PLM, largely benefiting deployment scenarios.

Given the above adapter design with parameters $\psi$, the dataset $D_K$, a pre-trained language model encoder $\Theta_{PLM}$, where $\Theta_{PLM} \gg \psi$, we want to perform the following optimization for efficient model adaptation:

$$\psi \leftarrow \arg\min_{\psi} L(D_k; \Theta_{PLM}, \psi)$$

Figure 3: Mixture-of-Adapter (AdaMix) architecture with $M = 4$ adapter components for illustration consisting of feedforward up ($FFN_U$) feedforward down ($FFN_D$) projection matrices. The above block shown for one Transformer layer is repeated across all the layers. AdaMix uses a stochastic policy to route instances from an input batch through randomly selected projection matrices resulting in FLOPs match to a single adapter with consistency regularization and parameter sharing. Adapter merging (Figure 4) collapses projection matrices to match single-adapter parameters.

3 **Mixture-of-Adapter**

We adopt the popularly used Transformer architecture [Vaswani et al. (2017)] as the basic encoder consisting of $L$ repeated Transformer blocks, where each block consists of a self-attention sub-layer, a fully connected feed-forward network (FFN) and residual connections around the sub-layers followed by layer normalization.

Consider a set of $M$ adapters injected in each layer of the Transformer model, where $A_{ij} : i \in \{1 \cdots L\}, j \in \{1 \cdots M\}$ represents the $j^{th}$ adapter in the $i^{th}$ Transformer layer. Each adapter component $A_{ij}$ in our framework follows the Houlsby [Houlsby et al. (2019)] adapter design consisting of a feedforward up $W_{up}^{ij}$ and a feedforward down $W_{down}^{ij}$ projection matrices.

Standard Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) models with token-level routing have been shown effective for autoregressive or encoder-decoder language models for tasks like Neural Machine Translation. In contrast, in this work, we focus on encoder-only models (e.g., BERT [Devlin et al. (2019)] and RoBERTa [Liu et al. (2019)]) for Natural Language Understanding tasks (e.g., tasks in the GLUE benchmark [Wang et al. (2019)]). Correspondingly, we adopt instance-level routing for classification tasks as opposed to token-level routing.

Recent work like THOR [Zuo et al. (2021)] has demonstrated stochastic routing policies like the random routing to work as well as classical routing mechanisms like Switch routing [Fedus et al. (2021)] with some added benefits. For instance, since input examples are randomly routed to different experts,
there is no requirement for additional load balancing since each expert has an equal opportunity of being triggered, further, simplifying the framework. Additionally, there are no added parameters at the Switch layer for expert selection. The latter is particularly important in our setting for parameter-efficient fine-tuning to keep the parameters and FLOPs the same as that of a single adapter design. Correspondingly, we adopt a stochastic routing policy in our framework.

To this end, at any training step, we randomly select a pair of feedforward up and feedforward down projection matrices in the $i^{th}$ Transformer layer as $A_i = \{W_{ij}^{up}, W_{ik}^{down}\}$ and $B_i = \{W_{ij}^{up'}, W_{ik'}^{down}\}$ respectively where $j \neq j'$, $k \neq k'$. Given this selection of adapter components $A_i$ and $B_i$ in each Transformer layer in every step, all the inputs in a given batch are processed through the same set of adapters. Given an input representation $x$ in a given Transformer layer, the above pair of adapters perform the following transformations:

$$ x \leftarrow x + f(x \cdot \mathcal{W}^{down}) \cdot \mathcal{W}^{up} \quad (4) $$

Such stochastic routing enables the adapter components to learn different transformations during training and obtain multiple views of the task. However, this also creates a challenge on which sets of projection matrices to use during inference due to the random routing protocol during training. We address this challenge with the following two techniques that further allow us to collapse the adapter parameters and obtain the same computational cost (FLOPs) as that of a single adapter design.

**Consistency regularization.** Consider $A = \{A_i^L\}_{i=1}^L$ and $B = \{B_i^L\}_{i=1}^L$ to be the sets of adapter components (i.e. projection matrices) triggered during two stochastic forward passes through the network for an input $x$ across the $L$ layers of the Transformer model. The objective of consistency regularization is to enable the adapter components to share information and prevent divergence. To this end, we add the following consistency loss as a regularizer to the task-specific optimization loss:

$$
\mathcal{L} = - \sum_{c=1}^C \left( \mathcal{I}(x, c) \log \text{softmax}(z_c^A(x)) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathcal{KL}(z_c^A(x)||z_c^B(x)) + \mathcal{KL}(z_c^B(x)||z_c^A(x))) \right) \quad (5)
$$

where $\mathcal{I}(x, c)$ is a binary indicator (0 or 1) if class label $c$ is the correct classification for $x$ and $z_c^A(x)$ and $z_c^B(x)$ are the predicted logits corresponding to class $c$ from the two sets of adapters $A$ and $B$ respectively with $\mathcal{KL}$ denoting the Kullback-Leibler divergence. From Equations 3 and 5, $x$ is the input representation from the encoder $\text{enc}(\Theta_{PLM})$ with frozen parameters and only the parameters of projection matrices $\psi = \{\mathcal{W}^{up}, \mathcal{W}^{down}\}$ are updated during training.

**Adapter merging.** While the above regularization mitigates the inconsistency in random adapter selection during inference, it still results in increased serving cost to host all the projection matrices from the different adapter components. Prior works in fine-tuning language models for downstream tasks have shown improved performance on averaging the weights of different models fine-tuned with different random seeds outperforming a single fine-tuned model. Recent work [Wortsman et al. (2022)] has also shown that differently fine-tuned models from the same initialization lie in the same error basin motivating the use of weight aggregation for robust task summarization. We adopt and extend prior techniques for language model fine-tuning to our parameter-efficient training of multi-view adapters.

In contrast to the aforementioned techniques like stochastic routing and consistency regularization that are applied at the training phase, we employ adapter merging only during inference. Given a
set of projection matrices, \( W_{ij}^{up} \) and \( W_{ij}^{down} \) for \( i \in \{1 \cdots L\} \) and \( \{j, k\} \in \{1 \cdots M\} \), we simply average the weights of all the project-up or project-down matrices in every Transformer layer to collapse to a single adapter component \( \{W_{ij}^{up}, W_{ij}^{down}\} \), where:

\[
W_{ij}^{up} \leftarrow \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} W_{ij}^{up} \quad W_{ij}^{down} \leftarrow \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} W_{ij}^{down} \quad (6)
\]

**Adapter sharing.** While stochastic routing to multi-view adapters increases the model capacity, it can also impact downstream tasks with less amounts of labeled data for fine-tuning the large number of parameters. To address this challenge, we use another mechanism to share some of the projection matrices for the project-down or the project-up operation to reduce the number of trainable parameters during training. In the standard setting in our experiments, we share only the feedforward projection matrices i.e., \( W_{ij}^{up} = W_{ij}^{down} \). We investigate these different design choices via ablation studies in our experiments.

### 3.1 Connection to Bayesian Neural Networks and Model Ensembling

Bayesian Neural Networks (BNN) \cite{Gal2015} replaces a deterministic model’s weight parameters by a distribution over the parameters. For inference, BNN averages over all the possible weights, also referred to as marginalization. Consider \( f^{W(x)} \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \) to be the \( d \)-dimensional output of such a neural network where the model likelihood is given by \( p(y|f^{W(x)}) \). In our setting, \( W = \{W^{up}, W^{down}\} \) with frozen language model encoder. For classification, we can further apply a softmax likelihood to the output to obtain: \( P(y = c|x, W) = softmax(f^{W(x)}) \). Given an instance \( x \), the probability distribution over the classes is given by marginalization over the posterior distribution as: \( p(y = c|x) = \int_{\mathcal{W}} p(y = c|f^{W(x)})p(W)X, Y)dW \).

This requires averaging over all possible model weights, which is intractable in practice. Therefore, several approximation methods have been developed based on variational inference methods and stochastic regularization techniques using dropouts. In this work, we leverage another stochastic regularization in the form of random routing. Here, the objective is to find a surrogate distribution \( q_{0}(w) \) in a tractable family of distributions that can replace the true model posterior that is hard to compute. The ideal surrogate is identified by minimizing the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between the candidate and the true posterior.

Consider \( q_{0}(W) \) to be the stochastic routing policy which allows us to sample \( T \) masked model weights \( \{\tilde{W}_{i}\}_{t=1}^{T} \sim q_{0}(W) \). For classification tasks, the approximate posterior can be now obtained by Monte-Carlo integration as:

\[
p(y = c|x) \approx p(y = c|f^{W(x)})q_{0}(W)dW \approx \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} p(y = c|f^{\tilde{W}_{i}}(x)) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} softmax(f^{\tilde{W}_{i}}(x)) \quad (7)
\]

However, computing the approximate posterior above in our setting requires storing all the stochastic model weights \( \tilde{W}_{i}(x) \) which increases the serving cost during inference. To reduce this cost, we resort to the other technique for weight averaging via adapter merging during inference.

Consider \( \mathcal{L}_{W}^{AM} = \mathbb{E}_{x,y} \mathcal{L}(softmax(f^{\tilde{W}}(x), y) \) denote the expected loss with merging of the stochastic adapter weights with \( \tilde{W} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{W}_{i} \) (from Equation 6) and \( \mathcal{L} \) denoting the cross-entropy loss. Consider \( \mathcal{L}_{W}^{Ens} = \mathbb{E}_{x,y} \mathcal{L}(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} softmax(f^{\tilde{W}_{i}}(x), y) \) denote the expected loss from logit-level stochastic model ensembling (from Equation 7).

Prior work \cite{Wortsman2022} show that averaging the weights of multiple models fine-tuned with different hyper-parameter configurations improves model performance. They analytically show the similarity in loss between weight-averaging (\( \mathcal{L}_{W}^{AM} \) in our setting) and logit-ensembling (\( \mathcal{L}_{W}^{Ens} \) in our setting) as a function of the flatness of the loss and confidence of the predictions. While the above analysis is geared towards averaging of multiple independently fine-tuned model weights, we can apply a similar analysis in our setting with multiple stochastic adapter weights obtained from the
random routing policy to demonstrate the benefit of adapter merging in obtaining a favorable loss $L_{\text{AM}}^M$ as well as reducing the serving cost during inference. The latter is made possible since we need to retain only one copy of the merged adapter weights as opposed to logit-ensembling which requires copies of all the adapter weights.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

**Dataset.** We perform large-scale experiments with eight natural language understanding tasks in the General Language Understanding Evaluation (GLUE) benchmark Wang et al. (2019). We exclude the WNLI dataset following prior studies Devlin et al. (2019); Houlsby et al. (2019). The eight tasks can be categorized into four types of natural language tasks, including linguistic acceptability (CoLA), sentiment analysis (SST-2), similarity and paraphrase tasks (MRPC, STS-B, QQP), natural language inference (MNLI, QNLI) and textual entailment task (RTE).

**Baselines.** We compare AdaMix with full model fine-tuning and several state-of-the-art parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) methods, namely, Pfeiffer Adapter Pfeiffer et al. (2021), Houlsby Adapter Houlsby et al. (2019), LoRA Hu et al. (2021), BitFit Zaken et al. (2021), Prefix-tuning Li & Liang (2021) and UNIPELT Mao et al. (2021) with BERT-base Devlin et al. (2019) and RoBERTa-large Liu et al. (2019) as encoders in Table 1 and Table 2.

**Implementation Details.** We implement our framework in Pytorch and use Tesla V100 gpus for experiments. AdaMix uses adapter dimension size of 16 and 48 using BERT-base and RoBERTa-large encoders respectively, following the setup of existing works Hu et al. (2021); Mao et al. (2021) for a fair comparison. The number of adapters in AdaMix is set to 4 for all the tasks and encoders unless otherwise specified. The impacts of adapter dimension size and adapter number are investigated in Table 6 and 7. More hyper-parameter configurations are presented in Appendix.

4.2 GLUE Main Results

| Model          | #Param. | MNLI Acc | QNLI Acc | SST2 Acc | QQP Acc /F1 | MRPC Acc/F1 | CoLA Mcc | RTE Acc | STS-B Pearson | Avg.  |
|----------------|---------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|-------------|----------|---------|----------------|-------|
| Fine-tuning†   | 355.0M  | 90.2     | 94.7     | 96.4     | 92.2/-      | 90.9/-      | 68.0     | 86.6    | 92.4           | 88.9  |
| Pfeiffer Adapter† | 3.0M   | 90.5     | 94.8     | 96.6     | 91.9/-      | 90.2/-      | 68.3     | 83.8    | 92.1           | 88.4  |
| Houlsby Adapter† | 0.8M   | 90.5     | 94.8     | 96.6     | 91.7/-      | 89.7/-      | 67.8     | 80.1    | 91.9           | 87.9  |
| LoRA†          | 0.8M    | 90.8     | 95.4     | 97.1     | 92.3/94.1   | 70.2        | 89.2     | 92.4    | 89.9           | 89.9  |

Table 1: Main results on GLUE development set with RoBERTa-large encoder. The best result on each task is in **bold** and “-“ denotes missing measure. AdaMix outperforms all competing methods as well as fully fine-tuned large model with only 0.23% tunable parameters.† denotes that the reported results are taken from Hu et al. (2021). Mcc refers to Matthews correlation coefficient, and Pearson refers to Pearson correlation. The average performance is calculated based on accuracy of QQP and MRPC for an easy comparison. #Param. refers to the number of tunable parameters used during inference.

Tables 1 and 2 show the performance comparison among PEFT models with RoBERTa-large and BERT-base as the encoder respectively. Fully fine-tuned RoBERTa-large and BERT-base are used to provide the ceiling performance. We observe AdaMix to significantly outperform other state-of-the-art baselines on most of tasks with different encoders. Specifically, AdaMix with RoBERTa-large

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2See (12) in https://gluebenchmark.com/faq.
Table 2: Main results on GLUE development set with BERT-base encoder. The best result on each task is in bold and "-" denotes the missing measure. † and ⋄ denote that the reported results are taken from Mao et al. (2021); Zaken et al. (2021). The average performance is calculated based on F1 of QQP and MRPC. #Param. refers to the number of updated parameters in the inference stage.

encoder achieves the best performance in terms of different task metrics in the GLUE benchmark. AdaMix is the only PEFT method which outperforms full model fine-tuning on all the tasks and on average score. Additionally, the improvement brought by AdaMix is more significant with BERT-base as the encoder, demonstrating 2.2% and 1.2% improvement over the performance of full model fine-tuning and the best performing baseline UNIPELT with BERT-base. The improvement is observed to be consistent as that with RoBERTa-large on every task. Moreover, AdaMix outperforms all the baselines on all other tasks except RTE.

4.3 Ablation Study

Analysis of averaging adapter weights. In this ablation study, we keep separate copies of adapters to investigate the impact of weight averaging by introducing two different routing strategies for comparison. The first routing strategy is the same as the routing strategy adopted in the training stage i.e. random routing to adapter components. We denote this variation as AdaMix-RandomRouting. The second routing strategy adopts a fixed routing strategy, where we route all the input to the first adapter component in our AdaMix. The second baseline is denoted as AdaMix-FixedRouting. Table 3 shows that AdaMix outperforms AdaMix-RandomRouting and AdaMix-FixedRouting on all the tasks, demonstrating the superiority of averaging adapter weights. Moreover, AdaMix-RandomRouting and AdaMix-FixedRouting demonstrate improvement over the full model tuning, depicting the effectiveness of AdaMix design.

Figure 5: Violin plot of AdaMix-RandomRouting performance distribution with BERT-base and RoBERTa-large encoders. Red dot denotes the performance of AdaMix.
Table 3: Comparing the impact of different routing and ensembling strategies with AdaMix. Results are presented on GLUE development set with BERT-base and RoBERTa-large encoders. Average results are calculated following Table 1 and Table 2 for consistency. The best result on each task is in bold and “-” denotes the missing measure.

Averaging weights v.s. ensembling outputs. We further compare AdaMix with a model variant of logit ensembling method, denoted as AdaMix-Ensemble. To this end, we make four random routing passes through the network for every input (T=4) and average the logits from different passes as the final predicted logit. The inference time for this ensembling method is 4x AdaMix. We run repeated experiments with three different seeds and report the mean performance in Table 3. This experiment has two interesting take-aways: (1) AdaMix outperforms logit-ensembling method with less inference time with different encoders. (2) While logit-ensembling with a large encoder like RoBERTa-large shows some improvement in general, the one with BERT-base encoder shows significant regression.

Table 4 demonstrates the impact of other design choices of AdaMix.

Analysis of consistency loss. In AdaMix, we train the model with consistency regularization to enable adapter components to share information. To validate the contribution of the consistency loss term, we develop a model variation by dropping the consistency regularization during training. Table 4 shows significant performance drop on four out of five tasks after removing this regularizer.

Table 4: Ablation study demonstrating the impact of various design choices in our Mixture-of-Adapter (AdaMix) framework.
Figure 6: Convergence analysis demonstrating the impact of adapter sharing design in our Mixture-of-Adapter (AdaMix).

Analysis of adapter weight sharing. Adapter weight sharing is adopted in AdaMix to facilitate the training convergence and prevent divergence. To investigate the role of adapter weight sharing, we remove the weight sharing mechanism and keep four different copies of projection-down layers and four projection-up layers. Table 4 demonstrates the contribution of adapter weight sharing in the training procedure. As the size of the dataset decreases (from 393k in MNLI to 2.5k in RTE), the performance gap between AdaMix and AdaMix-NoSharing is observed to be larger. Particularly, the accuracy drop is 9.4% in RTE after removing adapter weight sharing.

The role of adapter weight sharing in facilitating convergence can be further demonstrated in Figure 6 which shows the training loss trend on MNLI, QNLI and SST2. With the same number of training steps, AdaMix consistently shows a lower training loss compared to AdaMix-NoSharing, demonstrating a faster convergence behavior of AdaMix. We explore another interesting choice about adapter weight sharing strategy in the project-up layer versus the project-down layer. Empirical studies in Table 5 demonstrate similar effects with both of these choices.

Impact of the number of adapters. In this ablation study, we vary the number of adapters in AdaMix with 2, 4 and 8 during the training procedure to investigate their impact. Table 6 shows that increasing the number of adapters do not result in consistent performance gain. AdaMix with 4 adapters deliver the better performance when compared to that of AdaMix with 2 and 8. We also observe the performance variation to be related to the dataset size. As we increase sparsity and the number of parameters via increasing the number of adapters, some tasks like RTE and SST2 with less amount of labeled fine-tuning data are impacted in contrast to tasks with large amount of labeled data like MNLI.

| # Adaptes/# Train | MNLI | QNLI | SST2 | MRPC | RTE |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 2                 | 90.9 | 95.2 | 96.8 | 90.9 | 87.4 |
| 4*                | 90.9 | 95.4 | 97.1 | 91.9 | 89.2 |
| 8                 | 90.9 | 95.3 | 96.9 | 91.4 | 87.4 |

Table 6: Varying the number of #Adapter components in AdaMix with RoBERTa-large encoder. * denotes the # Adapter used in AdaMix.

Impact of adapter bottleneck dimension size. To further study the effect of bottleneck dimension, we conduct experiments by varying the dimension size of adapters from 8 to 64 in AdaMix with BERT-base encoder, and to 32 with RoBERTa-large encoder. Table 7 shows that the model performance improves as we increase the number of trainable parameters by increasing the bottleneck dimension with diminishing returns after a certain point.

| Model                  | MNLI | SST2 |
|------------------------|------|------|
| Sharing Project-up     | 90.9 | 97.1 |
| Sharing Project-down   | 90.8 | 97.1 |

Table 5: Ablation study demonstrating the impact of parameter sharing in our Mixture-of-Adapter (AdaMix) framework.
Table 7: Varying the bottleneck dimension of adapters in AdaMix with RoBERTa-large encoder. * denotes the bottleneck dimension used in AdaMix.

| Adapter Dim | MNLI | QNLI | SST2 | MRPC | RTE |
|-------------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| 8           | 393k | 108k | 67k  | 3.7k | 2.5k|
| 16          |      |      |      |      |     |
| 32          |      |      |      |      |     |
| 48          |      |      |      |      |     |
| 64          |      |      |      |      |     |

BERT<sub>BASE</sub>

|            | 8     | 16    | 32    | 48    | 64    |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| MNLI       | 82.2  | 83.0  | 83.6  | 84.7  | 84.4  |
| QNLI       | 91.1  | 91.5  | 91.3  | 91.5  | 91.8  |
| SST2       | 92.2  | 92.2  | 92.2  | 92.4  | 92.3  |
| MRPC       | 87.3  | 88.2  | 88.5  | 89.5  | 88.2  |
| RTE        | 72.6  | 72.9  | 73.6  | 74.7  | 75.1  |

RoBERTa<sub>LARGE</sub>

|            | 8     | 16    | 32    |       |       |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| MNLI       | 90.7  | 90.9  | 95.4  | 91.0  | 91.0  |
| QNLI       | 95.2  | 95.4  | 97.1  | 95.4  | 96.8  |
| SST2       | 96.8  | 96.8  |       | 96.8  |       |
| MRPC       | 91.2  | 91.9  | 91.9  | 91.9  | 91.2  |
| RTE        | 87.7  | 88.2  | 88.2  | 88.2  | 87.7  |

Table 8: Average performance and standard deviation of several parameter-efficient fine-tuning strategies based on RoBERTa-large with |K| = 30 training labels. The best performance is shown in bold. Prompt-tuning, Head-only and BitFit tune 1M model parameters during inference. Houlsby Adapter, LiST Adapter and AdaMix tune 14M model parameters. * denotes that the results are taken from Wang et al. (2021).

4.4 Few-shot Performance

Data. In contrast to the fully supervised setting in the above experiments, we also perform few-shot experiments following the prior study Wang et al. (2021) on six tasks including MNLI Williams et al. (2018), RTE (Dagan et al., 2005), Bar Haim et al. (2006), Giampiccolo et al. (2007), Bentivogli et al. (2009), QQP and SST-2 (Socher et al.). The results are reported on their development set following (Zhang et al., 2021). MPQA (Wiebe et al., 2005) and Subj (Pang & Lee, 2004) are used for polarity and subjectivity detection, where we follow Gao et al. (2021) to keep 2,000 examples for testing. The few-shot model only has access to |K| labeled samples for any task. Following true few-shot learning setting (Perez et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021), we do not use any additional validation set for any hyper-parameter tuning or early stopping. The performance of each model is reported after fixed number of training epochs. For a fair comparison, we use the same set of few-shot labeled instances for training as in Wang et al. (2021). We train each model with 5 different seeds and report average performance with standard deviation across the runs. In the few-shot experiments, we follow Wang et al. (2021) to train AdaMix via the prompt-based fine-tuning strategy. In contrast to Wang et al. (2021), we do not use any unlabeled data.

| Model                 | MNLI | RTE | QQP | SST2 | Subj | MPQA | Avg. |
|-----------------------|------|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|
| Full Prompt Fine-tuning* | 62.8 | 66.1 | 71.1 | 91.5 | 91.0 | 82.7 | 77.5 |
| Head-only*            | 54.1 | 58.8 | 56.7 | 85.6 | 82.1 | 64.1 | 66.9 |
| BitFit*               | 54.4 | 59.8 | 58.6 | 87.3 | 83.9 | 65.8 | 68.3 |
| Prompt-tuning*        | 47.3 | 53.0 | 39.9 | 75.7 | 51.5 | 70.9 | 56.4 |
| Houlsby Adapter*      | 35.7 | 51.0 | 62.8 | 57.0 | 83.2 | 57.2 | 57.8 |
| LiST Adapter*         | 62.4 | 66.6 | 71.2 | 91.7 | 90.9 | 82.6 | 77.6 |
| AdaMix                | 65.6 | 69.6 | 72.6 | 91.8 | 91.5 | 84.7 | 79.3 |

*https://www.quora.com/q/quoradata/
Table 8 shows the performance comparison among different PEFT models with $|K| = 30$ labeled examples while fixing RoBERTa-large as the encoder. We observe that most of the PEFT methods are not able to match the performance of full model prompt-based fine-tuning (i.e. with all the model parameters being updated) besides LiST Adapter. LiST combines prompt-based fine-tuning and Houlsby adapter design and performs at par with full model prompt fine-tuning with updating only 4% model parameters. AdaMix outperforms all the other PEFT methods and full model prompt fine-tuning with only 4% model parameters being updated. Specifically, AdaMix improves over the best performing baseline LiST by 2% in aggregate performance across six tasks.

5 Related Work

Parameter-efficient fine-tuning of PLMs. Standard fine-tuning methods tune all trainable model parameters for every task. Recent efforts have focused on parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) of large PLMs by updating a small set of parameters while keeping most of parameters in PLMs frozen. Existing studies can be roughly categorized into two folds: (1) tuning a subset of existing parameters including head fine-tuning [Lee et al., 2019], bias term tuning [Zaken et al., 2021], (2) tuning newly-introduced parameters including adapters [Houlsby et al., 2019; Pfeiffer et al., 2020], prompt-tuning [Lester et al., 2021], prefix-tuning [Li & Liang, 2021] and low-rand adaptation [Hu et al., 2021]. The design of AdaMix update several copies of newly-introduced parameters during fine-tuning stage and then aggregates different copies of updated parameters into one component for inference. Despite the similar goal of parameter-efficient fine-tuning, AdaMix is a parallel direction to existing PEFT methods and has potentials to improve all the other PEFT approaches. We mainly develop our method based on adapter, which is one of the most representative PEFT methods, and leave other combinations to future work.

Mixture-of-Expert. Mixture-of-Experts models have recently achieved promising results by introducing an outrageously large number of parameters while keeping a fixed computation cost via gating mechanism. Shazeer et al. [2017] first proposed the MoE layer with a single gating network with Top-k routing and load balancing across experts. Fedus et al. [2021] propose initialization and training schemes for Top-1 routing. Zuo et al. [2021] propose a consistency regularizer loss for random routing; Yang et al. [2021] propose k Top-1 routing with expert-prototypes, and Roller et al. [2021] Lewis et al. [2021] address other load balancing issues. All the above works study sparse MoE with pre-training the entire model from scratch. In contrast, we study parameter-efficient adaptation of pre-trained language models by tuning only a very small number of sparse adapter parameters.

Averaging model weights. Recent explorations [Szegedy et al., 2016; Matena & Raffel, 2021; Wortsman et al., 2022; Izmailov et al., 2018] study model aggregation by averaging the weights. Matena and Raffel [2021] propose to merge pre-trained language models which are fine-tuned on various text classification tasks. Wortsman et al. [2022] explores averaging model weights from various independent runs on the same task with different hyper-parameter configurations. Different from existing works, we focus on averaging weights of newly-added parameters for parameter-efficient fine-tuning purpose. We introduce a consistency loss to connect different copies of parameters during the training to prevent divergence and observe additional performance improvement.

6 Conclusions

We develop a new method AdaMix for parameter-efficient fine-tuning of large pre-trained language models for NLP tasks. AdaMix develops a new mechanism to improve adapter capacity by injecting multiple copies of adapters into language models that are trained via stochastic routing policy to keep the same computational cost (FLOPs). During inference, the weights of different adapters are aggregated via averaging to consistently improve the task performance while keeping the same number of model parameters and the same serving cost as that of a single adapter. We validate the effectiveness of AdaMix via a comprehensive empirical study on the GLUE benchmark in both high-resource setting as well as few-shot learning setting on multiple tasks. With tuning only 0.23% parameters of large pre-trained language model, AdaMix consistently improves over full model fine-tuning that updates all the model parameters as well as other state-of-the-art parameter-efficient tuning methods.
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| Task    | Learning rate | epoch | batch size | warmup | weight decay | adapter size | adapter num |
|---------|---------------|-------|------------|--------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
|         | BERT\textsubscript{BASE} |       |            |        |              |              |             |
| MRPC    | 4e−4          | 100   | 16         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| CoLA    | 5e−4          | 100   | 16         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| SST     | 4e−4          | 40    | 64         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| STS-B   | 5e−4          | 80    | 32         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| QNLI    | 4e−4          | 20    | 64         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| MNLI    | 4e−4          | 40    | 64         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| QQP     | 5e−4          | 60    | 64         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
| RTE     | 5e−4          | 80    | 64         | 0.06   | 0.1          | 48           | 4           |
|         | RoBERTa\textsubscript{LARGE} |       |            |        |              |              |             |
| MRPC    | 3e−4          | 60    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| CoLA    | 3e−4          | 80    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| SST     | 3e−4          | 20    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| STS-B   | 3e−4          | 80    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| QNLI    | 3e−4          | 20    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| MNLI    | 3e−4          | 20    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| QQP     | 5e−4          | 80    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |
| RTE     | 5e−4          | 60    | 64         | 0.6    | 0.1          | 16           | 4           |

Table 9: Hyperparameter Setup for GLUE tasks.