Mixed-Effects Transformers for Hierarchical Adaptation

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Abstract

Language differs dramatically from context to context. To some degree, large language models like GPT-3 account for such variation by conditioning on strings of initial input text, or prompts. However, prompting can be ineffective when contexts are sparse, out-of-sample, or extra-textual. In this paper, we introduce the mixed-effects transformer (MET), a novel approach for learning hierarchically-structured prefixes—lightweight modules prepended to an input sequence—to account for structured variation in language use. Specifically, we show how the popular class of mixed-effects regression models may be extended to transformer-based architectures using a regularized prefix-tuning procedure with dropout. We evaluate this approach on several domain-adaptation benchmarks, finding that it learns contextual variation from minimal data while generalizing well to unseen contexts.

1 Introduction

While certain aspects of language use are nearly universal—such as basic grammatical acceptability (Warstadt et al., 2019; Linzen and Baroni, 2021) or simple lexical judgements (Wang et al., 2019)—these often seem to be the exception that proves the rule. Contextual variation is ubiquitous in language, where predictions may differ as a function of speaker identity (Blodgett et al., 2016; Yang and Eisenstein, 2017; Ostapenko et al., 2022), location (Hofmann et al., 2022), time (Lazaridou et al., 2021; Sawhney et al., 2020; Schlechtweg et al., 2019; Röttger and Pierrehumbert, 2021), or usage domain (Dai et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020). Although such variation has long been recognized in psycholinguistics (Clark, 1998) and sociolinguistics (Nardy et al., 2013; Eckert, 2012), the dominant approach in modern NLP has been to train monolithic models (Flek, 2020; Hovy, 2015) and fine-tune for individual domains if necessary (e.g. Daume III and Marcu, 2006).

Recent large language models (LLMs) like GPT-3 (Brown et al., 2020; Bommasani et al., 2021) have begun to provide a more systematic approach for handling context-specific variance. By adding relevant contextual information to the text input (i.e. prompting), these models have been able to account for known demographic information such as the speaker’s age, gender, or country of origin (Ostapenko et al., 2022). However, it is less clear how to use prompting when context is extra-textual, contains multiple features, or lies outside the training distribution. For example, LLMs trained prior to the COVID-19 pandemic failed catastrophically on the torrent of new tweets and medical papers (Feldman et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2020; Luu et al., 2021).

In these cases, some degree of online adaptation is required. One particularly promising adaptation technique is prefix-tuning, where a lightweight module is prepended to the input and fine-tuned to modulate a downstream network that has been
frozen (Li and Liang, 2021). To date, however, this technique has only been used to fine-tune prefixes for distinct downstream tasks (see also Hambardzumyan et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021; Lester et al., 2021). In this paper, we suggest that the prefix-tuning approach is particularly well-suited for hierarchical adaptation in language modeling. Specifically, we show how a form of dropout may be used to implement random effects, yielding a mixed-effects transformer (MET; Figure 1).

This approach allows the model to learn strong domain-specific predictions for frequently occurring prefixes while abstracting away generalizable inductive biases for sparser or unseen contexts. Our code is available at https://github.com/juliaiwhite/mixed-effects-transformers.

2 Approach

We begin by reviewing mixed-effects models in a classic hierarchical regression setting before extending it to explicitly model contextual variation with modern language models.

**Mixed-effects regression.** Mixed-effects models, also known as multi-level models or partial pooling models, may be understood as a way of interpolating between two extremes which are each prevalent in machine learning (Gelman and Hill, 2006; Baltagi, 2008; Hawkins et al., 2022), as illustrated in Figure 2. On one hand, complete-pooling approaches learn a single monolithic model across multiple domains, thus generalizing well to out-of-distribution data. No-pooling approaches, on the other hand, learn separate models for each domain, enabling stronger in-distribution predictions.

Mixed-effects models offer a balance between these approaches by combining fixed effects (assumed to be independent) and random effects (assumed to be sampled from a shared distribution). For example, consider a simple regression model predicting a movie’s rating $\hat{y}$ as a linear combination of features $X$ (e.g. genre, title): $\hat{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta X, \epsilon)$ where $\epsilon$ is an error term. If multiple ratings are provided by each user $j$, they should not be treated as independent—some users may be more critical and give out lower ratings overall than other users. It is common to account for this clustered variance by fitting random intercepts and slopes for each user $j$:

$$\hat{y}_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_j X_j, \epsilon)$$
$$\beta_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$$

where $\mu$ represents the central tendency shared across the distribution of users, and $\sigma$ represents the population variability. This model effectively regularizes user-specific predictions as function of sample size by pulling estimates toward the high density regions of the population distribution. If a particular user is an outlier, then as more observations are obtained from that user, the more the model will ignore the central tendency and use a user-specific model. However, if a new user is introduced from the same population, then the central tendency of the random effect provides the best initial guess for their parameters.

**Fixed effects via prefix-tuning.** While mixed-effects models are straightforwardly generalized to non-linear linking functions and non-Gaussian distributions (Bates et al., 2014; Lindstrom and Bates, 1990) or cases with multiple nested or cross-cutting groups (Baayen et al., 2008), it has been less clear how they could be applied when natural language is the independent variable. We begin investigating this problem by considering how to implement a purely fixed-effect language model, where independent group-specific parameters are learned. To represent language data sourced from movie scripts, parameters could be instantiated for each contextual feature to account for clustered variance (e.g. source corpus, genre, and title). Each feature would take different values corresponding to different parameters (e.g. “horror”, “action”, or “fantasy” for genre-level features).

We generalize the scalar coefficient $\beta_j$ from the regression setting to the language model setting using a set of prefixes, $p = [p_1, \ldots, p_k]$, which are prepended to the input and yield transformer blocks: $h = f_\theta(p)$ where $\theta$ is a tuneable tensor.

![Figure 2: Complete pooling approaches learn a single model representing the central tendency across all domains while no pooling learns separate models for each domain. Mixed-effects models combine the two.](https://example.com/figure2.png)
of parameters. There are several ways of parameterizing this function; for simplicity, we will take \( f_\theta : \mathbb{Z}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times k} \) to be an embedding layer \( W_E \) followed by a series of fully connected layers:

\[
    h = f_\theta(p) = \text{MLP}(W_E \cdot p)
\]

where the dimensionality of the resulting \( h \) tensor matches the dimensionality of transformer activations across layers\(^1\). Thus, the prefixes act as “virtual tokens” that, like a sequence of input text \( x \), control downstream predictions of a language model with frozen parameters \( \phi \):

\[
    \hat{y} \sim \text{LM}_\phi(x; h)
\]

Because a single MLP is shared across the full sequence of prefixes, it may be viewed as equivalent to learning interactions between groups in the regression framework (as opposed to a model where each prefix \( p_i \) was embedded independently).

**Random effects via regularization.** We are now prepared to introduce random effects into the transformer via *hierarchical* prefix-tuning. Critically, instead of assuming that all values of a particular feature have independent fixed effects (e.g. that the language associated with one genre is independent of other genres), we would like to assume they are drawn from a common distribution:

\[
    h \sim \mathcal{N}(h^*, \beta)
\]

where we define \( h^* \) to be the activations yielded by a special prefix \( p^* = [p_{i0}^*, \ldots, p_{iK}^*] \) representing the central tendency across known levels of each feature (see Figure 2). In other words, we would like to be able to “share statistical strength,” such that our predictions for novel feature values reflect expectations from the entire dataset.

In practice, it is intractable to do probabilistic inference over such a high-dimensional hierarchical neural network, but we may achieve a similar effect via dropout. During prefix-tuning, with probability \( \epsilon = 0.1 \), we replace each feature prefix \( p_i \) with the corresponding special token \( p_i^* \), such that \( p_i^* \) comes to reflect the pooled data distribution. This shared token, like \( \mu \) in a traditional mixed-effects model, represents the central tendency shared across all values of a particular feature. Feature-specific predictions are then regularized toward this shared token by adding a term to the loss function:

\[
    L_\theta(x_j; y) = \log P_\theta(y | x_j; f_\theta(p_j^*)) + \beta \| h_j - h^* \|^2
\]

where the regularization parameter, \( \beta = 0.01 \) is comparable to the standard deviation for random effects in a typical regression model.

### 3 Datasets

We examine language use across contexts in three distinct domains: product reviews, online posts, and movie dialogue. 100,000 sentences were sampled for training from 10 distinct product categories within the Amazon Customer Reviews Dataset\(^2\), a.k.a. **Product Reviews**: 100,000 sentences were sampled from 10 subreddits (subsidary forums representing distinct topical communities) within the Reddit Corpus (Henderson et al., 2019); and, 10,000 sentences were sampled from 10 genres within the Cornell Movie-Dialogs Corpus (Danesescu-Niculescu-Mizil and Lee, 2011), a.k.a. **Movie Corpus**. Further information about

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\(^1\)For GPT-2, each input token yields an \( l \times [k, v] \) tensor, where there are \( l = 12 \) layers and the dimension of each key and value is 1024.

\(^2\)https://s3.amazonaws.com/amazon-reviews-pds/readme.html
Table 2: Log perplexity while observing only one context feature versus multiple contextual features.

| Dataset  | Single-feature | Multi-feature |
|----------|----------------|---------------|
| Amazon   | 3.47±.03       | 3.33±.03      |
| Reddit   | 3.40±.04       | 3.26±.05      |
| Movies   | 3.29±.03       | 3.07±.04      |

these datasets and their contextual features can be seen in Appendix A.

4 Results

We evaluate the ability of the MET to capture language use within known and novel contexts. Further, we assess the data efficiency of our method and its ability to represent complex contexts with multiple relevant features. We compare the performance of our approach against several baselines. In the complete-pooling and no-pooling variants of prefix-tuning we ablate different components, only learning a single prefix shared across all features, or only learning independent prefixes, respectively. We also compare a traditional domain adaptation approach, where we omit prefixes and fine-tune the transformer end-to-end either on the entire dataset (complete pooling) or for each feature separately (no pooling). Finally, we compare our method against conditional fine-tuning, where a string representing the prefix text (e.g. [corpus] movie_dialogue [genre] horror) is prepended to the input and the model is fine-tuned end-to-end. See Appendix B for additional details.

4.1 Adaptation to known contexts

We begin by evaluating MET on a standard cross-domain language modeling task. Examples from each contextual feature (e.g. genres) are seen during training and we assess the model’s predictions on held-out examples from those contexts. This task evaluates the extent to which explicitly modeling multiple sources of extra-textual variance may improve a model’s ability to predict further language across those diverse sources. Table 1 (left column) shows the log perplexity of each method. First, replicating Li and Liang (2021), we find that prefix-tuning generally outperforms end-to-end fine-tuning. Second, as expected, pure no pooling models generally out-perform pure complete pooling models; the former is able to learn independent models for each sub-domain while the latter is constrained to learn a single model for the entire corpus. Third, the conditional fine-tuning method performs particularly poorly, likely due to data sparsity with respect to feature values. Finally, METs outperform even the no-pooling baselines on all three datasets, suggesting that replacing fixed effects with random effects enables better adaptation to known domains. In other words, while massive language models may have difficulty tuning to individual contexts with few samples using traditional methods, mixed-effect prefix-tuning enables them to overcome this limitation by leveraging information gained about language use in other contexts.

4.2 Generalization to novel contexts

Next, we evaluate our method’s ability to generalize to novel, unseen contexts, where traditional domain adaptation methods typically do poorly. We evaluate on a test set containing examples with contextual feature values that were entirely held-out of the training set (Table 1, right column). We find that the complete-pooling models typically generalize better to new features than no-pooling models; the former have seen more data across a broader spectrum of feature values during training, whereas conditional fine-tuning is least successful. METs, which represent unseen feature values with the shared prefix token, attain the best perplexity on all three datasets, capturing feature-specific language without sacrificing the ability to generalize. This performance is likely in part due to the method’s ability to discount individual “outlier” features from affecting the overall distribution, a key aspect of Bayesian hierarchical modelling. It is worth noting that models occasionally achieve better performance on unseen features likely due to a quirk of the split: the predictability of language can vary significantly across feature values.

4.3 Data efficiency

A well-known benefit of mixed-effects models in classical regression settings is their ability to flexibly interpolate as a function of sample size. As more observations become available, they allow domain-specific predictions to deviate more strongly from the central tendency of the population. To better evaluate performance as a function of sample size, we construct training sets of different sizes, interpolating between settings where the model has only seen one example of a given feature up to cases where it sees many thousands of examples (Figure 3). In lower-data settings, the
complete pooling approaches outperform no pooling approaches, as the no-pooling model is making predictions based on only a handful of examples. As the amount of data per feature increases, no-pooling method eventually achieve better performance. Meanwhile, the MET consistently outperforms both pooling methods. Particularly in low-data settings, this approach is able to make feature-specific inferences without sacrificing knowledge acquired from other features.

4.4 Adaptation to multi-feature contexts

Finally, one of the most intriguing properties of mixed-effects models is their ability to account for not just a single “domain” feature but multiple cross-cutting features in different combinations. We assess the ability of METs to represent language in complex contexts where multiple contextual features are available. More significant performance improvements are realized in less sparse feature spaces, so we run this evaluation on a subset of the data with dense secondary contextual features (product, user, and movie) which are taken from the top 10 values occurring within each of the top 10 primary features (product category, subreddit, and movie genre). In Table 2 we compare the change in log perplexity when observing only one contextual feature to observing a secondary feature and find that including multiple feature prefixes improves performance.

4.5 Comparison to fine-tuned adapters

In recent work, context-specific adapters—lightweight layers added after each transformer block—have been successfully utilized for hierarchical adaptation. In Chronopoulou et al. (2022) internet domains from Common Crawl’s colossal, cleaned web crawl corpus, C4 (Henderson et al., 2019), are modelled as a tree structure with individual adapters associated to each node. In Table 3, we compare this method with our approach after training on 100,000 sentences from 10 web domains each. While both models demonstrate similar performance boosts for in-distribution language data, the MET sees improved performance modelling out-of-distribution language—offering an effective alternative solution to hierarchical adaptation in low resource settings.

5 Conclusion

Human language is flexible, and people are able to adapt their expectations to many aspects of context, from speaker identity to the conversational setting. In this paper, we introduce mixed-effects transformers (METs) as an effective method of adapting to hierarchically structured domains of language use across labeled contextual features. Beyond language modeling, this approach may be useful for controlled generation and more qualitative analyses of what makes certain features distinctive (see Appendix D for preliminary analysis).

| Model                          | Seen | Unseen |
|-------------------------------|------|--------|
| Fine-tuning (Comp. Pool)      | 3.89 | 4.00   |
| Mixed-effects (MET)           | 3.76 | 3.92   |
| Hierarchical Adapters         | 3.76 | 4.34   |

Figure 3: Log perplexity (with 95% confidence interval) on test set after training on different lengths of data for Product Reviews (left), Reddit Corpus (middle), and Movie Corpus (right).
6 Limitations

We were not able to investigate how our method scales to larger feature sets (e.g. the tens of thousands of product IDs in Product Reviews), due to constraints on compute (we use an NVIDIA TITAN X GPU for all experiments). We expect there is a point where the parameter budget of the prefixes and MLP grows larger than the frozen model, which would require alternative parameterizations. Additionally, our regularization technique only affects prefixes within batches, so batch size and composition may affect the learning of $p^*$ central tendencies.

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A Datasets

We assess the performance of the MET on three datasets: the Amazon Customer Reviews Dataset, Reddit Corpus, and the Cornell Movie-Dialogs Corpus.

The Amazon Customer Reviews Dataset (Product Reviews) compiles reviews across product categories. We sampled 100,000 sentences from reviews in 11 product categories: video games, pet products, grocery, home, electronics, beauty, baby, automotive, apparel, books, and sports (which was held-out during training). In addition to product category, the metadata for Product Reviews also includes a product id.

The Reddit Corpus is a collection of posts and comments from different subreddits (substitute forums representing distinct topical communities) from the popular social media site Reddit. We sampled 100,000 sentences from posts and comments in 11 subreddits: aww, todayilearned, apple, pokemontrades, relationship_advice, DebateReligion, worldnews, nba, Naruto, hiphopheads, and AskReddit (which was held-out during training). The metadata for Reddit posts also the username of the poster.

The Cornell Movie-Dialogs Corpus (Movie Corpus) is a dataset of movie dialogue for a number of genres. We sampled 10,000 sentences of dialogue from 11 genres: action, adventure, comedy, crime, drama, horror, mystery, romance, sci-fi, thriller, and fantasy (which was held-out during training). The metadata for this dataset also includes the movie title.

We used a 80/10/10 train-val-test split in addition to the test sentences sampled from the aforementioned held-out feature values (e.g., movie dialogue from the fantasy genre) which were used in the evaluation of our models for unseen contexts.

B Experimental setup

We assigned each individual contextual feature value a unique prefix token, which could take on 128 values. In all experiments, the first prefix represents the overall corpus or task (e.g., Movie Corpus), and the following prefixes represent successively more fine-grained contextual features (e.g. genre and movie title).

The MLPs used to recover prefixes from feature values consisted of 2 layers with a hidden dimension of 512 and took input from an embedding layer with an embedding size of 512. The dimensionality of the MLP’s output tensor matches the dimensionality of the language model’s transformer activations across layers. For the language model we use GPT-2, where each input token yields an $l \times [k, v]$ tensor with $l = 12$ layers and the dimension of each key and value is 1024.

Our implementations are based on the Hugging Face Transformer models (Wolf et al., 2019). Our models were trained with a learning rate of 0.00001 using the AdamW optimizer and a batch size of 4 when sampling utterances.

C Shared vs. independent prefix MLP

We tested two hierarchical prefix architectures on Product Reviews for models containing two prefixes: a corpus-level prefix and a product-category-level prefix. The first, the shared prefix MLP architecture, uses one MLP to produce all feature prefixes and thereby allows information to be shared across features. The second, the independent prefix MLP architecture, uses multiple independent MLPs to produce a prefix for each feature. Assessment of the log perplexity of both methods reveals negligible difference in performance (see Table 4).

Ultimately, the shared prefix MLP architecture was chosen for our MET approach as this method requires less resources during training.

D Characterization of the prefix space

D.1 Distinctive utterances sampled from feature prefixes

To better understand the specific linguistic differences that our model uses to make better predictions, we queried the model for distinctive sentences. Specifically, we searched the training data for sentences with the highest difference in perplexity for a given feature compared to other features. We expected distinctive utterances to contain language that is common for the given feature value.
Table 5: Utterances from Product Reviews test data with the highest difference in perplexity when the model’s prefix corresponds to the given Amazon product category.

| Product Category | Sentence          |
|------------------|-------------------|
| Apparel          | Great shirt       |
| Automotive       | Good fit          |
| Baby             | Great crib        |
| Beauty           | Great scent       |
| Books            | good autobiography|
| Electronics      | good sound        |
| Grocery          | Excellent coffee  |
| Home             | Love this vacuum!!|
| Pet Products     | fun toy           |
| Video Games      | great game        |

Table 6: Utterances generated from the prompt “I love” using subreddit-specific prefixes learned on Reddit Corpus.

| Subreddit | Sentence          |
|-----------|-------------------|
| apple     | I love the iPhone |
| aww       | I love the way he looks. |
| naruto    | I love Izumi      |
| nba       | I love the way he’s playing. |

while being uncommon for other feature values. In Table 5, we show the most distinctive utterances found to correspond to the different product category prefixes for Product Reviews. We see that the prefixes have successfully learned to represent distinctive language used in each domain (e.g. “shirt” for apparel and “autobiography” for books). In this case, the product category features are already easily interpretable, so these utterances may be unsurprising. However, we believe that this method may enable interpretation of less legible features in other datasets (e.g. identifying different subcommunities in social networks by clustering prefixes.)

D.2 Prompted generations from feature prefixes

To directly observe the linguistic trends our model picks up on within specific contexts, we prompted our model generate utterances corresponding to specific feature values. We expect generated utterances to contain language typical of the domains invoked in prefix selection. In Table 6, we show generated utterances for a handful of subreddit prefixes trained on Reddit Corpus. We find that these prefixes contain enough contextual signal to cater the generated utterances to their respective domains (e.g. the mention of “iPhone” within the apple subreddit generation).

D.3 t-SNE analysis of feature prefixes

We perform a dimensionality reduction on the secondary contextual feature (movie title, username, product id) prefix embeddings to reveal the learned structure of our datasets. Specifically, we use t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) to map the high-dimensionality prefix embeddings to a location in a two-dimensional map. After color coding the resulting two-dimensional points according to their primary feature (genre, subreddit, product category), we observe that prefix embeddings cluster differently in accordance with each dataset’s underlying structure (see Figure 4). Reddit and Movie Corpus do not have strongly correlated clusters of features because the underlying structure of the data is cross-cut with respect to the features represented: users frequently post in
multiple subreddits and movie titles often simultaneously belong to many genres. This behavior is expected as a mixed-effects model should effectively partition off correlations between cross-cut features. On the other hand, when features are perfectly nested, as in Product Reviews where a specific product belongs to only one product category, we see an expected clustering of product prefixes according to their category.