PEMT: Multi-Task Correlation Guided Mixture-of-Experts Enables Parameter-Efficient Transfer Learning

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Abstract

Parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) has emerged as an effective method for adapting pre-trained language models to various tasks efficiently. Recently, there has been a growing interest in transferring knowledge from one or multiple tasks to the downstream target task to achieve performance improvements. However, current approaches typically either train adapters on individual tasks or distill shared knowledge from source tasks, failing to fully exploit task-specific knowledge and the correlation between source and target tasks. To overcome these limitations, we propose PEMT, a novel parameter-efficient fine-tuning framework based on multi-task transfer learning. PEMT extends the mixture-of-experts (MoE) framework to capture the transferable knowledge as a weighted combination of adapters trained on source tasks. These weights are determined by a gated unit, measuring the correlation between the target and each source task using task description prompt vectors. To fully exploit the task-specific knowledge, we also propose the Task Sparsity Loss to improve the sparsity of the gated unit. We conduct experiments on a broad range of tasks over 17 datasets. The experimental results demonstrate our PEMT yields stable improvements over full fine-tuning, and state-of-the-art PEFT and knowledge transferring methods on various tasks. The results highlight the effectiveness of our method which is capable of sufficiently exploiting the knowledge and correlation features across multiple tasks. Our code is available at [https://github.com/](https://github.com/JachinLin2022/PEMT) [JachinLin2022/PEMT](https://github.com/JachinLin2022/PEMT)

1 Introduction

Fine-tuning pre-trained models (PLMs) has become an effective way to migrate model capabilities to downstream tasks [\(Devlin et al.,](#page-8-0) [2019;](#page-8-0) [Liu](#page-10-0) [et al.,](#page-10-0) [2019;](#page-10-0) [Raffel et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1). However, training

Figure 1: Performance of different parameter-efficient fine-tuning approaches. All results are based on T5-base for a fair comparison. The proposed PEMT achieves significant improvements over all compared methods while fine-tuning only a small number of parameters.

and storing a full copy of the model parameters for each task becomes expensive as the scale of PLM increases. To mitigate this problem, parameterefficient fine-tuning methods [\(Houlsby et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019;](#page-9-0) [Schick and Schütze,](#page-10-2) [2021b;](#page-10-2) [Pfeiffer et al.,](#page-10-3) [2020;](#page-10-3) [Lester et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021;](#page-10-4) [Liu et al.,](#page-10-5) [2023\)](#page-10-5) have been proposed to reduce the number of trainable parameters. Despite their efficiency gains, these methods often sacrifice performance compared to full fine-tuning [\(Gao et al.,](#page-9-1) [2021a;](#page-9-1) [Hu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2021;](#page-9-2) [Li and Liang,](#page-10-6) [2021\)](#page-10-6).

Recent work has proposed to distill knowledge from one or multiple source tasks and adapt it to various downstream target tasks to achieve further improvements [\(Vu et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022;](#page-8-1) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c\)](#page-11-1). Despite significant success, there remains a substantial performance gap between these methods and full fine-tuning. The limitations of existing methods can be categorized as follows: (1) Most existing methods primarily focus on utilizing shared knowledge across all source

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tasks, neglecting task-specific knowledge during adaptation to downstream tasks. (2) Task-specific representations of source and target tasks are typically trained independently, leading to insufficient exploitation of the correlation between them. As a result, the performance of multi-task transfer often lags behind that of distilling knowledge from a single source task. (3) The formulation of source and target tasks may be inconsistent, hindering cross-task adaptation. (4) The knowledge from source tasks is typically used as an initialization, but during fine-tuning, this knowledge may become intertwined with downstream tasks and gradually forgotten.

To mitigate these challenges, we propose PEMT, a parameter efficient fine-tuning framework based on multi-task transfer learning. PEMT comprises two training stages for source task learning and target task adaptation, respectively. (1) In Stage 1, we follow adapter-based tuning (*e.g.*, Adapter [\(Houlsby et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019\)](#page-9-0) and LoRA [\(Hu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2021\)](#page-9-2)) to train task-specific adapters on multiple source tasks. We incorporate a sequence of task-specific prompt vectors to distinguish different source tasks and utilize task descriptions to initialize each task prompt effectively. (2) In Stage 2, we train the adapter for the downstream task while incorporating knowledge from source tasks into the model. To enable multi-task transfer learning and prevent knowledge forgetting, we freeze the source adapters and integrate them using a mixture-ofexperts architecture (MoE). Instead of relying on a single source task, the knowledge of source tasks is incorporated as a soft combination of all adapters trained during Stage 1. We employ an MoE gated unit to measure the correlation between the target task and each source task, leveraging the taskspecific prompt vectors. To ensure the effective utilization of the specific knowledge from source tasks, we introduce the Task Sparsity Loss, encouraging the MoE gate to prioritize the most relevant source expert.

We conduct experiments on 17 NLP datasets involving multiple tasks and domains to evaluate the effectiveness of our approach. On all benchmarks, PEMT achieves an overall improvement of more than 2 points over full fine-tuning and all the compared PEFT methods as shown in Figure [1.](#page-0-0) Under the few-shot setting, PEMT also proves a significant improvement of 10 points over the compared transfer learning models. Further analysis on the

weights of different task experts demonstrates that the model tends to incorporate knowledge from the most relevant source task expert, which explains the efficiency and adaptability of our method.

Overall, this work makes the following contributions:

- We propose PEMT, a two-stage parameterefficient fine-tuning method facilitating multitask transfer learning. PEMT captures the transferable knowledge through a combination of adapters trained on source tasks, effectively leveraging task-specific knowledge.
- We propose a task-correlation-based gated unit to determine the weight of each source adapter by measuring the correlation between source and target downstream tasks. To capture interdependency across tasks, we introduce a sequence of task-specific prompt vectors to describe each task.
- Experimental results indicate PEMT consistently outperforms full fine-tuning and state-of-the-art PEFT methods across a broad range of tasks, which demonstrates the robustness and adaptability of our method. PEMT is proven to be also effective for few-shot learning using 4-32 labels.
- We also conduct extensive experiments to analyze how the performance changes under various settings, which provides a clear interpretation for the effectiveness of the proposed method.

2 Related Work

Parameter-Efficient Fine-tuning. Parameterefficient fine-tuning freezes the original PLM and introduces a small number of additional parameters for fine-tuning. Existing works can be categorized into two classes, adapter-based tuning and promptbased tuning. Adapter-based methods [\(Houlsby](#page-9-0) [et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019;](#page-9-0) [Pfeiffer et al.,](#page-10-3) [2020\)](#page-10-3) incorporate a trainable bottleneck module to each transformer layer. Prompt-based tuning [\(Lester et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021;](#page-10-4) [Schick](#page-10-7) [and Schütze,](#page-10-7) [2021a;](#page-10-7) [Gao et al.,](#page-9-3) [2021b\)](#page-9-3) prepends continuous or discrete prompt vectors to the input. Recently, some methods are proposed [\(Pfeiffer](#page-10-8) [et al.,](#page-10-8) [2021;](#page-10-8) [Vu et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-2) [2022a;](#page-11-2) [Gururangan et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022;](#page-9-4) [Diao et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023;](#page-9-5) [He](#page-9-6) [et al.,](#page-9-6) [2022;](#page-9-6) [Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022;](#page-8-1) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c;](#page-11-1) [Zhao et al.,](#page-12-0) [2023\)](#page-12-0) to transfer knowledge of trained adapters to downstream tasks.

Multi-Task Transfer Learning. Transferring knowledge from tasks has been proven to be an effective approach [\(Ma et al.,](#page-10-9) [2018;](#page-10-9) [Aghajanyan](#page-8-2) [et al.,](#page-8-2) [2021;](#page-8-2) [Zhong et al.,](#page-12-1) [2021;](#page-12-1) [Clark et al.,](#page-8-3) [2019b;](#page-8-3) [Singh et al.,](#page-11-3) [2022;](#page-11-3) [Gupta et al.,](#page-9-7) [2022;](#page-9-7) [Frohmann](#page-9-8) [et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023\)](#page-9-8). Many studies [\(Sanh et al.,](#page-10-10) [2022;](#page-10-10) [Wei](#page-11-4) [et al.,](#page-11-4) [2021;](#page-11-4) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-5) [2022b;](#page-11-5) [Liu et al.,](#page-10-11) [2022\)](#page-10-11) show the zero-shot or few-shot transferring capabilities of language models through massive multitask training over a broad range of tasks. However, the corresponding overhead could be enormous. To overcome the issue, some more recent works [\(Vu](#page-11-0) [et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022;](#page-8-1) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c;](#page-11-1) [Diao et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5) propose to transfer the knowledge shared by various tasks using parameter-efficient fine-tuning.

Among the related works, AdaMix [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-2) [2022a\)](#page-11-2) and MPT [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c\)](#page-11-1) are the most relevant methods. Compared to our PEMT, AdaMix trains the representation of source and target tasks independently and fails to sufficiently leverage the interdependency across tasks. MPT learns a single prompt by distilling the shared knowledge while ignoring the rich task-specific information.

3 Approach

Task. Given a set of K source tasks $S = \{S_1, S_2,$ \cdots , $S_{\mathcal{K}}$ and a set of M target tasks \mathcal{T} = ${\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2, \cdots, \mathcal{T}_M}$, our goal is to capture the knowledge of S and adapt it to any target task $\mathcal{T}_m \in \mathcal{T}$.

Overview. To sufficiently exploit the taskspecific knowledge of each source task, we divide the training process of PEMT into two stages, which are illustrated in Figure [2](#page-2-0) and Figure [3](#page-3-0) respectively. In the first stage, we follow the vanilla adapter-based (*e.g.*, LoRA [\(Hu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2021\)](#page-9-2) or Adapter [\(Houlsby et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019\)](#page-9-0)) to train the source task adapters. For each source task, we freeze the original PLM parameters and inject a task-specific adapter to the feed-forward layer (FFN) for each Transformer layer. Besides, to learn a better representation of each task, we incorporate a taskspecific description prompt which is used to measure the correlation between tasks. In Stage 2, we distill the knowledge of source tasks as a weighted combination of the source adapters. The Mixtureof-experts architecture (MoE) is exploited to integrate the frozen source adapters and the MoE gate measures the weight of each source expert using the task prompts learned in Stage 1. The task

Figure 2: The training process of Stage 1. The taskspecific adapters and task representation prompts are trained on multiple source tasks.

prompt for the target task is a correlation-based combination of the trainable prompt vectors and the frozen prompts of the source tasks. To adapt to a downstream task, another task adapter is injected *after* the MoE module as shown in Figure [3.](#page-3-0)

3.1 Source Training

The goal of Stage 1 is to capture the task-specific knowledge of each source task. To this end, we fine-tune the PLM on multiple source tasks using adapter-based PEFT methods.

Source Task Adapter. As shown in Figure [2,](#page-2-0) the task adapter is injected in each transformer layer, which works parallel to the FFN layer to learn the task-specific knowledge. This design is inspired by recent studies [\(Geva et al.,](#page-9-9) [2021;](#page-9-9) [De Cao et al.,](#page-8-4) [2021;](#page-8-4) [Meng et al.,](#page-10-12) [2022\)](#page-10-12) that FFN captures the major knowledge of the training data. To be specific, a transformer FFN consists of two stacked layers, an up projection layer and a down projection layer. We integrate an adapter module to the FFN using either a parallel Adapter [\(He et al.,](#page-9-10) [2021\)](#page-9-10) or a LoRA, which works parallel to the up projection layer. The task adapter is implemented as two stacked low-rank matrices for reducing overheads.

Task Description Prompts. We introduce a task description prompt for each source task. The prompt describes the task formulation and is utilized to measure the correlation between tasks. Existing methods [\(Vu et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022;](#page-11-0) [Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022;](#page-8-1) [Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c\)](#page-11-1) train the representations of various tasks from scratch independently, which brings a gap between tasks. To address this issue, we propose a simple but effective method to use

Figure 3: The training process of Stage 2. A MoE module is employed to distill knowledge from source tasks. The source task adapters are used as the experts and combined with a MoE gate which measures the correlation between the target task and each source task. The specific adapter for the target task is injected *after* the MoE module. The task sparsity loss \mathcal{L}_{ts} is incorporated to improve the sparsity of the MoE gate. The task prompt for the target task is a task-correlation-based combination of the trainable prompt vectors and the frozen prompts of the source tasks.

handcrafted task descriptions as the initialization for the prompt vectors. Concretely, given a source task $S_k \in \mathcal{S}$, we prepend a trainable prompt matrix $\mathbf{P}_k \in \mathbb{R}^{N_k \times d}$ to the input tokens of PLM, where d is the embedding dimension and N_k denotes the length of the task description (*i.e.* prompt length). The task description is a sentence consisting of a task definition and input-output format based on the distinctive features of various tasks. It should be noted that the description length for different tasks could be different. The details for the template of the task descriptions are provided in Appendix [A.](#page-13-0)

Training on Source Tasks. Both the task adapters and task description prompts are trained following the typical PEFT procedure. There is no particular requirement for the source tasks. To bridge the gap between different tasks, we uniformly formulate all source tasks as text-to-text generation. We follow the format as proposed by [Raffel et al.](#page-10-1) [\(2020\)](#page-10-1).

3.2 Target Adaptation

In the second stage, PEMT is guided by the correlation between tasks to utilize the distilled knowledge

of all source tasks for adaptation to the downstream target task.

Mixture of Source Task Adapters. We employ a Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) module to combine the source adapters as the transferable knowledge. Instead of only focusing on the shared knowledge, we maintain the task-specific information of each source task during adapting to the downstream task. As illustrated in Figure [3,](#page-3-0) the task adapters trained in Stage 1 are exploited as the experts in the MoE module. Instead of fine-tuning the source task adapters, we freeze the parameters of the experts to avoid the catastrophic forgetting problem. Formally, the output of the MoE module in the l -th layer is calculated as:

$$
\mathbf{H}_e^l = \sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{K}} w_k^l \cdot \mathbf{E}_k^l, \tag{1}
$$

where \mathbf{E}_k^l is the task adapter in the *l*-th Transformer layer trained on the k-th source task S_k , and K is the total number of source tasks. w_k^l denotes the weight of \mathbf{E}_k^l , which is obtained by the MoE gate,

calculated as:

$$
w_k^l = \text{softmax}\left(\mathbf{W}_g^l \cdot \text{avg}\left(\mathbf{H}\right)\right)_k, \qquad (2)
$$

where $\mathbf{W}_g^l \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times \mathcal{K}}$ is a trainable matrix, and avg is an average pooling layer. H is the prompt matrix for the current target task, which captures the correlation between tasks.

Correlation-Guided Task Prompt. As aforementioned, existing methods train source and target representations independently, which leaves an obstacle to acquire knowledge interdependency across tasks. To exploit the correlation between tasks sufficiently, we propose to incorporate the prompts trained on source tasks into the target adaptation process based on attention mechanism. Following [\(Vaswani et al.,](#page-11-6) [2017\)](#page-11-6), the attention function $\text{attn}(Q, K, V)$ takes three inputs, query, key, and value respectively. Here, we utilize the target prompt as a query and the source prompts as key and value. Formally, let $\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{q}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{q}_T)$ denotes the trainable prompt matrix of the target task. $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ is initialized with a task description of T tokens following the same way as in Stage 1 and q_t denotes the t -th prompt vector. Given the prompt of the k-th source task P_k , the correlation feature between source task S_k and the target task is obtained as:

$$
\mathbf{C}_k = \text{attn}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{P}_k, \mathbf{P}_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}.
$$
 (3)

Once the correlation feature for each source task is obtained, we simply add all the correlation information to the original prompt of the target task. Concretely, the final prompt matrix $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$ for the target task is calculated by:

$$
\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{Q} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbf{C}_k.
$$
 (4)

This design is inspired by the additive compositionality of word embedding [\(Mikolov et al.,](#page-10-13) [2013\)](#page-10-13), which is proven to be simple but effective according to the experimental results. The prompt for the target task captures the representation information and interdependency across source and target tasks, and is exploited to measure the weight of each source task adapter (Eq [2\)](#page-4-0). It should be noted that all Transformer layers of PEMT share the same H for the sake of efficiency.

Target Task Adapter. To adapt to the downstream task, we incorporate another task-specific adapter into each Transformer layer. The target task adapter, which is inserted *after* the MoE module, is exploited to mine the knowledge which is not covered by the experts trained on source tasks. The combination of source and target adapters facilitates the model to take advantage of both the rich knowledge learned from each source task and the task-specific knowledge of the target task.

Fine-Tuning on the Target Tasks To sufficiently utilize the knowledge of the source tasks, we propose the Task Sparsity Loss (TSL) to improve the sparsity of the MoE module. The intuition is to ensure the MoE gate assigns a higher priority to the top-1 source task expert by measuring the similarity between specific expert output and the final layer output. Formally, the TSL is defined as:

$$
\mathcal{L}_{ts} = -\frac{1}{LK} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^l \cdot \text{sim}(\mathbf{H}_o^l, \mathbf{E}_k^l), \quad (5)
$$

where H_o^l denotes the final hidden state of the *l*-th Transformer layer, L is the total number of layers, and sim is a similarity score function and we choose cosine similarity in this paper.

Similar to the training process on source tasks, we formulate the target tasks as a text-to-text generation problem. The training objective is to minimize the negative log-likelihood of output y conditioned on the input text x and the task prompt H. Finally, the fine-tuning loss on the target task is defined as:

$$
\mathcal{L} = -\sum_{j} P(y_j | \mathbf{y}_{< j}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{H}) + \alpha \mathcal{L}_{ts}, \quad (6)
$$

where α is a hyperparameter to balance the losses.

4 Experiment

We conduct experiments on a comprehensive range of NLP datasets to demonstrate the effectiveness of PEMT. The performance of different methods is compared under both full-dataset and few-shot settings.

4.1 Datasets and Tasks

As in [Wang et al.](#page-11-1) [\(2022c\)](#page-11-1), we use 6 high-resource datasets as the source tasks: MNLI [\(Williams et al.,](#page-11-7) [2018\)](#page-11-7), QNLI [\(Demszky et al.,](#page-8-5) [2018\)](#page-8-5), QQP [\(Wang](#page-11-8) [et al.,](#page-11-8) [2018\)](#page-11-8), SST-2 [\(Socher et al.,](#page-11-9) [2013\)](#page-11-9), SQuAD [\(Rajpurkar et al.,](#page-10-14) [2016\)](#page-10-14), and ReCoRD [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-11-10)

Method	GLUE & SuperGLUE									
	STS-B	MRPC	RTE	CoLA	Multi	BoolQ	WiC	WSC	CB	Avg.
FT	89.7	89.1	71.9	61.8	72.8	81.1	70.2	59.6	85.7	75.8
PT	89.5	68.1	54.7	10.6	58.7	61.7	48.9	51.9	67.9	56.9
BitFit	90.9	86.8	67.6	58.2	74.5	79.6	70.0	59.6	78.6	74.0
Adapter	90.7	85.3	71.9	64.0	75.9	82.5	67.1	67.3	85.7	76.7
LoRA	91.1	86.8	74.1	61.5	75.2	81.8	69.2	65.4	85.7	76.7
SPoT	90.0	79.7	69.8	57.1	74.0	77.2	48.9	51.9	67.9	68.5
ATTEMPT	89.7	85.7	73.4	57.4	74.4	77.1	66.8	53.8	78.6	73.0
MPT	90.4	89.1	79.4	62.4	74.8	79.6	69.0	67.3	79.8	76.9
MixDA	90.8	88.2	66.9	60.8	59.2	61.7	48.9	50.0	78.6	67.2
Adamix	91.0	88.2	70.5	58.7	72.9	80.2	63.6	51.9	85.7	73.6
PEMT	$91.1_{0.22}$	$88.7_{0.40}$	$83.0_{1.36}$	$67.0_{2.12}$	$75.5_{0.36}$	$82.6_{0.38}$	$68.7_{0.89}$	$67.3_{0.0}$	$94.1_{1.68}$	$79.8_{0.17}$

Table 1: Results on GLUE and SuperGLUE. The metrics are Pearson correlation for STS-B, F1 for MultiRC (Multi), and accuracy for other tasks as evaluation metrics. Our results are averaged over three runs, and subscripts denote standard deviation.

[2018\)](#page-11-10). We use other datasets from four benchmarks as target tasks: MultiRC [\(Khashabi et al.,](#page-9-11) [2018\)](#page-9-11), BoolQ [\(Clark et al.,](#page-8-6) [2019a\)](#page-8-6), WiC [\(Pilehvar and](#page-10-15) [Camacho-Collados,](#page-10-15) [2019\)](#page-10-15), WSC [\(Levesque et al.,](#page-10-16) [2012\)](#page-10-16) and CB [\(De Marneffe et al.,](#page-8-7) [2019\)](#page-8-7) from SuperGLUE [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-11) [2019\)](#page-11-11); RTE [\(Giampiccolo](#page-9-12) [et al.,](#page-9-12) [2007\)](#page-9-12), CoLA [\(Warstadt et al.,](#page-11-12) [2019\)](#page-11-12), STS-B [\(Cer et al.,](#page-8-8) [2017\)](#page-8-8), MRPC [\(Dolan and Brock](#page-9-13)[ett,](#page-9-13) [2005\)](#page-9-13) from GLUE [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-8) [2018\)](#page-11-8); Natural Questions (NQ) [\(Kwiatkowski et al.,](#page-10-17) [2019\)](#page-10-17), HotpotQA (HP) [\(Yang et al.,](#page-11-13) [2018\)](#page-11-13), NewsQA (News) [\(Trischler et al.,](#page-11-14) [2017\)](#page-11-14), and SearchQA (SQA) [\(Dunn et al.,](#page-9-14) [2017\)](#page-9-14) from MRQA [\(Fisch](#page-9-15) [et al.,](#page-9-15) [2019\)](#page-9-15); WinoGrande [\(Sakaguchi et al.,](#page-10-18) [2021\)](#page-10-18), Yelp-2 [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-12-2) [2015\)](#page-12-2), SciTail [\(Khot et al.,](#page-10-19) [2018\)](#page-10-19), and PAWS-Wiki [\(Zhang et al.,](#page-12-3) [2019\)](#page-12-3) from the *Others* benchmark as in [\(Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022\)](#page-8-1).

Compared Methods We compare PEMT with the state-of-the-art fine-tuning methods: (1) Full fine-tuning (FT), which fine-tunes all parameters of the pre-trained model. (2) Prompt-based tuning, including vanilla prompt tuning (PT) [\(Lester](#page-10-4) [et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021\)](#page-10-4), SPoT [\(Vu et al.,](#page-11-0) [2022\)](#page-11-0), ATTEMPT [\(Asai et al.,](#page-8-1) [2022\)](#page-8-1) and MPT [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-1) [2022c\)](#page-11-1). (3) Adapter-based tuning, including vanilla adapter [\(Houlsby et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019\)](#page-9-0), AdaMix [\(Wang et al.,](#page-11-2) [2022a\)](#page-11-2) and MixDA [\(Diao et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5). (4) Other parameter-efficient tuning methods, including LoRA [\(Hu et al.,](#page-9-2) [2021\)](#page-9-2) and BitFit [\(Zaken et al.,](#page-11-15) [2022\)](#page-11-15).

4.2 Implementation

Following existing works, we use the publicly available pre-trained T5-Base model [\(Raffel et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1)

with 220M parameters from HuggingFace^{[1](#page-5-0)} as the backbone.

Following [\(Karimi Mahabadi et al.,](#page-9-16) [2021\)](#page-9-16), if a dataset does not have a publicly available test split with annotations, we use the full set of a subset of the developing partition or a subset of the for testing. PEMT is trained on 4 x NVIDIA A800 GPUs. The implementation details and hyper-parameters are listed in Appendix [B.](#page-13-1)

We run all the experiments three times with different random seeds, and report the mean values and standard deviations. Under the few-shot setting, for each number of shots $k \in \{4, 16, 32\}$, we randomly collect k samples from the downstream task data. The random seed is shared by all compared methods for a fair comparison.

4.3 Results

Full Data. Experimental results in Table [1](#page-5-1) and [2](#page-6-0) show that PEMT significantly outperforms full fine-tuning and all other parameter-efficient tuning methods. As observed from Table [1,](#page-5-1) PEMT establishes the new state-of-the-art results for parameterefficient fine-tuning on GLUE and SuperGLUE. According to the results, Adapter and MPT are the most competitive methods, while our method yields an improvement of 2.75% and 2.91%. Especially, On CB task, the improvement comes to 13.06% and 7.16%. On RTE task, PEMT outperforms all other methods with over 10 points, which illustrates the capability of knowledge transferring of our method.

Table [2](#page-6-0) shows the performance of different methods on MRQA and *Others* benchmark. Compared

¹ https://huggingface.co/

Method	MROA						Others			
	NQ	HP	SQA	News	Avg.	WG	Yelp	SciTail	PAWS	Avg.
FT	75.1	77.5	81.1	65.2	74.7	61.9	96.7	95.8	94.1	87.1
PT	67.9	72.9	75.7	61.1	69.4	49.6	95.1	87.9	55.8	72.1
BitFit	70.7	75.5	77.7	64.1	72.0	57.2	94.7	94.7	92.0	84.7
Adapter	74.2	77.6	81.4	65.6	74.7	59.2	96.9	94.5	94.3	86.2
LoRA	73.9	77.1	80.1	64.9	74.0	60.2	96.4	94.5	94.2	86.3
SPoT	68.2	74.8	75.3	58.2	69.1	50.4	95.4	91.2	91.1	82.0
ATTEMPT	70.4	75.2	77.3	62.8	71.4	57.6	96.7	93.1	92.1	84.9
MPT	72.0	75.8	77.2	63.7	72.2	56.5	96.4	95.5	93.5	85.5
MixDA	71.2	76.1	78.3	63.9	72.4	55.2	95.7	50.8	82.7	71.1
Adamix	73.2	77.5	80.4	65.2	74.1	59.8	96.6	96.0	94.0	86.6
PEMT	$75.1_{0.04}$	$78.3_{0.10}$	$81.8_{0.09}$	$65.9_{0.12}$	$75.3_{0.02}$	$62.3_{0.08}$	$97.0_{0.06}$	$96.9_{0.69}$	$94.3_{0.08}$	$87.6_{0.18}$

Table 2: Results on MRQA and the *Others* benchmark. Our results are averaged over three runs and subscripts indicate standard deviation.

k -shot	Method	GLUE & SuperGLUE									
		$STS-B$	MRPC	RTE	CoLA	Multi	BoolO	WiC	WSC	CB	Avg.
	PT	88.8	68.1	56.3	27.4	61.8	61.6	51.2	60.4	53.5	58.8
$\overline{4}$	MPT	89.1	68.1	62.6	34.8	62.2	62.2	52.9	67.3	73.6	63.6
	PEMT	89.2	78.4	64.0	44.7	72.0	71.0	62.1	44.2	78.6	67.1
	PT	87.8	68.1	54.7	28.5	60.3	61.9	48.9	44.2	63.5	57.5
16	MPT	89.1	70.1	64.8	32.1	64.5	63.3	49.8	67.3	78.6	64.4
	PEMT	89.8	86.8	69.8	43.4	72.4	74.0	66.5	44.2	82.1	69.9
	PT	87.5	68.1	54.7	23.2	59.2	61.7	52.6	67.3	67.8	60.2
32	MPT	89.7	74.5	59.7	30.8	63.3	68.9	53.9	67.3	82.1	65.6
	PEMT	89.8	86.3	71.9	45.5	72.2	74.4	61.8	51.9	85.7	71.1

Table 3: Few-shot learning results on GLUE with 4, 16, and 32 training examples.

with GLUE and SuperGLUE, the data sizes of these two datasets are larger, and the contexts of the samples are longer. Due to these complexities, the performance of previous PEFT methods is significantly inferior to full fine-tuning. From the results, PEMT successfully outperforms full fine-tuning on these datasets, suggesting the stability and robustness of PEMT across different data sizes and context lengths.

Few-shot. Following prior works, we conduct few-shot experiments on GLUE and SuperGLUE benchmark to measure the generalization of PEMT to new tasks with only a few training examples available $(k \in \{4, 16, 32\})$ $(k \in \{4, 16, 32\})$ $(k \in \{4, 16, 32\})$. Table 3 shows the results. With limited data resources, our method still yields a significant improvement, especially on some tasks such as WiC, MultiRC, CoLA, and MRPC. Another interesting observation is that the improvement of PEMT over baselines becomes more pronounced as the number of training samples increases. This further underscores that the task-shared knowledge of MPT gradually fades during the training process of downstream tasks when

more training data is provided. In contrast, PEMT freezes the source task adapters, which not only preserves shared knowledge to the greatest extent possible but also sufficiently exploits the associations and distinctions across various tasks.

5 Analysis

We conduct further analysis to investigate the effectiveness of different components of PEMT.

Weights of Source Adapters. In order to explore how the weights of source experts change on various target tasks, we collect the outputs of the MoE gate and visualize them through histograms as shown in Figure [4.](#page-7-0) As observed, there are obvious tendencies and priorities in the weight distribution. For GLUE and SuperGLUE benchmarks, the knowledge of the MNLI plays a dominant role, with a weighting of more than 50% of all tasks. The contributions of some individual tasks are close to 0 under the constraint of Task Sparsity Loss. Contrastively, the distribution of weights on MRQA is totally different, where the two tasks SQuAD and ReCorD account for about 80% of the weights.

Figure 4: The source expert weight distribution in GLUE, SuperGLUE, MRQA and *Others* benchmarks.

Number of Source Task STS-B MRPC RTE CoLA Multi BoolQ WiC WSC CB Avg.								
	91.3	86.8			80.6 66.3 76.1 81.5 65.4 67.3 92.9 78.7			
	91.0			87.8 83.5 64.3	75.4 82.1	68.3 67.3 92.9 79.2		
	91.3				89.2 82.0 64.2 74.9 82.6	68.7 67.3 92.9 79.2		
	91.1	89.7	83.0	67.0 75.5	82.6	68.7 67.3	94.1 79.8	

Table 4: Average scores on GLUE and SuperGLUE benchmark with different number of source tasks.

Method	Train(s)	Infer(s)	Mem(GB)				
FT	493.17	0.78	8.57				
LoRA	391.60	0.76	5.28				
Adapter	377.00	0.79	5.74				
MPT	2163.30	5.53	50.57				
ATTEMPT	2177.41	5.58	50.86				
	Number of Source Task for PEMT						
1	364.35	0.73	5.56				
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	433.96	0.85	8.78				
4	478.60	0.95	10.77				
6	551.39	1.11	12.64				

Table 5: Comparison of efficiency on CoLA task.

The reason is that all the three datasets MRQA, SQuAD and ReCorD belong to the Q&A category, which also indicates the correlation guided MoE module and the task sparsity loss effectively work as expected.

Number of Source Tasks To substantiate the scalability of PEMT, we investigate how the performance changes when different numbers of source tasks are used in Stage 1. As shown in Table [4,](#page-7-1) compared to MixDA, PEMT exhibits a gradual improvement as the number of source tasks increases, which is different from the results of existing methods [\(Diao et al.,](#page-9-5) [2023\)](#page-9-5). This observation suggests the capability of PEMT to sufficiently capture the commonalities and differences among various tasks, which demonstrates a cer-

No.	Ablation	Avg. Score
	PEMT with LoRA	79.8
2	w/o description	79.0
3	w/o correlation	78.3
4	w/o correlation and MoE	76.6
5	PEMT with Adapter	79.0

Table 6: Results of ablation studies on GLUE and SuperGLUE benchmark.

tain degree of continual learning proficiency. We also conducted efficiency experiments on the CoLA task, with specific experimental details provided in Appendix [B.](#page-13-1) As shown in Table [5,](#page-7-2) compared to MPT and ATTEMPT, PEMT used a more concise prompt, achieving advantages in training, inference efficiency, and memory usage. However, we also observed that as the number of source tasks increased, the computational efficiency of PEMT gradually declined.

Task Description Prompts. As introduced in Section [3.1,](#page-2-1) we initialize the task prompt with a sentence of task description. To measure the effectiveness of this method in maintaining consistency in task representation, we replace it with a randomly initialized prompt and keep the prompt length the same. As shown in Table [6](#page-7-3) (Row 2), the averaged score on the two benchmarks decreases by 0.8% without initialization with task descriptions.

Correlation Guided Task Prompt. We conduct experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of task correlation features in facilitating the model to select the optimal source expert. We remove the entire prompt module in both source task training and target adaptation while maintaining the MoE module. For the MoE gate, we use an average pooling on the hidden states of the previous FFN layer as input. The ablation study in Table [6](#page-7-3) (Row 3) shows that task correlation features produce a 1.5% average performance improvement.

Mixture-of-Source-Adapters. We further investigate the effectiveness of the source adapters on target adaptation. To this end, we remove both the target prompt and the source adapters, while only maintaining the task-specific adapter *after* each FFN layer. This change degenerates the model to the simple variant of Adapter which inserts an adapter module into each multi-head attention and FFN layer. We evaluate the performance on target adaptation without training on source tasks. The results in Table [6](#page-7-3) (Row 4) show that, without the task prompt and source adapters, the performance drops sharply by 3.2% on average.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose PEMT, a new parameterefficient fine-tuning framework that is capable of adapting the knowledge from multiple tasks to the downstream target tasks. PEMT is facilitated with the correlation features between tasks and sufficiently leverages the task-specific knowledge of source tasks with prompt tuning and the mixture-ofexperts architecture. We also introduce novel methods to improve prompt initialization and model sparsity. Experiments are conducted on a comprehensive range of datasets involving multiple tasks and domains and the results demonstrate PEMT significantly outperforms existing SOTA methods.

Limitations

The model's inference latency rises proportionally with the number of experts, prompting the necessity to identify a stable reparameterization for merging the weights of multiple experts or to explore a reliable pruning method. Additionally, the entire framework involves a two-stage transfer learning process. Although this two-stage architecture significantly enhances performance on downstream tasks, it incurs substantial training overhead and data costs, and also introduces potential risks of data leakage or model attacks.

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A Task Description Details

We designed task descriptions based on the distinctive features of various tasks. Take MNLI task as an example, we use a description "Given a premise sentence and a hypothesis sentence, predict whether the premise entails the hypothesis, contradicts the hypothesis, or neither" to initialize the continuous prompt vectors prepended to the input. The descriptions for all tasks are shown as Table [9.](#page-14-0)

Param	Value
Optimizer	AdamW
Learning rate	$5e-4$
Batch size	128
Warmup steps	500
Expert dimension	64
Training epochs	5
Learning rate schedule	linear decay

Table 7: Stage 1 training: experimental setup.

Table 8: Stage 2 training: experimental setup.

B Implementation Details

We use down projection dimension $r = 64$ in both source training and target adaptation. For source training, we train PEMT on each source task for 5 epochs. For target adaptation, we train all of the baselines for 20 epochs on small datasets with less than 10k examples, 10 epochs on medium size data with more than 10k examples, and 5 epochs on MRQA datasets. We limit the maximum training data number of Yelp-2 to be 100k samples. We run inferences on the test data using the model with the best development performance. We set the maximum token length to be 512 for MRQA datasets, 348 for MultiRC and 256 for all of other datasets. We set the maximum length of the input to be 256, 256, 512, 256 for GLUE, SuperGLUE, MRQA 2019, and *Others* task set, respectively. We set the maximum length of input to be 348 for MultiRC. The details for training parameters are shown in Table [7](#page-13-2) and Table [8.](#page-13-3) For the efficiency experiments in Table [5,](#page-7-2) we meticulously measured the time and memory consumption during both the training and inference stages. All the efficiency experiments were conducted on a single A800 GPU with a batch size of 128 and precision set to fp32, with a prompt length of 100 to ensure consistency with their papers for MPT and ATTEMPT. We utilized the Transformers library to calculate GPU memory usage.

Table 9: Tasks descriptions for prompt Initialization