KOYA: A RECOMMENDER SYSTEM FOR LARGE LANGUAGE MODEL SELECTION

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ABSTRACT

Pretrained large language models (LLMs) are widely used for various downstream tasks in different languages. However, selecting the best LLM (from a large set of potential LLMs) for a given downstream task and language is a challenging and computationally expensive task, making the efficient use of LLMs difficult for low-compute communities. To address this challenge, we present Koya, a recommender system built to assist researchers and practitioners in choosing the right LLM for their task and language, without ever having to finetune the LLMs. Koya is built with the Koya Pseudo-Perplexity (KPPPL), our adaptation of the pseudo perplexity, and ranks LLMs in order of compatibility with the language of interest, making it easier to choose the most compatible LLM. By evaluating Koya using five pretrained LLMs and three African languages (Yoruba, Kinyarwanda, and Amharic), we show an average recommender accuracy of 95%, demonstrating its effectiveness. Koya aims to offer an easy to use (through a simple web interface), cost-effective, fast and efficient tool to assist researchers and practitioners with low or limited compute access.

1 INTRODUCTION

Pre-training is a widely adopted strategy that enables very deep neural networks effectively learn from huge unlabeled text data (Qiu et al., 2020; Doddapaneni et al., 2021). While large-scale labeled datasets are expensive to annotate, there is an abundance of unlabeled, and sometimes noisy, text data and pre-training enables models to learn useful representations from them – representations that can improve performance on downstream natural language processing (NLP) tasks (Qiu et al., 2020).

The proliferation of large language models (LLMs) (Devlin et al., 2018a; Sanh et al., 2019a; Tang et al., 2020; Ogueji et al., 2021; Chi et al., 2021; Dossou et al., 2022; Alabi et al., 2022; Adebara et al., 2022) has made the task of selecting the most suitable model for a given low-resource language and downstream task increasingly complex. The conventional approach to determine the best LLM involves finetuning multiple models and comparing their performance, which is computationally expensive and not feasible for low-resource communities (Bender et al., 2021; Ahia et al., 2021). The lack of time and computational resources makes it difficult for these communities to go through the process of finetuning a large number of models and selecting the best-performing one (Amodei et al., 2018; Kaplan et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2022).

To address this challenge, we present Koya, a powerful recommender system that simplifies the process of selecting a suitable model from a large number of possible pretrained models. Koya is built with the Koya Pseudo-Perplexity (KPPPL), our adaptation of the pseudo perplexity, and ranks LMs in order of compatibility with the language of interest, making it easier to choose the best-performing model.

2 RELATED WORK

The objective of understanding an LLM's performance on a particular language without finetuning has been studied by Xia et al. (2020) and Ye et al. (2021). Xia et al. (2020) trained a regression model to predict the performance of a model on a supervised NLP task given the model, previous

experimental setups, the training procedures, a test dataset and the language. In contrast, we propose a technique that is independent of training another model entirely and does not require the use of a model's experimental setup information which might not exist in an understudied domain or language. In addition the work uses language distance features from the URIRL database (Littell et al., 2017) which does not cover all existing languages. Similary, Ahuja et al. (2022) extends Microsoft Research's Project LITMUS [1] while training different machine learning models in order to predict another model's performance. This method depends on external tools and data points from the LITMUS project while our work is independent of these external variables that may not be present in a low-resource setting.

Evaluating LLMs has also been done by scoring them with their pseudo-log-likelihood (Salazar et al., 2019) which uses token masking to do this. Our work builds on this with some key differences: we propose KPPPL which offers advantages like faster inference for Koya. We are also operating in a different context of constructing a recommender system with the masked language scores to recommend models for African languages. Finally, their work was directed toward evaluating ASR and NMT models while our work follows a model agnostic approach.

3 MOTIVATION

Kunle is a masters student from a very remote community in Rwanda who is interested in building an NLP model with the dataset he has. Since his dataset is small, he will leverage transfer learning by finetuning a pretrained model on his downstream task. There are over 500 possible LMs on HuggingFace (HuggingFace) which Kunle can try. As Kunle does not work at Google, Meta or OpenAI, he does not have an easy access to compute resources. Luckily, he is able to get a Masakhane GCP compute but it has a limit of 1 day (the exact time it would take to finetune just one model) so Kunle cannot afford to finetune different models and test them in order to ascertain the most compatible for his downstream task.

All these make it a great difficulty for people like Kunle to find the optimal LLM for their use-case – until Koya.

4 KOYA

Koya is a recommender system for choosing the most compatible pretrained LLM to use for a downstream task and language of interest. Koya aims to offer an easy to use (through a simple web interface), cost-effective, fast and efficient tool to assist researchers and practitioners with low or limited compute access.

4.1 HOW KOYA WORKS

A pretrained LLM is not guaranteed to perform well in a given downstream task or language (Gururangan et al., 2020; Azunre, 2021; Adelani et al., 2022; Alabi et al., 2022). Therefore, after an LLM has been pretrained, it is important to estimate its performance on the downstream task and language at hand. Besides finetuning the LLM, which becomes computationally expensive when you have to do it for a large set of LLMs just to find the right one, one intrinsic method to evaluate a LLM relies on the **perplexity**, which is defined as the inverse of the model's probability likelihood of the corpus (Jurafsky & Martin, 2009). The advantage of the perplexity is that as an intrinsic, task-agnostic measure of LLM performance, it does not require finetuning the LLM on any task, making the model evaluation much quicker (Gandhi). We give a formal definition of the perplexity of a language model below.

Given a sequence S, of N words $(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$, the perplexity (PPL) of S is formally defined as the inverse of the model's probability likelihood of S. That is:

$$PPL(S) = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)}}, \tag{1}$$

[1] https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/project-litmus/

where $P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$ is the likelihood of the S from the model (Jurafsky & Martin, 2009). For a casual autoregressive model (which models a word as the probability of the word given the sequence of words before it), we can decompose $P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$ into

$$\prod_{i=1}^{N} P(w_i|w_1, ..., w_{i-1}) \tag{2}$$

and therefore Equation 1 becomes:

$$PPL(S) = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{N} P(w_i|w_1, ..., w_{i-1})}} \tag{3}$$

As a result, better language models will have a lower perplexity (or higher probability likelihood) for S. One can therefore interpret the perplexity as the model's ability to make sense of S (Wang et al., 2019). Koya is designed around this underlying concept: the more sense an LLM is able to make of a sentence in a given language, the easier and faster it will be for the model to learn the downstream task in that language of the task (Jurafsky & Martin, 2009; Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, the performance (on a downstream task) of an LLM depends on the extent to which the model is familiar with the language (Gonen et al., 2022).

Concretely, given a set M of n pretrained language models, $M = \{L_1, L_2, ...L_n\}$, and a dataset, D which will be used for a downstream task T, the user gives Koya one sentence S_T from D and Koya compares the perplexities from all the models in M for the sentence S_T. In theory, the perplexity can be computed over a corpus of many sentences, but in practice, we observe that with just a sentence, Koya is able to make a good recommendation, with the advantage of faster inference.

Adapting the perplexity to MLM-LLMs with Pseudo-Perplexity (PPPL) Masked language modelling (MLM) (Taylor, 1953) is the pretraining objective for bidirectional LLMs (which are ubiquitous) like BERT (Devlin et al., 2018b) and its numerous variants like RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019b), DistilBERT Sanh et al. (2019b), ALBERT (Lan et al., 2019), XLNet (Yang et al., 2019), ELECTRA (Clark et al., 2020), SpanBERT (Joshi et al., 2020). In MLM pretraining, we first randlomly mask out some tokens from the input sentence and then train the model to predict the masked tokens, using the rest of the unmasked tokens as context. MLM has been shown to be very ideal to learn useful linguistic representations of text (Devlin et al., 2018b; Liu et al., 2019b), which is why it is used by many LMs, with extensions beyond pretraining (Davody et al., 2022).

In bidirectional LMs, different from the autoregressive LMs, the conditional probability of a word/token w_i from a sequence $(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$ is

$$P(w_i|w_1, ...w_{i-1}, w_{i+1}, ..., w_N), \tag{4}$$

and due to the bidirectional nature, there isn't any known way, to the best of our knowledge, to compute the probability of the sequence itself (i.e $P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$) that we need for perplexity (Equation 1). Salazar et al. (2019), building on past works (Chen et al., 2017; Wang & Cho, 2019; Shin et al., 2019), proposed the 'pseudo perplexity' for scoring MLM-LMs:

$$PPL(S) = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{N} P(w_i|w_1, ...w_{i-1}, w_{i+1}, ..., w_N)}} \tag{5}$$

Koya Pseudo-Perplexity (KPPPL) For Koya, we adopt the pseudo-perplexity, and make a few key adjustments. Given a sequence, S, of N words/tokens $(w_1, w_2, ..., w_N)$, we calculate the Koya pseudo-perplexity (KPPPL for short) of S in the following steps:

1. We randomly select k tokens and *mask* a subset $W_R = \{w_{r_1}, ...w_{r_k}\}$ of S.
2. Then the KPPPL for S becomes:

$$KPPPL(S) \approx KPPPL(W_R) = \sqrt[k]{\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} P(w_{r_i}|(w_1, ...w_N) \setminus w_{r_i})}} \tag{6}$$

3. Calculating $P(w_{r_i}|(w_1, ...w_N) \setminus w_{r_i})$: We'll use a concrete example to explain how we get the likelihood of the token from the model. Let us assume we have a sequence $s = (s_1, ...s_n)$, and we have randomly selected one token s_k. After masking, the new sequence becomes $\hat{s} = (s_1, ...s_{k-i}, [MASK], ..., s_n)$. We then pass $\hat{s}$ to the model and through the logits of the masked token, we get a probability P_{mask} over the vocabulary size of the model. We then take $P_{mask}(s_k)$ which is interpreted as the likelihood of the model to choose s_k as the token that was masked.

5 Experimental Setting

We performed experiments to test the effectiveness of Koya, built on the KPPPL algorithm (proposed in Equation 6), as a recommender system. Concretely, we performed finetuning experiments on a downstream task and compared the ranked list of models, based on their downstream task, to the ranked list of models from Koya (using KPPPL). We chose news classification as our downstream task and performed experiments involving 3 African languages: Amharic, Kinyarwanda and Yoruba. For this paper, we constrained ourselves to encoder-only LLMs which were trained with the MLM objective. and considered 5 models: AfriBERTa (Ogueji et al., 2021), Afro-XLMR (Alabi et al., 2022), mBERT (Devlin et al., 2018b), InfoXLM (Chi et al., 2021), and XLM-RoBERTa Conneau et al. (2019). In the sections that follow, we will discuss the languages, models, training and recommendation setup.

5.1 Languages

Amharic: After Arabic, Amharic is the most widely spoken Semitic language (Belay et al., 2022), most belong to the Afro-Asiatic language family. the language is made up of 34 characters and can be tokenized by whitespaces. In this work we used the Amharic news classification dataset (Azime & Mohammed, 2021) which consist a total of 50706 articles that were collated from different new sources.

Kinyarwanda: Kinyarwanda belongs to the Niger-Congo and it is spoken by four different countries in Africa. It also belongs to a larger group of language families called *Rwanda-Rundi*. We used the KINNEWS dataset curated by Niyongabo et al. (2020) for this work. It contains 21,268 articles having 14 classes. The data was collected from five newpapers and fifteen new websites all from Rwanda.

Yoruba: Yoruba also belongs to the Niger-Congo as Kinyarwanda . The dataset used to the Yoruba language section of this work is the Yoruba BBC News Topic Classification dataset which is hosted on HuggingFace[2].

5.2 Models

mBERT mBert (Devlin et al., 2018b) was pre-trained on 104 languages from the Wikipedia data using masked language modeling and Next Sentence prediction technique.

AfriBERTa: AfriBerta (Ogueji et al., 2021) was pretrained using masked language modeling technique but without next sentence prediction on 11 African languages, all constituting a total of 5,448,911 sentences in 1GB size of data. The languages belong to three language families which includes Afro-Asiatic, Niger-Congo and English Creole.

XLM-RoBERTa: XLM-RoBERTa (XLMR) (Conneau et al., 2019) is a multilingual variant of RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019a). XLMR was pretrained on 100 languages with 2.5TB of Wikipedia data.

[2] https://huggingface.co/datasets/yoruba_bbc_topics

Afro-XLMR: Afro-XLMR (Alabi et al., 2022) is an African variant of XLM-RoBERTa that was pretrained on 17 African languages by including languages from 3 major language families in Africa and 3 high resource languages which are French, Arabic and English. It uses multilingual adaptive finetuning to extend XLMR to African languages (Alabi et al., 2022).

Info-XLM: InfoXLM (Chi et al., 2021) was pretrained using masked and translation language modeling (Lample & Conneau, 2019) and a contrastive learning objective where the encoded representation of two bilingual sentence pairs are presented to have almost the same meaning to the model. The model pretraining was done using several corpus by constructing the CC-100 dataset (Conneau et al., 2020) for masked language modeling objective which contains a total of 94 languages.

5.3 Finetuning Setup

All the models used in this experiment were finetuned using the HuggingFace Transformers library (Wolf et al., 2020). We confined our finetuning to only the base versions of the models highlighted in section 5.2. All finetuning was done for 3 epochs using the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017) and a batch size of 32. We used a learning rate or 5e-5 and a weight decay of 0.01.

5.4 Koya Recommendation Setup

For each language, we sampled a random sentence, S_r, from its news classification test set. Using the algorithm described in Section 4.1, we calculated KPPPL(S_r) for each of the focus models. While the perplexity was defined over the words of the sentence in Section 4.1, in practice they can also be taken over the tokens (i.e. after the sentence has been tokenized). Finally, we ranked the results for each language and compared with the finetuning experiments.

An important practical detail to note is that since the model outputs the conditional log-probabilities of the tokens, Equation 6 is revised to the log scale:

$$KPPPL(W_R) = exp[\frac{-1}{k}\sum_{i=1}^{k} log(P(w_{r_i}|(w_1, ...w_N) \setminus w_{r_i}))] \quad (7)$$

5.4.1 Evaluating Koya

Formally, the task of evaluating a recommender system is formulated as comparing ranked lists (Sarica et al., 2022) and there are broadly two different approaches to compare ranked lists: Rank Correlation and Set Based Measure (Ritesh, 2013). An in-depth analysis of each of these approaches is out of the scope of this paper and we refer the reader to the authors' work for that.

Concretely in our case, for a given language l, we have two ordered lists, R_s and R_f, of pretrained LLMs ranked from best to worst, R_s is got from our recommendation system using the KPPPL objective and R_f is got from the ranking of the performance of the LLMs in the finetuning experiments for l. The task is to find a function $F(R_f, R_s)$ that tells us how similar R_s is to R_f.

For our F we chose the rank-biased overlap (RBO) function (Webber et al., 2010). The RBO is a type of the set based measure, and is suited for our use case because 1) it is a bounded function – due to the use of the geometric series Webber et al. (2010), 2) it works even when the ranked lists are disjoint, i.e. some elements from one list are absent in the other list, and 3) during comparison, more weight is given to the elements in front than at the end of the list – which is more intuitive to a user's internal ranking system where the first few recommendations matter more than those at the end of the list (Webber et al., 2010; Sarica et al., 2022).

6 Results & Discussion

Table 1 shows our finetuning experiments on the news classification task. It can be seen that AfriBERTa leads in most of the experiments and Info-XLMR performs the worst in most of the experi-

Table 1: F1 score on the news classification test set

	Yoruba	**Kinyarwanda**	**Amharic**
AfriBERTA	83.82	87.63	88.32
Afro-XLMR	55.71	85.73	85.66
mBERT	65.98	83.40	55.82
XLMR	29.85	79.33	86.78
Info-XLM	20.55	68.86	83.10

ments. The top performance of AfriBERTa can be attributed to the fact that AfriBERTa was pretrained on language data containing Yoruba, Amharic and Kinyarwanda (Ogueji et al., 2021). This attests to the statement that LLMs perform (on a downstream task) better in a language they were pretrained on (Nekoto et al., 2020; Fan et al., 2021; Adelani et al., 2021; 2022; Babu et al., 2022; Team et al., 2022).

Table 2: Recommendation score of Koya for each language

Language	**Score (%)**
Amharic	96.38
Yoruba	94.29
Kinyarwanda	95.27

In Table 2, we report the similarity score for each language, between Koya's LLM recommendation and the ranking based on the LLM finetuning results (in Table 1). We observe that for all languages, Koya achieves state-of-the-art performance as a recommender system.

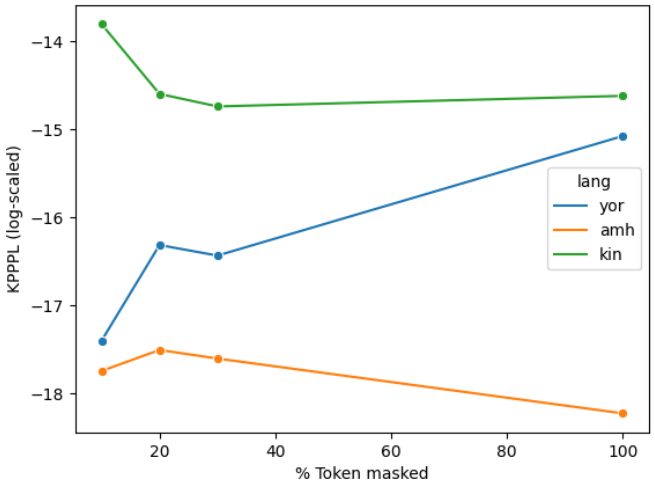

Figure 1: Effect of varying percentages of tokens masked for KPPPL. We use a fixed sequence length of 100. We show only results for AfriBERTa here due to space, and refer the reader to Figure 3 for an analysis on all models.

KPPPL is a practical metric for ranking MLM-LLMs: Recall that in KPPPL (Equation 6) we considered a random subset of the sequence when calculating the perplexity. While this greatly improves inference time, we investigate its effectiveness by analyzing the effect of varying percentages of masked tokens (corresponding to different k in Equation 6). We evaluated the impact at 10%,

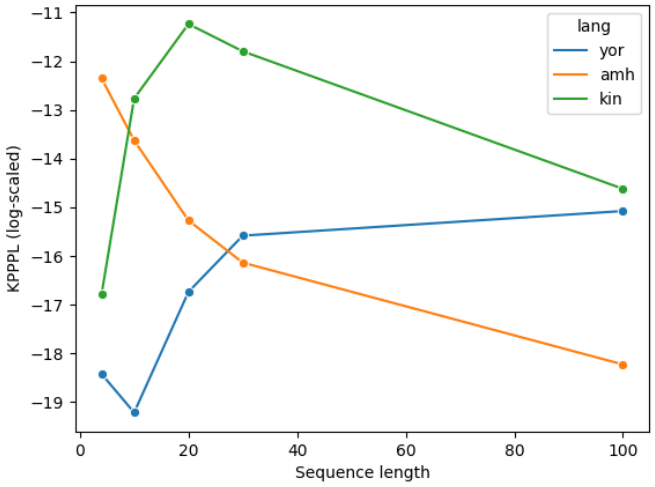

Figure 2: Effect of different sequence lengths on KPPPL for each language. Here all the tokens in the sequence are used to calculate KPPPL. We show only results for AfriBERTa here due to space, and refer the reader to Figure 4 for an analysis on all models.

20%, 30%, and 100% masked tokens, where 100% means we are using the whole sequence. We do this analysis for all models and report our findings in Figure 3. For easy readability, we also show, in Figure 1, our findings for only the best-performing model from our finetuning experiments, AfriBERTa. The figures are log-scaled on the y-axis for an easier view of the behaviour (the perplexity scores have very low orders of magnitude).

We see that in both Figures 1 and 3, while the KPPPL slightly varies for the different percentages of masked tokens, the KPPPL ordering of the languages remains the same. In Figure 1, Amharic is always lower than Yoruba, which is in turn always lower than Kinyarwanda. Also, the KPPPL-based ordering (and hence the recommendation scoring) at 10% is the same at 100%, where the whole sequence length is used (similar to the standard pseudo perplexity scoring discussed in Equation 5), showing that the KPPPL method provides a reliable estimate of the pseudo perplexity (in terms of the ranking of LLMs). We believe that this is due to the randomization of the tokens used: since this random process mimics the actual MLM pretraining objective Devlin et al. (2018b) of the LLM, KPPPL follows the same pattern of LLM training while estimating its performance. The biggest improvement to Koya with KPPPL is speed: we significantly reduce the time to query the LLM by considering a random subset (and not the full set) of the sequence.

In Figure 3, a holistic view of the impact of masking several percentage of the sequenced length can be seen. Yoruba achieves the least pseudo perplexity for all the three out of the five models (InfoXLM, Afro-XLMR and XLMR) while Amharic achieves the highest perplexity for three out of five models also (Info-XLM, XLMR and AfriBERTa).

Effect of the sequence length on ranking: Conversely in Figure 2 we see that the sequence length has an effect on the ordering. At a sentence length of 4, the ordering, based on ascending KPPPL order is (Yoruba, Kinyarwanda, Amharic). However this changes when we consider the same sentence, but its longer version. The new ordering becomes (Amharic, Yoruba, Kinyarwanda). It is important to note here that while the orderings are different, the KPPPL differences between each of the languages is infinitesimal. Altogether we infer that shorter sentences could give a slightly different ordering of the languages for a given LLM. When using Koya, customers are advised to input longer sequences (from a sentence to a paragraph) to get a more confident ranking.

7 CONCLUSION

Due to the combinatorial explosion of LLMs, datasets, and languages, the selection of a suitable pretrained LLM for a given task and language can be expensive and time-consuming, particularly for low-compute communities. To address this challenge, we introduce Koya, a recommender system that offers quick insight on the performance of LLMs for a given downstream task and language, without ever having to finetune the LLMs. The results of our experiments, using five pretrained LLMs and three African languages, show an average accuracy of 95%. Our results and analysis suggest that Koya is a promising solution for NLP practitioners looking to save time and computational resources when selecting an LLM.

8 FUTURE WORK

Future work will focus on extending Koya to include other model types such as decoder-based models and models with other pretraining objectives. We also plan to investigate how our algorithm can be used for models in different domains, and same language but different NLP tasks as we only evaluated Koya with a single downstream task. Finally, we are concluding the design of the web interface for Koya.

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A APPENDIX

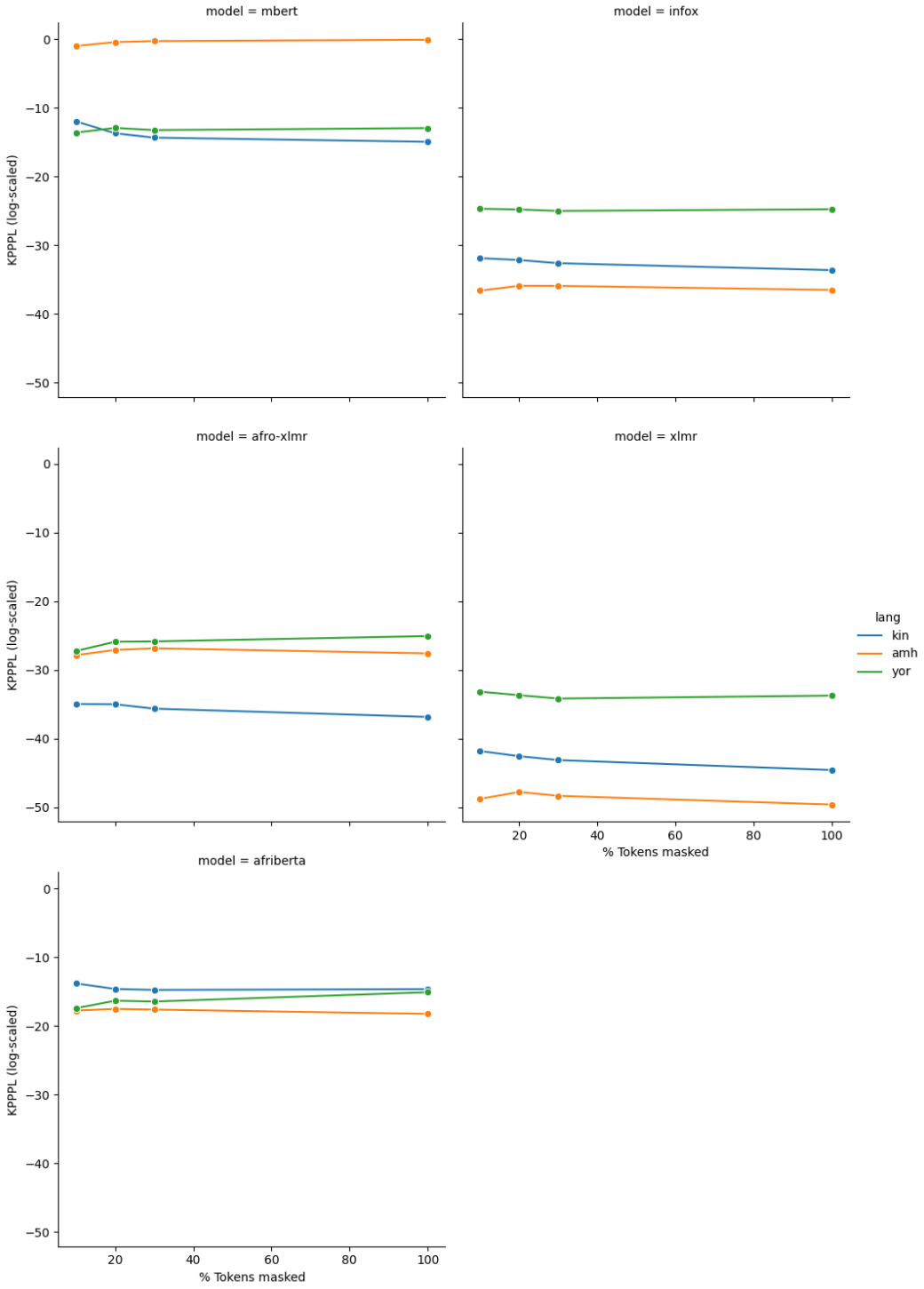

Figure 3: Effect of varying percentages of tokens masked and used for KPPL. We use a fixed sequence length of 100.

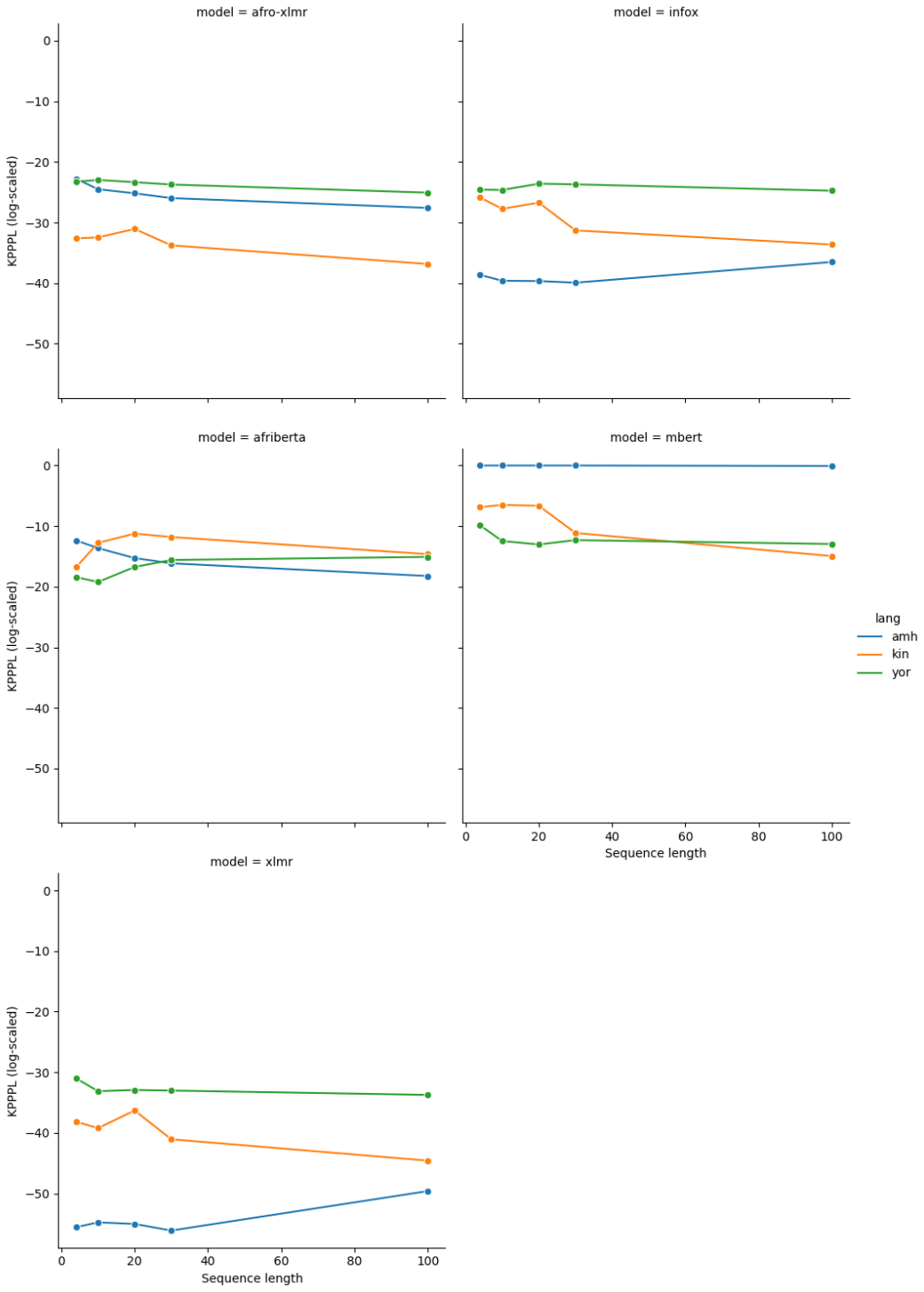

Figure 4: Effect of different sequence lengths on KPPPL for each language. Here all the tokens in the sequence are used to calculate KPPPL.