# BACKOFF DECODING: AN INFERENCE ACCELERATION FRAMEWORK FOR LANGUAGE MODELS WITH A TUN ABLE EFFICIENCY-PERFORMANCE TRADEOFF

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

### Abstract

In current transformer-based language models, all tokens in a sequence are generated by identical forward passes and thereby incur the same inference cost. However, tokens vary widely in their importance to the overall generation and their difficulty for models to generate correctly, making this equal allocation of inference resources suboptimal. We introduce backoff decoding, a framework for efficient language model inference that dynamically allocates token generations between two (or more) models of different sizes, according to an arbitrary decision function. By modifying how this decision function allocates generations between the differently sized models, users can tune their generation along an efficiency-performance tradeoff to suit the needs of their application. Backoff decoding can be used on any set of models with the same tokenizer and does not require any training or finetuning of the models themselves. As a demonstration of our framework, we show that backoff decoding with a large and a small model can significantly reduce inference cost while sacrificing virtually no performance compared to the standalone large model. We then show that inference costs can be reduced even further, achieving inference accelerations of up to 3-4x in exchange for reductions in model performance, demonstrating an efficiency-performance tunability not found in other inference acceleration techniques.

032

006

008 009 010

011

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

023

025

026

027

## 1 INTRODUCTION

033 Transformer-based language models have demonstrated impressive generation capabilities across 034 a variety of complex tasks (Brown et al. (2020); Hendrycks et al. (2021); Chen et al. (2021)) and thus have found applications in numerous real-world scenarios. The performance of these models 035 is generally known to scale with their size and thereby their inference cost, facing users with a 036 inference cost-performance tradeoff when deciding which model size to use (Kaplan et al. (2020)). 037 However, these models generate tokens autoregressively by passing inputs through a full, identical forward pass during each token generation, and thus split their inference costs evenly across all generated tokens. This means that when using a larger model, users incur the higher inference cost 040 across all tokens uniformly, irrespective of the nature of each individual token. 041

Given that tokens vary widely in their importance to the overall sequence and their difficulty to 042 generate correctly, this is a suboptimal allocation of inference resources, either forcing users to 043 incur unnecessary inference costs or forcing them to forgo substantial performance improvements. 044 Firstly, not all tokens have the same importance in terms of determining the quality or meaning of the 045 final output sequence. For instance when generating answers to multiple choice questions, the token 046 indicating the answer choice (e.g. A, B, C, D) is significantly more important than the surrounding 047 tokens. Likewise, not all tokens have the same generation difficulty: when generating the sequence 048 'AI researcher Geoffrey Hinton studied at the University of Toronto', the tokens corresponding to 049 'Hinton' given prefix 'AI researcher Geoffrey' are considerably easier to generate than the tokens corresponding to 'Toronto', since the latter require an understanding of the subject of the sentence 051 as well as the parametric knowledge of where Geoffrey Hinton studied. Even a simple n-gram model might be able to correctly generate the tokens for 'Hinton' in the first case, while the second 052 likely requires a well trained, complex language model to be generated correctly. However, current language models will spend the same inference resources on both cases.

054 This same phenomenon can be illustrated through the example of generating a single token answer 055 to a multiple choice questions. If a much smaller model would already generate the correct answer 056 to a given question, using a larger model to answer the same question would be a waste of the 057 additional compute, as we could have used the more efficient small model and achieved the same 058 outcome. On the other hand, it would be an effective use of additional compute to use the large model on questions the small model would get wrong, as in this case the additional compute would result in an improved outcome. Again, current language models do not account for this difference 060 in difficulty, and will use the same inference resources across both cases. If users want to use the 061 larger model to perform well on the questions the smaller model cannot handle, they must accept a 062 higher inference cross across all tokens. 063

Given this flaw of current generation techniques, it would be a significant improvement to inference efficiency to dynamically determine how much compute a given token will need and allocate inference resources accordingly. Furthermore, a framework that dynamically allocates inference resources would give users the freedom to tune this allocation to different points along an inference cost-performance trade-off depending on the specific needs of their application - an option which current inference acceleration techniques do not allow.

Thus, we introduce **backoff decoding**, a tunable framework for efficient language model inference 071 that dynamically allocates token generations between two (or more) models of different sizes, according to an arbitrary decision criteria. Our approach can be used on any set of models with the 072 same tokenizer, and thus can be applied to virtually all models from common model families. Our 073 approach does not require any finetuning or training of the models themselves, and only requires 074 training of a classifier or other decision mechanism to effectively allocate generations between mod-075 els. To demonstrate our approach, we show that backoff decoding with a large and a small model 076 can result in substantial decreases in inference cost without sacrificing any performance compared 077 to the large model. We also show that users can reduce inference costs even further way past the level of current SOTA inference acceleration techniques, achieving inference accelerations of 5-6x, 079 at the cost of just a small decrease in overall performance, demonstrating the efficiency-performance tunability of our framework.

081

083

# 2 RELATED WORKS

084 The idea of dynamic inference resource allocation, sometimes also called 'adaptive computation 085 methods', has been previously explored in several works (Han et al. (2021); Sukhbaatar et al. (2019); 086 Schwartz et al. (2020)), most of which focus on early stopping methods (Schuster et al. (2021); Scar-087 dapane et al. (2020); Bapna et al. (2020); Elbayad et al. (2020)). These approaches typically operate 088 off of a single model and define output heads over several or all of the hidden states of the model. 089 During inference, once a given confidence threshold or other decision criteria is achieved, these 090 models will stop their forward pass early, producing outputs using the hidden state and correspond-091 ing output head at the given layer and thereby dynamically allocate the inference resources spent on 092 each inference call.

093 While they have demonstrated some promising results, these early stopping methods have two major 094 flaws. Most notably, they do not work on out-of-the-box language models and typically require 095 extensive training or finetuning in order to be properly optimized for this early-stopping objective. 096 This significantly reduces the applicability of these methods, as users must implement and train 097 these methods themselves. Furthermore, these methods have not yet been able to achieve state-of-098 the-art language modeling performance and are much weaker compared to the strong performance of standard transformer model. It's unclear whether this lower performance is due to the early stopping mechanism itself or simply a consequence of it little research in this area so far. However, it is 100 possible that the early stopping objectives complicates the learning dynamics of the model during 101 training, since each layer is being optimized to play a different role during inference depending on 102 when the model exits. 103

While not directly an adaptive computation method, another similar approach is speculative decoding (Chen et al. (2023); Leviathan et al. (2023)), which uses a smaller draft model to speculate on potential future token sequences and has the large model accept or reject these small model generations. Just like backoff decoding, this methods does effectively leverage the difference in inference cost and performance between models of different sizes and thus results in a substantial inference cost reduction. However, since the large model must still verify all token generations, speculative decoding does not allow users any tunability of the inference cost-performance tradeoff. In other words, after realizing the inference cost reductions from speculative decoding, users do not have the option to further lower inference costs in exchange for reductions in performance - an option which would find several useful applications in real world implementations.

Backoff decoding addresses the major concerns of both of these methods. Firstly, it does not require any training or finetuning of the models themselves and works out-of-the-box on any set of models with the same tokenizer. As such, it also only uses seperately trained models, and therefore does not have an issue with conflicting learning objectives during training introduced by leveraging different model sizes. Most importantly, backoff decoding gives users the flexibility to tune the efficiency-performance tradeoff of their model's generation, allowing them to optimize for different objectives depending on the needs of their application.

120 121

122

# **3** THE BACKOFF DECODING FRAMEWORK

123 Consider two language models, a large model  $M_L$  and a small model  $M_S$ , both with the same 124 tokenizer T. Autoregressive LMs produce a distribution over the next token given a sequence of 125 preceding tokens, which is described by a logits vector, i.e.,  $M_{L/S}(x_1, \ldots, x_{t-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^V$ . Given 126 the identical tokenizers, these models can be used interchangeably at any step of an autoregressive 127 generation. Due to their different sizes, generating all tokens with  $M_S$  will result in the fastest 128 generation time but with the worst performance, while generating all tokens with  $M_L$  will result 129 in the slowest generation time but with the best performance. Between these two extremes lies an inference cost-performance tradeoff defined by the proportion of tokens generated by  $M_S$  compared 130 131 to  $M_L$ .

Now consider a decision function  $f_d$ , which at each generation step determines whether to use  $M_L$ or  $M_S$  to generate the logits for the next token. This decision function can be any arbitrary function that optimizes for any objective, depending on the application context. Thus, at a given generation step, the logits output by this general backoff decoding model  $B_g$  are given by:

138

139 140

141

142

where  $X = (x_1, \ldots, x_{t-1})$  is the sequence of preceding tokens, D is the arbitrary decision function input and  $f_d$  is the decision function.

 $B_g(X) = \begin{cases} M_L(X) & \text{if } f_d(D) = 0, \\ M_S(X) & \text{if } f_d(D) = 1, \end{cases}$ 

On the surface, it might initially seem unclear why increasing the number of generations routed 143 to  $M_S$  decreases the overall inference cost, since each generation from  $M_L$  must still recompute 144 the key-value pairs (and thereby hidden states) for all past sequence positions generated by  $M_S$ . 145 However, the key here is that if  $M_S$  has generated a series of tokens, the computation of the key-146 value pairs for these tokens in  $M_L$  can be done in parallel as opposed to sequentially, resulting in 147 the inference cost reductions we describe. Thus, as long as sufficient tokens are generated by  $M_S$ 148 in series, the runtime reductions achieved passing past tokens through  $M_L$  in parallel will outweigh 149 the incremental inference cost increase of computing the key-value pairs for all positions in both 150  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ , resulting in an overall reduction in runtime that grows with the number of tokens 151 generated by  $M_S$ . This is very similar to how speculative decoding achieves its efficiency gains 152 (Chen et al. (2023); Leviathan et al. (2023)). By having the faster draft model sequentially generate 153 potential token sequences, speculative decoding can use the large model to verify these generations in parallel, leading to inference cost reductions in the case that enough draft model speculations are 154 accepted by the large model. The major difference in backoff decoding is that we always 'accept' the 155 generations from  $M_S$ , instead relying on the decision function keep the distribution we are sampling 156 from similar to that of the large model. 157

Given the separate and interchangeable parts of this framework, this general backoff model  $B_g$  is highly flexible to context-specific modifications. The framework can easily be extended by changing the number and types of models, as well as modifying the decision function and it's objective to suit a variety of applications. In this work, we will focus on a simple two model backoff decoding framework with Llama-3.1 8B Instruct as  $M_S$  and Llama-3.1 70B Instruct as  $M_L$  (Dubey et al. (2024)). We will consider the decision function  $f_d$  to be a binary classifier defined over the preceding token sequence (i.e. D = X), with the objective of maximizing model performance under sample based decoding while routing as many generations to  $M_S$  as possible.

165 166 167

### 3.1 DECISION FUNCTION SETUP AND TRAINING

168 Given our objective of optimizing performance under sample based decoding, the goal of our decision function  $f_d$  is to identify the generations for which the next word distributions of  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ 169 170 will be similar, as well as those for which the distributions will differ. By doing so, we can route the similar generation to  $M_S$  while using  $M_L$  for the generations for which the distributions are 171 different, decreasing the inference cost by using  $M_S$  while minimizing the changes to the distribu-172 tions used to sample each token. We can use the KL divergence as a measure of this similarity, and 173 allocate generations between the two models depending on whether this divergence is greater or less 174 than some preset threshold T. 175

Thus, we introduce our first backoff model variant, the **oracle backoff model**, which allocates generations according to the true KL divergence between the next word distribution of  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ :

178 179

181

$$B_{\text{oracle}}(X) = \begin{cases} M_L(X) & \text{if } f_o(X) = D_{\text{KL}}(M_L(X) \parallel M_S(X)) \ge \\ M_S(X) & \text{if } f_o(X) = D_{\text{KL}}(M_L(X) \parallel M_S(X)) < \end{cases}$$

T,T,

In practice, using the true KL divergence between the two model's distributions as our decision function is infeasible, as it requires us to run both models at every generation step to determine the true KL divergence between the two distributions. This means that we are running both  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ sequentially, and are therefore no longer realizing any efficiency gains by parallelizing  $M_L$  across past  $M_S$  generations.

Therefore, we will modify this oracle decision function  $f_o$  to instead estimate the KL divergence between the model's distributions, given the input tokens sequence X, without running both models. In this work, we have chosen to do this by defining a neural binary classifier over the hidden state of the small model  $M_S$ . We do this so that we only have to run  $M_S$  at every generation step sequentially, and can parallelize  $M_L$  across past generations as desired. Thus, we introduce our next backoff model variant, the **classifier-based backoff model**:

- 193
- 194 195
- $B(X) = \begin{cases} M_L(X) & \text{if } f_n(X) \ge T, \\ M_S(X) & \text{if } f_n(X) < T, \end{cases} \text{ where } f_n(X) = \sigma(\text{MLP}(n\text{th hidden layer of } M_S(X)))$

mance of the model.

196

204

197 198 Here  $\sigma$  is a sigmoid function applied over the last layer output of the MLP. In light of this classifier-199 based variant and the impracticality of implementing an efficient oracle decision function, it's im-200 portant to note that this oracle decision function  $f_o$  is still a crucial baseline to start with, as it lets us 201 determine how effective it is to allocate generations based on the KL divergence. As such, the oracle 202 model gives us a theoretical upper performance bound for all decision functions based on estimating 203 the KL divergence (as it represents the performance under optimal KL divergence based routing), 203 and thereby demonstrate how improvements to these decision functions will increase overall perfor-

205 In order to train  $f_n$ , we opted to frame the optimization as a binary classification problem. During 206 training, we did not update the weights of  $M_S$  so that we could reuse the same instance of  $M_S$  we 207 used for classification for the generation of tokens. Thus, we trained only the MLP of  $f_n$  to classify 208 points into a group with KL divergences below threshold  $T_{\rm KL}$  (to route to  $M_S$ ), and a group with 209 KL divergences above threshold  $T_{\rm KL}$  (to route to  $M_L$ ). We pretrained this classifier on a dataset of 210 (input token sequence, KL divergence) tuples generated from the wikitext corpus, before finetuning 211 them on a similar dataset generated from a set of instruction tuning text. In order to choose the KL 212 divergence threshold  $T_{\rm KL}$  that split the training data into positive and negative classes, we observed 213 the distribution of KL divergences over the training dataset and chose a threshold such that around 75% of the points fell below  $T_{\rm KL}$ . We then sampled points from these two groups to balance the two 214 classes, such the number of points with KL divergences above and below  $T_{\rm KL}$  were equal. We did 215 this because we wanted to train the classifier to be more familiar with high KL divergence points and know how to classify these correctly, since false positive classifications (incorrectly routing to  $M_S$ ) is much more prohibitive for accuracy than false negatives (incorrectly routing to  $M_L$ ).

218 219 220

# 3.2 BACKOFF DECODING WITH KEY-VALUE CACHING

Most transformer implementations used today rely on key-value (KV) caching in order to optimize their inference. Since the key and value tensors for a given sequence position remain the same regardless which position we are computing attention scores for, the KV pairs for all positions can be cached and reused once computed, avoiding the redundant recomputation of these tensors in future forward passes. During generation, these implementations will typically pass the full prompt through the model, calculating the logits and caching the KV values for these initial positions, before sequentially computing and caching the KV pairs for generated positions as the generation proceeds.

228 We can implement KV caching within the backoff decoding framework with only a few minor 229 modifications to this caching procedure. Firstly, we must maintain two separate caches - one for  $M_S$ 230 and one for  $M_L$ . The cache for  $M_S$  will be updated in the same way it would under regular inference, 231 since we are calling  $M_S$  at every generation step regardless of the backoff decision. However,  $M_L$ will not be called at every step, therefore whenever it is called, it's cache may not have the KV pairs 232 for all previous sequence positions. Thus, as the generation proceeds, we must keep track of all 233 sequence positions which have not yet been cached by  $M_L$ , so that when  $M_L$  is eventually called, 234 we can correctly update it's cache with the KV pairs for these unseen sequence positions. This does 235 not mean that  $M_L$  will not benefit from KV caching, since it can still leverage the cached KV pairs 236 for all positions up to the last time it was called. The  $M_L$  cache will simply just be a few sequence 237 positions behind the current generation step (depending on how many tokens were generated from 238  $M_S$  is series), and will be updated every time  $M_L$  is called.<sup>1</sup>

239 240 241

242

### 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

243 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

244 To demonstrate the efficacy of our method, we must show that backoff decoding can result in mean-245 ingful inference cost reductions without substantially degrading the model's performance. To do 246 this, we implemented both the oracle and classifier backoff variants with  $M_S$  and  $M_L$  described 247 above and evaluated their performance across a set of benchmarks. The benchmarks we choose for 248 this were CommonsenseQA (CSQA) to test for general QA ability (Talmor et al. (2019)), GSM8K to 249 test for technical and mathematical ability (Cobbe et al. (2021)), and ASQA to test long form gener-250 ation capability (Stelmakh et al. (2023)). We measure answer accuracy for CSQA and GSM8K, and 251 measure QA-F1 and QA-EM for ASQA. In order to encourage longer generations and better test for 252 the impact of backoff decoding on overall generation quality, we evaluated the CSQA and GSM8K 253 benchmarks in a longform chain-of-thought setting. ASQA is by default a longform generation benchmark, so we evaluated on it as is. 254

255 In addition to this benchmark performance, we also measured the average generation time per token 256 at different backoff percentages as a proxy for the per token inference cost. Since the inference 257 cost of the backoff model only depends on the percentage of tokens routed to  $M_S$  compared to 258  $M_L$ , we can compute the inference cost of a given evaluation retrospectively by using the backoff 259 percentage observed during the evaluation and measuring the per token inference cost of the model 260 at this backoff percentage on a smaller sample generation. Using this technique, we are able to calculate the inference cost reductions the oracle would be able to achieve at its respective backoff 261 percentages, even though in practice the oracle cannot lead to efficiency gains. Likewise, we also 262 assume that the inference cost of speculative decoding will remain approximately the same across 263 benchmarks. 264

The decision function  $f_n$  was trained prior to these evaluation as described above. During initial testing, we found that the relationship between the classifier's decision threshold T and the resulting backoff percentage varied broadly across benchmarks. Thus, we calibrated our decision thresholds for each benchmark on a small subset of (input token sequence, KI divergence) points generated from

<sup>269</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We will release this backoff decoding implementation shortly

the training splits of each respective benchmark, and found that the backoff percentages observed during calibration on this training set matched those seen during the test split evaluations.

All evaluations of the backoff decoding models, the speculative decoding models, and standalone  $M_L$  were run on 4 A6000 GPUs. The  $M_S$  evaluations were run on a single A6000.

4.2 INFERENCE COST-PERFORMANCE TRADE OFF

275

293

301 302 303

305

306 307

We start by demonstrating the potential inference cost savings that can be achieved with the backoff decoding framework in order to motivate its application. As mentioned, these savings directly depend on how many tokens are generated by the more efficient  $M_S$  compared to larger  $M_L$ . We will then show the performance of the overall model at these different "backoff percentages", demonstrating what cost savings can be achieved while maintaining the performance of  $M_L$ , as well as what cost savings can be achieved in exchange for small performance decreases.

Figure 1 shows the average inference cost per token generation under the backoff decoding framework at different backoff percentages, compared to both  $M_S$  and  $M_L$  run in isolation as well as a speculative decoding benchmark. All models were prompted to generate 500 tokens in response to an open ended essay prompt, with the backoff models set to randomly backoff at the given backoff percentages. As expected, we can see that at as the backoff percentage increases, backoff decoding results in an increasingly large reduction in inference cost compared to the large model in run isolation. We also can see that at backoff percentages greater than around 80%, backoff decoding results in a greater inference cost reduction than speculative decoding, and can even achieve cost reductions of around 5-6x at high backoff percentages of around 95%.



Figure 1: Inference cost per generated token vs backoff percentage

Given this impressive efficiency boost, the question now becomes how increasing backoff percent-308 ages impacts the performance of the model. Figure 2 shows the performance of our backoff decoding framework at different backoff percentages, evaluated across several benchmarks. Instead of plot-310 ting the backoff percentage directly, we have plotted the corresponding inference speeds a the given 311 backoff percentages. We include the performance of both the oracle backoff model variant and the 312 classifier backoff model variant. As mentioned, the oracle model cannot lead to any efficiency gains, 313 and rather is used to demonstrate how much the performance of the backoff decoding framework 314 could improve given a better classifier. Thus, to allow for a better comparison between the classi-315 fier and oracle performance, we have plotted the oracle results at the inference speeds the classifier would have achieved at the various backoff percentages of the oracle, following the relationship de-316 scribed in 1. We compare performances of both these variants to both the  $M_S$  and  $M_L$  in isolation, 317 and mark the point at which backoff decoding would outperform the efficiency gains of speculative 318 decoding. The backoff percentage at which the backoff decoding speed-ups would match those of 319 speculative decoding was determined using the relationship in 1. 320

First, we note that even with this relatively simple and unrefined classifier decision function, the backoff decoding framework is able to achieve performance levels almost matching those of the standalone large model at backoff percentages of up to around 50%. On GSM8K, the classifier model even able to maintain the full performance of large model  $M_L$ . Furthermore, we note that the 344

345

354 355 356



Figure 2: Benchmark performance of Oracle and Classifier Backoff models at different backoff percentages and corresponding inference speeds, compared to performance of  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ 

	Percentage of Points					
KL Div. Range	0-0.5	0.5-1	1-2	$\geq 2$		
CSQA	0.73	0.16	0.09	0.03		
GSM8K	0.94	0.04	0.01	0		
ASQA	0.72	0.15	0.08	0.03		

Table 1: KL Divergence Range for Benchmark Datasets

oracle model consistently performs better than the classifier model, and is able to back off on up to at least 70-90% of tokens with virtually no degradation of the model's performance at all (compared to  $M_L$ ). This strong oracle performance indicates that further improvements of the classifier would result in inference cost reductions even larger than those our classifier models were able to achieve.

Beyond this, we can also see backoff decoding can maintain a majority of the performance difference between  $M_L$  and  $M_S$  even at very high backoff percentages for both the classifier and oracle models. This results demonstrates the tunability of our framework, giving users the option to exchange small decreases in performance for a significant further reduction in runtime - an option that other inference acceleration frameworks do not offer.

Another interesting observation to note here is that the benchmarks seem to have different sensitivities to backoff generations. For instance, the performance on CSQA and ASQA degrades much quicker as we increase the backoff percentage than it does for GSM8K, both for the oracle and classifier models. The reason for this lies in the differences in the underlying distribution of KL divergences between models across these different datasets. This can be seen in table 1, which details the distribution of KL divergences from over a small subset of points sampled from our benchmark evaluations.

In table 1, we can see that for GSM8K (which is the dataset for which we are able to back off more generations to  $M_S$  without seeing a drop in performance) the distribution of KL divergences is much more skewed towards lower divergences. Thus, it seems that the performance-efficiency tradeoff of our method is dependent to how close the distributions of  $M_S$  tend to be to those of  $M_L$  on the given dataset or generation. The more the two models tend to diverge, the larger impact there will be on performance by backing generation off to  $M_S$ . This same concern in known to also apply to

7

speculative decoding, where greater divergences between the draft model and the generating model
 result in significantly less efficiency gains.

4.3 IMPORTANCE OF HIGH KL DIVERGENCE TOKENS

382

419 420 421

422

The performance of the classifier and oracle models in Figure 2 suggests that only a very small subset of all generated tokens account for a majority the performance difference between  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ , and that the KL divergence (or an estimation of it) seems to be an effective way to identify these generations.

To test this theory, we introduce another backoff model variant, the **flipped oracle backoff model**. This variant is a modified version of the oracle model with a flipped decision function, routing all high Kl divergence generations to  $M_S$  and all low KL divergence generations to  $M_L$ . This flipped oracle decision function tests the importance of these high Kl divergence generations by selectively routing only these generations to the weaker  $M_S$ . If generating these tokens with  $M_L$  is vital to the quality of the overall generation, then this routing should noticeably degrade the performance of the model.

Surprisingly, it seems a very small subset of high KL divergence tokens has an overwhelming impact on the overall quality of the generation, even noticeable despite the relatively small performance differences between  $M_S$  and  $M_L$ . Backing off on even just 0.07% of the highest KL divergence generations (Kl div.  $\geq 10$ ) noticeably degrades the performance of the model, dropping it lower than the performance of a regular oracle backing off on the lowest 89% of its generated tokens. This result illustrates the importance of the decision function in routing generations correctly between the two models, as it shows that even just a few falsely backed off tokens can drastically degrade model performance.

Model Type	<b>Backoff Decision</b>	CSQA		ASQA		
	Criteria	Acc. (%)	B-Off %	QA-F1	QA-EM	B-Off %
$M_S$	-	63.7	100	7.4	4.4	100
$M_L$	-	68.3	0	16.2	10.8	0
Reg. Oracle	KL Div $\leq 1$	69.0	89.0	15.7	10.5	84.0
Reg. Oracle	KL Div $\leq 2$	68.1	97.0	12.3	8.0	93.0
Reg. Oracle	KL Div $\leq 5$	65.8	99.7	8.8	5.5	99.25
Reg. Oracle	KL Div $\leq 10$	62.7	99.996	7.3	4.5	99.97
Flipped Oracle	KL Div $\geq 5$	67.2	0.98	13.9	9.0	0.98
Flipped Oracle	KL Div $\geq 10$	68.8	0.07	15.1	10.0	0.068

Table 2: Performance of flipped oracle compared to regular oracle.

# 4.4 CLASSIFIER PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

The high performance cost incurred by incorrectly backing off on high KL divergence tokens suggests that performance of the classifier (or other decision function) in allocating generations between models correctly has a direct impact on the backoff models overall performance. Thus, we analyze the performance of the classifier used in our evaluations in order to explain the performance difference between the classifier models and the optimal oracle. By doing so, we hopefully outline some key considerations for the development of better performing classifiers (and thereby backoff decoding models) in future works.

We start by looking at the performance of the classifier on high KL divergence points at different
 backoff percentages. To do this, we generate a small dataset of (input sequence, KL divergence)
 points from the training split of the benchmarks we used above and evaluated the accuracy of our

454

455

456

457 458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465 466

467 468

469

classifier on points in three high KL divergence groups at different backoff percentages. We did not include the KL div  $\geq 5$  group for GSM8K, since the dataset did not have enough points with KL div.  $\geq 5$  in the subset we sampled.

The trends in accuracy on points with high KL divergence is shown in figure 3. We can see that, 436 as we push the classifier to higher backoff percentages, the performance on these high KL div. 437 points suffers drastically, even to the point that the classifier is labeling more points in this group 438 incorrectly than correctly. While the decrease in accuracy is expected given that we are changing the 439 decision threshold to manipulate the backoff percentage, we note all 3 accuracies seem to degrade 440 equally as the backoff percentage increases. This is somewhat unexpected, as we would expect the 441 accuracies on the higher KL divergence groups to degrade less than lower groups, since their KI 442 divergence values are further away from the trained classification threshold and therefore should be more confidently classified. The absence of this trend indicates that the classifier is struggling 443 to learn a feature representation of the KL divergence and thereby isn't capturing a sense of the 444 magnitude of the KL divergence in the points it is classifier. We note that this may be a result of the 445 classifier being trained in a binary classification setting, since training in this way gives the classifier 446 no sense of the magnitude of the points in the two classes. (a point with KL div. 0.51 and a point 447 with KL div. 10 will appear identical to the classifier). This, in combination with the results in table 448 2, may also explain why the classifier underperformed in comparison to the oracle: if incorrectly 449 backing off on even less than 1% of the highest KL divergence tokens degrades performance, then 450 its no surprise that a model that will incorrectly back off on 50% of these tokens achieves weaker 451 performance. As such, it seems that a key to pushing the classifier model's performance closer to 452 that or the oracle model is training the classifiers to be better at classifying these high KL divergence 453 points.



Figure 3: Accuracy on high KL divergence points across different benchmark datasets

470 Next, we look at how the performance of the classifier changes depending on the depth of the 471 hidden state of  $M_S$  used as input for the MLP. Recall that our decision function  $f_n$  consists of an 472 MLP defined over the nth hidden state of  $M_S$ . During training, we generally found that classifiers 473 defined over deeper layers of  $M_S$  performed better than those performed than those defined over 474 shallower layers. This is illustrated in figure 4, which shows the validation accuracy of a linear 475 layer classifier defined over layers of  $M_S$  at different depths during wikitext pretraining training. 476 While there were a few exceptions in which intermediate layers performed better than deeper layers, 477 this trend was generally observed to be consistent across dataset types, classifier types, and training lengths. Thus, it seems that the features most suitable for KL divergence classification are extracted 478 by  $M_S$  throughout the forward pass forward pass . 479

Given this analysis of the performance of our classifier, we suggest a few major classifier improvements that we believe may lead to substantial classification performance improvements. Firstly, we suggest framing the optimization of the classifier such that there is a sense of KL divergence magnitude incorporated during training, as this would hopefully improve the performance of the classifier on points with high KL divergences. One simple way to do this would be to frame the optimization as a regression instead of a binary classification, as this would likely give the classifier a sense of scale regarding the KL divergences sees during training. Another way to do this might



Figure 4: Validation Accuracy of Linear Classifier at Difference Layer Depths of  $M_S$ 

be a multi-class classification, for similar reasons. Secondly, another approach worth investigating is to finetune an entire small language model on this classification task. While this would increase inference costs associated with classification, given the much stronger performance at later layers in the model its possible that this would drastically improve the models ability to learn generalize features which it can use during classification.

### 5 DISCUSSION

486

487 488

489 490

491 492

493 494

495

496

497

498

499 500

501 502

504

505

506

507

508 509

510 511

512 We presented **backoff decoding**, a inference acceleration technique for language models that al-513 located individual token generations between differently sized models. We've demonstrated how 514 this framework is able to significantly accelerate language model inference depending on how many 515 generation it allocates to a small model, and observed that even if a significant portion of generations are routed to  $M_S$ , most if not all of the performance of the larger model can be maintained. We also 516 demonstrate how this framework can be used to exchange small decreases in performance for even 517 greater reductions in inference cost, which current inference acceleration approaches do not allow. 518 Finally, we propose that this framework is able to maintain this high performance because only a 519 very small subset of tokens truly determine the performance differences between two model sizes, 520 with most of the tokens having a minimal impact on the final generation quality. 521

The unique benefits of backoff decoding position it for several applications that are currently under-522 served by existing inference acceleration techniques. Most importantly, backoff decoding lets users 523 tune the inference cost-performance tradeoff of their model, adding a flexibility to inference ac-524 celeration that currently does not exist. We imagine this to be highly useful in applications where 525 low inference costs may become imperative only during certain times (high traffic, low compute 526 availability, etc.), allowing users to tune their model for lower runtimes during these select windows 527 without having to use a smaller, less performative model for all generations. Furthermore, the flex-528 ibility of our approach allows for considerable modifications to suit the framework to specific use 529 cases. We image scenarios in which the decision function can be optimized for much more complex 530 objectives and work off of a wide set of inputs, tuning the allocation of generations precisely to the 531 needs of a given application.

However, there are a few limitations of our method. Firstly, to efficiently implement backoff decoding, both  $M_S$  and  $M_L$  typically need to be kept in RAM, such that they are quickly accessible in the case that  $f_d$  routes a generation to them. This significantly increases the hardware requirements to efficiently run backoff decoding. Furthermore, while the models themselves don't need to be finetuned or trained, backoff decoding does usually require the training of the decision function  $f_d$ . Depending on the objective of this function, this may be difficult to optimize correctly, especially since weak classifier will drastically degrade the overall model's performance. It should also be noted that these decision functions must be kept very efficient, since their runtime will subtract from the efficiency gains realized by our method. 540 These findings itself to several direction of future research which we believe can greatly extend the 541 performance of the backoff decoding framework. Mostly notably, these include the development of 542 better decision functions, both in terms of structure and training, as well as in terms of objective. 543 Our setup of estimating the KL divergence with neural classifiers defined over the hidden states of 544  $M_S$  is somewhat simple, and we believe that significant improvements beyond our results can be realized if this approach were to be improved. Finally, another direction to pursue is extending our 545 framework to include more than two models and studying whether this leads to performance and 546 efficiency improvements, beyond those we've shown. 547

# 549 REFERENCES

548

- Ankur Bapna, Naveen Arivazhagan, and Orhan Firat. Controlling computation versus quality for neural sequence models, 2020. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2002.07106.
- Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal,
  Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M.
  Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz
  Litwin, Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec
  Radford, Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners, 2020. URL
  https://arxiv.org/abs/2005.14165.
- Charlie Chen, Sebastian Borgeaud, Geoffrey Irving, Jean-Baptiste Lespiau, Laurent Sifre, and John
   Jumper. Accelerating large language model decoding with speculative sampling, 2023. URL
   https://arxiv.org/abs/2302.01318.

Mark Chen, Jerry Tworek, Heewoo Jun, Qiming Yuan, Henrique Ponde de Oliveira Pinto, Jared Kaplan, Harri Edwards, Yuri Burda, Nicholas Joseph, Greg Brockman, Alex Ray, Raul Puri, 565 Gretchen Krueger, Michael Petrov, Heidy Khlaaf, Girish Sastry, Pamela Mishkin, Brooke Chan, 566 Scott Gray, Nick Ryder, Mikhail Pavlov, Alethea Power, Lukasz Kaiser, Mohammad Bavarian, 567 Clemens Winter, Philippe Tillet, Felipe Petroski Such, Dave Cummings, Matthias Plappert, Fo-568 tios Chantzis, Elizabeth Barnes, Ariel Herbert-Voss, William Hebgen Guss, Alex Nichol, Alex 569 Paino, Nikolas Tezak, Jie Tang, Igor Babuschkin, Suchir Balaji, Shantanu Jain, William Saunders, 570 Christopher Hesse, Andrew N. Carr, Jan Leike, Josh Achiam, Vedant Misra, Evan Morikawa, Alec 571 Radford, Matthew Knight, Miles Brundage, Mira Murati, Katie Mayer, Peter Welinder, Bob Mc-572 Grew, Dario Amodei, Sam McCandlish, Ilya Sutskever, and Wojciech Zaremba. Evaluating large 573 language models trained on code, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2107.03374.

- Karl Cobbe, Vineet Kosaraju, Mohammad Bavarian, Mark Chen, Heewoo Jun, Lukasz Kaiser, Matthias Plappert, Jerry Tworek, Jacob Hilton, Reiichiro Nakano, Christopher Hesse, and John Schulman. Training verifiers to solve math word problems, 2021. URL https://arxiv. org/abs/2110.14168.
- 579 Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinay Jauhri, Abhinay Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha 580 Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, Anirudh Goyal, Anthony Hartshorn, Aobo Yang, Archi Mitra, Archie Sravankumar, Artem Korenev, Arthur Hinsvark, 581 Arun Rao, Aston Zhang, Aurelien Rodriguez, Austen Gregerson, Ava Spataru, Baptiste Roziere, 582 Bethany Biron, Binh Tang, Bobbie Chern, Charlotte Caucheteux, Chaya Nayak, Chloe Bi, Chris 583 Marra, Chris McConnell, Christian Keller, Christophe Touret, Chunyang Wu, Corinne Wong, 584 Cristian Canton Ferrer, Cyrus Nikolaidis, Damien Allonsius, Daniel Song, Danielle Pintz, Danny 585 Livshits, David Esiobu, Dhruv Choudhary, Dhruv Mahajan, Diego Garcia-Olano, Diego Perino, 586 Dieuwke Hupkes, Egor Lakomkin, Ehab AlBadawy, Elina Lobanova, Emily Dinan, Eric Michael Smith, Filip Radenovic, Frank Zhang, Gabriel Synnaeve, Gabrielle Lee, Georgia Lewis Ander-588 son, Graeme Nail, Gregoire Mialon, Guan Pang, Guillem Cucurell, Hailey Nguyen, Hannah 589 Korevaar, Hu Xu, Hugo Touvron, Iliyan Zarov, Imanol Arrieta Ibarra, Isabel Kloumann, Ishan Misra, Ivan Evtimov, Jade Copet, Jaewon Lee, Jan Geffert, Jana Vranes, Jason Park, Jay Mahadeokar, Jeet Shah, Jelmer van der Linde, Jennifer Billock, Jenny Hong, Jenya Lee, Jeremy Fu, Jianfeng Chi, Jianyu Huang, Jiawen Liu, Jie Wang, Jiecao Yu, Joanna Bitton, Joe Spisak, 592 Jongsoo Park, Joseph Rocca, Joshua Johnstun, Joshua Saxe, Junteng Jia, Kalyan Vasuden Alwala, Kartikeya Upasani, Kate Plawiak, Ke Li, Kenneth Heafield, Kevin Stone, Khalid El-Arini,

594 Krithika Iyer, Kshitiz Malik, Kuenley Chiu, Kunal Bhalla, Lauren Rantala-Yeary, Laurens van der 595 Maaten, Lawrence Chen, Liang Tan, Liz Jenkins, Louis Martin, Lovish Madaan, Lubo Malo, 596 Lukas Blecher, Lukas Landzaat, Luke de Oliveira, Madeline Muzzi, Mahesh Pasupuleti, Man-597 nat Singh, Manohar Paluri, Marcin Kardas, Mathew Oldham, Mathieu Rita, Maya Pavlova, 598 Melanie Kambadur, Mike Lewis, Min Si, Mitesh Kumar Singh, Mona Hassan, Naman Goyal, Narjes Torabi, Nikolay Bashlykov, Nikolay Bogoychev, Niladri Chatterji, Olivier Duchenne, Onur Celebi, Patrick Alrassy, Pengchuan Zhang, Pengwei Li, Petar Vasic, Peter Weng, Prajjwal Bhar-600 gava, Pratik Dubal, Praveen Krishnan, Punit Singh Koura, Puxin Xu, Qing He, Qingxiao Dong, 601 Ragavan Srinivasan, Raj Ganapathy, Ramon Calderer, Ricardo Silveira Cabral, Robert Stojnic, 602 Roberta Raileanu, Rohit Girdhar, Rohit Patel, Romain Sauvestre, Ronnie Polidoro, Roshan Sum-603 baly, Ross Taylor, Ruan Silva, Rui Hou, Rui Wang, Saghar Hosseini, Sahana Chennabasappa, 604 Sanjay Singh, Sean Bell, Seohyun Sonia Kim, Sergey Edunov, Shaoliang Nie, Sharan Narang, 605 Sharath Raparthy, Sheng Shen, Shengye Wan, Shruti Bhosale, Shun Zhang, Simon Vandenhende, 606 Soumya Batra, Spencer Whitman, Sten Sootla, Stephane Collot, Suchin Gururangan, Sydney 607 Borodinsky, Tamar Herman, Tara Fowler, Tarek Sheasha, Thomas Georgiou, Thomas Scialom, 608 Tobias Speckbacher, Todor Mihaylov, Tong Xiao, Ujjwal Karn, Vedanuj Goswami, Vibhor Gupta, Vignesh Ramanathan, Viktor Kerkez, Vincent Gonguet, Virginie Do, Vish Vogeti, Vladan Petrovic, Weiwei Chu, Wenhan Xiong, Wenyin Fu, Whitney Meers, Xavier Martinet, Xiaodong Wang, 610 Xiaoqing Ellen Tan, Xinfeng Xie, Xuchao Jia, Xuewei Wang, Yaelle Goldschlag, Yashesh Gaur, 611 Yasmine Babaei, Yi Wen, Yiwen Song, Yuchen Zhang, Yue Li, Yuning Mao, Zacharie Delpierre 612 Coudert, Zheng Yan, Zhengxing Chen, Zoe Papakipos, Aaditya Singh, Aaron Grattafiori, Abha 613 Jain, Adam Kelsey, Adam Shajnfeld, Adithya Gangidi, Adolfo Victoria, Ahuva Goldstand, Ajay 614 Menon, Ajay Sharma, Alex Boesenberg, Alex Vaughan, Alexei Baevski, Allie Feinstein, Amanda 615 Kallet, Amit Sangani, Anam Yunus, Andrei Lupu, Andres Alvarado, Andrew Caples, Andrew 616 Gu, Andrew Ho, Andrew Poulton, Andrew Ryan, Ankit Ramchandani, Annie Franco, Aparajita 617 Saraf, Arkabandhu Chowdhury, Ashley Gabriel, Ashwin Bharambe, Assaf Eisenman, Azadeh 618 Yazdan, Beau James, Ben Maurer, Benjamin Leonhardi, Bernie Huang, Beth Loyd, Beto De 619 Paola, Bhargavi Paranjape, Bing Liu, Bo Wu, Boyu Ni, Braden Hancock, Bram Wasti, Bran-620 don Spence, Brani Stojkovic, Brian Gamido, Britt Montalvo, Carl Parker, Carly Burton, Catalina Mejia, Changhan Wang, Changkyu Kim, Chao Zhou, Chester Hu, Ching-Hsiang Chu, Chris Cai, 621 Chris Tindal, Christoph Feichtenhofer, Damon Civin, Dana Beaty, Daniel Kreymer, Daniel Li, 622 Danny Wyatt, David Adkins, David Xu, Davide Testuggine, Delia David, Devi Parikh, Diana 623 Liskovich, Didem Foss, Dingkang Wang, Duc Le, Dustin Holland, Edward Dowling, Eissa Jamil, 624 Elaine Montgomery, Eleonora Presani, Emily Hahn, Emily Wood, Erik Brinkman, Esteban Ar-625 caute, Evan Dunbar, Evan Smothers, Fei Sun, Felix Kreuk, Feng Tian, Firat Ozgenel, Francesco 626 Caggioni, Francisco Guzmán, Frank Kanayet, Frank Seide, Gabriela Medina Florez, Gabriella 627 Schwarz, Gada Badeer, Georgia Swee, Gil Halpern, Govind Thattai, Grant Herman, Grigory 628 Sizov, Guangyi, Zhang, Guna Lakshminarayanan, Hamid Shojanazeri, Han Zou, Hannah Wang, 629 Hanwen Zha, Haroun Habeeb, Harrison Rudolph, Helen Suk, Henry Aspegren, Hunter Gold-630 man, Ibrahim Damlaj, Igor Molybog, Igor Tufanov, Irina-Elena Veliche, Itai Gat, Jake Weissman, 631 James Geboski, James Kohli, Japhet Asher, Jean-Baptiste Gaya, Jeff Marcus, Jeff Tang, Jennifer Chan, Jenny Zhen, Jeremy Reizenstein, Jeremy Teboul, Jessica Zhong, Jian Jin, Jingyi Yang, Joe 632 Cummings, Jon Carvill, Jon Shepard, Jonathan McPhie, Jonathan Torres, Josh Ginsburg, Junjie 633 Wang, Kai Wu, Kam Hou U, Karan Saxena, Karthik Prasad, Kartikay Khandelwal, Katayoun 634 Zand, Kathy Matosich, Kaushik Veeraraghavan, Kelly Michelena, Keqian Li, Kun Huang, Kunal 635 Chawla, Kushal Lakhotia, Kyle Huang, Lailin Chen, Lakshya Garg, Lavender A, Leandro Silva, 636 Lee Bell, Lei Zhang, Liangpeng Guo, Licheng Yu, Liron Moshkovich, Luca Wehrstedt, Madian 637 Khabsa, Manav Avalani, Manish Bhatt, Maria Tsimpoukelli, Martynas Mankus, Matan Hasson, 638 Matthew Lennie, Matthias Reso, Maxim Groshev, Maxim Naumov, Maya Lathi, Meghan Ke-639 neally, Michael L. Seltzer, Michal Valko, Michelle Restrepo, Mihir Patel, Mik Vyatskov, Mikayel 640 Samvelyan, Mike Clark, Mike Macey, Mike Wang, Miquel Jubert Hermoso, Mo Metanat, Mo-641 hammad Rastegari, Munish Bansal, Nandhini Santhanam, Natascha Parks, Natasha White, Navyata Bawa, Nayan Singhal, Nick Egebo, Nicolas Usunier, Nikolay Pavlovich Laptev, Ning Dong, 642 Ning Zhang, Norman Cheng, Oleg Chernoguz, Olivia Hart, Omkar Salpekar, Ozlem Kalinli, Parkin Kent, Parth Parekh, Paul Saab, Pavan Balaji, Pedro Rittner, Philip Bontrager, Pierre Roux, 644 Piotr Dollar, Polina Zvyagina, Prashant Ratanchandani, Pritish Yuvraj, Qian Liang, Rachad Alao, 645 Rachel Rodriguez, Rafi Ayub, Raghotham Murthy, Raghu Nayani, Rahul Mitra, Raymond Li, 646 Rebekkah Hogan, Robin Battey, Rocky Wang, Rohan Maheswari, Russ Howes, Ruty Rinott, 647 Sai Jayesh Bondu, Samyak Datta, Sara Chugh, Sara Hunt, Sargun Dhillon, Sasha Sidorov, Sa-

648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660 661	tadru Pan, Saurabh Verma, Seiji Yamamoto, Sharadh Ramaswamy, Shaun Lindsay, Shaun Lindsay, Sheng Feng, Shenghao Lin, Shengxin Cindy Zha, Shiva Shankar, Shuqiang Zhang, Sinong Wang, Sneha Agarwal, Soji Sajuyigbe, Soumith Chintala, Stephanie Max, Stephen Chen, Steve Kehoe, Steve Satterfield, Sudarshan Govindaprasad, Sumit Gupta, Sungmin Cho, Sunny Virk, Suraj Subramanian, Sy Choudhury, Sydney Goldman, Tal Remez, Tamar Glaser, Tamara Best, Thilo Kohler, Thomas Robinson, Tianhe Li, Tianjun Zhang, Tim Matthews, Timothy Chou, Tzook Shaked, Varun Vontimitta, Victoria Ajayi, Victoria Montanez, Vijai Mohan, Vinay Satish Kumar, Vishal Mangla, Vítor Albiero, Vlad Ionescu, Vlad Poenaru, Vlad Tiberiu Mihailescu, Vladimir Ivanov, Wei Li, Wenchen Wang, Wenwen Jiang, Wes Bouaziz, Will Constable, Xiaocheng Tang, Xiaofang Wang, Xiaojian Wu, Xiaolan Wang, Xide Xia, Xilun Wu, Xinbo Gao, Yanjun Chen, Ye Hu, Ye Jia, Ye Qi, Yenda Li, Yilin Zhang, Ying Zhang, Yossi Adi, Youngjin Nam, Yu, Wang, Yuchen Hao, Yundi Qian, Yuzi He, Zach Rait, Zachary DeVito, Zef Rosnbrick, Zhaoduo Wen, Zhenyu Yang, and Zhiwei Zhao. The Ilama 3 herd of models, 2024. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2407.21783.
662 663	Maha Elbayad, Jiatao Gu, Edouard Grave, and Michael Auli. Depth-adaptive transformer, 2020. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/1910.10073.
664 665	Yizeng Han, Gao Huang, Shiji Song, Le Yang, Honghui Wang, and Yulin Wang. Dynamic neural networks: A survey, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2102.04906.
667 668 669	Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Ja- cob Steinhardt. Measuring massive multitask language understanding, 2021. URL https: //arxiv.org/abs/2009.03300.
670 671 672	Jared Kaplan, Sam McCandlish, Tom Henighan, Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Chess, Rewon Child, Scott Gray, Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, and Dario Amodei. Scaling laws for neural language models, 2020. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2001.08361.
673 674 675	Yaniv Leviathan, Matan Kalman, and Yossi Matias. Fast inference from transformers via speculative decoding, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2211.17192.
676 677 678 679	Simone Scardapane, Michele Scarpiniti, Enzo Baccarelli, and Aurelio Uncini. Why should we add early exits to neural networks? <i>Cognitive Computation</i> , 12(5):954–966, June 2020. ISSN 1866-9964. doi: 10.1007/s12559-020-09734-4. URL http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12559-020-09734-4.
680 681 682	Tal Schuster, Adam Fisch, Tommi Jaakkola, and Regina Barzilay. Consistent accelerated inference via confident adaptive transformers, 2021. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2104.08803.
683 684 685	Roy Schwartz, Gabriel Stanovsky, Swabha Swayamdipta, Jesse Dodge, and Noah A. Smith. The right tool for the job: Matching model and instance complexities, 2020. URL https: //arxiv.org/abs/2004.07453.
686 687 688	Ivan Stelmakh, Yi Luan, Bhuwan Dhingra, and Ming-Wei Chang. Asqa: Factoid questions meet long-form answers, 2023. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/2204.06092.
689 690	Sainbayar Sukhbaatar, Edouard Grave, Piotr Bojanowski, and Armand Joulin. Adaptive attention span in transformers, 2019. URL https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.07799.
691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 700 701	Alon Talmor, Jonathan Herzig, Nicholas Lourie, and Jonathan Berant. CommonsenseQA: A question answering challenge targeting commonsense knowledge. In Jill Burstein, Christy Doran, and Thamar Solorio (eds.), <i>Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers)</i> , pp. 4149–4158, Minneapolis, Minnesota, June 2019. Association for Computational Linguistics. doi: 10.18653/v1/N19-1421. URL https://aclanthology.org/N19-1421.