Length-Aware Multi-Kernel Transformer for Long Document Classification

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Abstract

 Lengthy documents pose a unique challenge to neural language models due to substantial memory consumption. While existing state- of-the-art (SOTA) models segment long texts into equal-length snippets (e.g., 128 tokens per snippet) or deploy sparse attention net- works, these methods have new challenges of context fragmentation and generalizability due to sentence boundaries and varying text lengths. For example, our empirical analy-011 sis has shown that SOTA models consistently overfit one set of lengthy documents (e.g., 2000 tokens) while performing worse on texts with other lengths (e.g., 1000 or 4000). In this study, we propose a Length-Aware Multi-**Kernel Transformer** (*LAMKIT*) to address the new challenges for the long document clas- sification. LAMKIT encodes lengthy docu- ments by diverse transformer-based kernels for bridging context boundaries and vectorizes text length by the kernels to promote model robust- ness over varying document lengths. Experi- ments on four standard benchmarks from health and law domains show LAMKIT outperforms **SOTA** models up to an absolute 10.9% improve- ment. We conduct extensive ablation analyses to examine model robustness and effectiveness over varying document lengths.

⁰²⁹ 1 Introduction

 Lengthy documents widely exist in many fields, while the input limit (512 tokens) of transformer models prevents developing powerful pre-trained language models on those long documents, such [a](#page-9-0)s BERT [\(Devlin et al.,](#page-8-0) [2019\)](#page-8-0) and RoBERTa [\(Liu](#page-9-0) [et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019\)](#page-9-0). For example, a recent study shows that clinical documents have grown over 60% longer in a decade [\(Rule et al.,](#page-9-1) [2021\)](#page-9-1). Truncation is a common strategy to handle long documents and fit the input limit of BERT-based classifiers, how- ever, the method may lose many critical contexts beyond the first 512 tokens and hurdle model effectiveness. One solution for lengthy documents is **042** *long document modeling*. **043**

Among existing transformer-based models, long **044** document modeling has two major directions, hi- **045** [e](#page-8-1)rarchical transformer and sparse attention [\(Dong](#page-8-1) **046** [et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023;](#page-8-1) [Qin et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023\)](#page-9-2). The hierarchical **047** approach [\(Wu et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022;](#page-8-2) **048** [Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022;](#page-8-3) [Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a;](#page-9-3) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-4) **049** [2023\)](#page-8-4) splits document into small text chunks (e.g., **050** 128 tokens) so that long document models can **051** take shorter input per step. As the self-attention **052** in transformer-style models causes quadratic com- **053** plexity $O(n^2)$, the sparse attention aims to lower 0.54 the complexity to linear and reduce context frag- **055** mentation caused by the segments [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) **056** [2020;](#page-8-5) [Zaheer et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020;](#page-10-1) [Guo et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022;](#page-9-4) [Zhang](#page-10-2) **057** [et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023\)](#page-10-2). For example, sparse attention in Long- **058** former [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020\)](#page-8-5) lifts up the input limit **059** from 512 tokens to 4096 tokens. Popular eval- **060** uation benchmarks also switch from social me- **061** [d](#page-10-0)ia data (e.g., IMDb and Amazon reviews [\(Wu](#page-10-0) **062** [et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021\)](#page-10-0)) to more complex data in health and **063** legal domains [\(Qin et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023;](#page-9-2) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) **064** [2022\)](#page-8-2). For example, the median document length **065** of IMDb is only 225 tokens [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a\)](#page-9-3), which **066** is much smaller than the lengths in Table [1.](#page-1-0) In- **067** deed, document lengths vary across datasets, and **068** model performance can vary across length-varied **069** corpora [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a\)](#page-9-3). However, very few stud- **070** ies have examined if long document models can **071** handle varying-length texts, ranging from short to **072** extremely long. A common question is: *will a long* **073** *document model be capable to maintain robust per-* **074** *formance across varying-length data?* Our analysis **075** on SOTA baselines in Figure [1](#page-2-0) says "No." **076**

To understand the length effects and encounter **077** the long document challenges, we conduct exten- **078** sive analysis and propose Length-Aware Multi- **079** Kernel Transformer (*LAMKIT*) for robust long doc- **080** ument classification. LAMKIT diversifies learn- **081** ing processes by a multi-kernel encoding (MK) **082**

Dataset $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ Length-Quantile $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ L-mean Size [Label] $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ Splits $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ Splits $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ Label $\begin{array}{c c}\n\end{array}$ Splits							
						Test	
Diabetes 408 608 945 720 1,265 10 885 190 190							
MIMIC 1,432 2,022 2,741 2,200 11,368 50 8,066 1,753 1,729 ECtHR 668 1,328 2,627 2,139 11,000 11 9,000 1,000 1,000							
SCOTUS 3,723 7,673 12,275 9,840 7,800 14 5,000 1,400 1,400							

Table 1: Statistics of average token count per document (L-mean), data size (Size), and unique labels (|Label|).

 so that the model can capture contexts from dif- ferent perspectives. The MK contains multiple neural encoders with diverse kernel sizes and can relieve context fragmentation caused by a unique segment encoder on short text chunks. LAMKIT promotes model robustness over varying-length documents by a length-aware vectorization (LaV) module. The LaV encodes length information in a hierarchical way, position embedding on seg- ment and length vectors on document level. We compare LAMKIT with 8 domain-specific mod- els on four datasets (MIMIC-III [\(Johnson et al.,](#page-9-5) [2016\)](#page-9-5), SCOTUS [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2), ECtHR-**A** [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-6) [2019\)](#page-8-6), Diabetes [\(Stubbs et al.,](#page-10-3) [2019\)](#page-10-3)) from health and legal domains evaluated by F1 and AUC metrics. Additionally, we also con- duct a case study on the performance of ChatGPT in these tasks. Classification results demonstrate that our LAMKIT approach's outperforms compet- itive baselines by an absolute improvement of up to 10.9%. We conduct further experiments on the length-varying effects and ablation analysis to ex-amine the effectiveness of our individual modules.

¹⁰⁶ 2 Data

 We have retrieved four publicly available data, Di- [a](#page-9-5)betes [\(Stubbs et al.,](#page-10-3) [2019\)](#page-10-3), MIMIC-III [\(Johnson](#page-9-5) [et al.,](#page-9-5) [2016\)](#page-9-5), ECtHR-A [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-6) [2019\)](#page-8-6), and SCOTUS [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2), which are popular benchmarks for the long document classifi- cation. We obtained *Diabetes* [\(Stubbs et al.,](#page-10-3) [2019\)](#page-10-3) from the 2018 National NLP Clinical Challenges (n2c2) shared task with a collection of longitudinal patient records and 13 selection criteria annota- tions. We exclude 3 annotations due to less than 0.5 inter-rater agreements and discard documents with fewer than 40 tokens. *MIMIC-III* (Medical In- formation Mart for Intensive Care) [\(Johnson et al.,](#page-9-5) [2016\)](#page-9-5) is a relational database that contains patients admitted to the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) at the Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center from 2001 [t](#page-9-6)o 2012. We follow previous work [\(Mullenbach](#page-9-6) [et al.,](#page-9-6) [2018;](#page-9-6) [Vu et al.,](#page-10-4) [2021\)](#page-10-4) to select discharge **124** summaries and use the top 50 frequent labels of 125 International Classification of Disease codes (9th **126** Edition, ICD-9), which are types of procedures and **127** diagnoses during patient stay in the ICU. *ECtHR-A* **128** collects facts and articles from law case descrip- **129** tions from the European Court of Human Rights' **130** public database [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-6) [2019\)](#page-8-6). Each case **131** is mapped to the articles it was found to have vio- **132** [l](#page-8-7)ated in the ECHR, while in ECTHR-B [\(Chalkidis](#page-8-7) **133** [et al.,](#page-8-7) [2021\)](#page-8-7), cases are mapped to a set of allegedly **134** [v](#page-8-2)iolated articles. We follow the study [\(Chalkidis](#page-8-2) **135** [et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2) to process and obtain 11 labels. *SCO-* **136** *TUS* is a data collection of US Supreme Court (the **137** highest US federal court) opinions and the US **138** Supreme Court Database (SCDB) [\(Spaeth et al.,](#page-10-5) **139** [2020\)](#page-10-5) with cases from 1946 to 2020. SCOTUS has **140** 14 issue areas, such as Criminal Procedure, Civil **141** Rights, and Economic Activity. We summarize **142** data statistics and splits in Table [1.](#page-1-0) **143**

Table [1](#page-1-0) shows each data has a varying length **144** range, a critical yet under-explored question is: **145** does the varying length effect model performance **146** or will models be generalizable across all lengths? **147** For example, the document length in Table [1](#page-1-0) is 148 either less than a few hundred or over ten thou- **149** sand tokens surpassing input limitations of regular **150** transformer-style models (e.g., BERT), and there **151** are significant length variations across the data. **152** While studies [\(Dong et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023\)](#page-8-1) have achieved im- **153** proving performance overall to encode more con- **154** texts beyond the 512 token limit, there is very few **155** work examining the effects of varying document **156** lengths over model robustness. To answer the ques- **157** tion, we conduct an exploratory analysis of existing **158** state-of-the-art (SOTA) models and evaluate their **159** performance.

Our exploratory analysis follows existing stud- **161** ies [\(Mullenbach et al.,](#page-9-6) [2018;](#page-9-6) [Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022;](#page-8-3) **162** [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022;](#page-8-2) [Qin et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023\)](#page-9-2) to split **163** data, includes three state-of-the-art transformer **164** classifiers (BigBird, Longformer, and Hierarchi- **165**

Figure 1: SOTA baseline performance across the quarter splits.

 cal BERT (H-BERT)) for long document and a BERT classifier, and evaluates models performance 168 by F1-micro $(F1-\mu)$ score. We refer to the details of experimental settings and SOTA baselines un- der the Experiments section. For each quarter, we maintain similar data sizes and run the classifier multiple times to take average performance scores. Finally, we visualize the relation between model performance and document lengths in Figure [1.](#page-2-0)

 Figure [1](#page-2-0) shows that model performance varies across document lengths, posing a unique chal- lenge to build robust models on varying lengthy data. For example, while the SOTA classifiers achieve better scores on mid-lengthy texts, the per- formance drops significantly in either short (e.g., 400 tokens) or super long (e.g., 10K tokens) doc- uments. The consistent observations can suggest that: 1) varying length can be a critical factor to make models perform better; 2) length-based splits are important to understand the capacity of clas- sifiers on long documents. The findings inspire us to propose the Length-Aware Multi-Kernel Transformer (*LAMKIT*) to encounter the length **189** factor.

190 2.1 Ethic and Privacy Concern

 We access four datasets in accordance with data agreements and underwent relevant training. To prioritize user privacy, we employ stringent data usage measures and conduct our experiments exclu-sively on anonymized data. For ethical and privacy reasons, we refrain from releasing any clinical data **196** linked to patient identities. However, we commit to **197** sharing our code, accompanied by comprehensive **198** guidelines to reproduce our findings. All data used **199** in this research is publicly accessible and has been **200** stripped of identifying information. Our investiga- **201** tion is centered on computational techniques, and **202** we do not gather data directly from individuals. **203** Our institution's review board has confirmed that **204** this research does not mandate an IRB approval. **205**

3 Length-Aware Multi-Kernel **²⁰⁶ Transformer** 207

This section presents our Length-Aware Multi- **208** Kernel Transformer (*LAMKIT*) for robust long doc- **209** ument classification in Figure [2.](#page-3-0) LAMKIT consists **210** of three major modules, 1) multi-kernel encoding, **211** 2) length-aware vectorization, and 3) hierarchical **212** integration, aiming to solve context fragmentation **213** and augment model robustness on lengthy docu- **214** ments. We deploy different encoding kernels to **215** diversify text segments with various contexts. In- **216** corporating length as vectors can adapt classifiers **217** across varying-length documents. Finally, we elab- **218** orate on how to learn robust document representa- **219** tions via a hierarchical integration. **220**

3.1 Multi-kernel Encoding **221**

Multi-kernel Encoding (MK) aims to diversify con- **222** text to segment and encode documents from mul- **223** tiple perspectives. The mechanism is to solve the **224** fundamental challenge of existing long document **225** modeling [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020;](#page-8-5) [Wu et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) **226** [Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022;](#page-8-3) [Dong et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023\)](#page-8-1) –– splitting and **227** vectorizing each document by a fixed size and a uni- **228** fied document encoder, which has been analyzed **229** in our previous data section. Our MK mechanism **230** gets inspirations from Convolutional Neural Net- **231** work [\(Kim,](#page-9-7) [2014\)](#page-9-7) that encodes each document into **232** various sizes of text segments and deploys one doc- **233** ument encoder per segment size to obtain various **234** feature representations. By learning diverse doc- **235** ument features with varying-size text chunks, we **236** can enrich representations of lengthy documents **237** with various sizes. **238**

Specifically, we empirically choose three kernel **239** sizes ($m \in \{128, 256, 512\}$) and three neural en- 240 coders to vectorize text chunks with a size of m. **241** Following the CNN, we tried the other sizes (e.g., **242** 300) and a stride ranging between $(2/3 * m, m)$, 243 but we did not get significant improvements. In **244**

Figure 2: LAMKIT diagram overview. Our approach consists of three main components: multi-kernel encoding, length-aware vectorization, and hierarchical integration. We denote one color of segments and vectors per kernel. The arrows indicate model workflows, \bigoplus is a sum operation.

 the later section, our ablation analysis shows that the major performance drops come from the num- ber of kernels. We infer the performance of ker- nel and stride sizes as encoding contexts with dif- ferent kernels is more critical to augment clas- sifiers on lengthy documents. For each chunk size of text, we deploy a pre-trained RoBERTa model [\(Liu et al.,](#page-9-0) [2019\)](#page-9-0) so that our MK has three varied RoBERTa encoders. While our MK mech- anism allows other BERT variants, we choose the RoBERTa to keep consistent with existing SOTA approaches [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022;](#page-8-2) [Li et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023c;](#page-9-8) [Dong et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023\)](#page-8-1) for fair comparisons. We take the embedding of the "[CLS]" token from each text chunk to represent its segment vector and feed to the following operation, combining with the seg- ment position embedding of length-aware vector-**262** ization.

263 3.2 Length-aware Vectorization

 We propose the Length-aware Vectorization (*LaV*) to incorporate lengthy contexts and augment model generalizability, as our Figure [1](#page-2-0) presents that the model performance varies across document lengths. LaV achieves the grand goal by two levels: text chunk and document. On the text chunk level, we encode length information by the segment position embedding, and on the document level, we vector-ize text length with MK outputs.

273 Segment Position Embedding vectorizes posi-**274** tions of text chunks into a learnable embedding by **275** a Transformer encoder in Equation [1,](#page-3-1) where |d|

refers to the embedding size, i is the column index **276** of a vector scalar, and pos is the index of the text **277** chunk. For example, if we segment a 1024-token **278** document into 15 chunks (with a stride) by the 128 **279** kernel encoder, the total will be the 15 and the sec- **280** ond chunk's index (pos) will be 2. Similarly, we **281** can obtain segment position embeddings for other **282** multi-kernel encoders and equip the segment vec- **283** tors from the MK step with the length information, **284** segment position. Finally, we sum the segment po- **285** sition embeddings up with the segment vectors and **286** feed them to the document encoder. **287**

$$
PE_{(pos,i)} = \begin{cases} \sin\left(\frac{pos}{10000^{2i/|d|}}\right), & \text{if } i \text{ is even} \\ \cos\left(\frac{pos}{10000^{2i/|d|}}\right), & \text{if } i \text{ is odd} \end{cases}
$$

(1) **288**

Note that, our position embedding **differs** from 289 previous studies. For example, majority of long **290** document classifiers [\(Wu et al.,](#page-10-0) [2021;](#page-10-0) [Li et al.,](#page-9-9) **291** [2023b;](#page-9-9) [Zhang et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023\)](#page-10-2) deploy position embed- **292** dings for tokens rather than the segment. There **293** is one close study [\(Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022\)](#page-8-3) that utilizes **294** segment position embedding in classification mod- **295** els. In contrast, our position embedding diversifies **296** segment positions from multiple kernels, aiming to **297** incorporate text lengths and augment model gener- **298** alizability over varying text lengths. **299**

Length Vectors encode document length infor- **300** mation into feature vectors. Instead of directly **301** encoding a length scalar into a vector, we obtain **302** the length vectors by applying averaging pooling **303**

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 over each MK encoder's outputs and vectorizing the chunk sizes per document by the position em- bedding. The length vectors not only encode docu- ment lengths by chunk sizes but also implicitly in- corporate lengthy contexts from the MK encoders. Finally, we feed the length vectors into the length encoder to obtain learnable length-aware vectors, which will be integrated with the document en-coder's outputs.

313 3.3 Hierarchical Integration

 We obtain length-aware document representations through the hierarchical integration process from segment and length vectors. The integration pro- cess starts with a document encoder to encode seg- ment vectors and a length encoder to encode length [v](#page-10-6)ectors. Both modules are Transformer [\(Vaswani](#page-10-6) [et al.,](#page-10-6) [2017\)](#page-10-6) encoders but serve different purposes –– while both encoders take length-related vectors, the document encoder focuses on learning diversi- fied contexts from the MK encoders and the length encoder focuses on incorporating varying length features. We then combine the two encoders' out- puts by a sum operation and feed the integration to a hierarchical pooling process to obtain length-aware document vectors.

 Hierarchical pooling operations has two major processes in order, max pooling and average pool- ing. The max pooling aims to squeeze length-aware multidimensional representations of text chunks from the length and document encoders. We con- catenate the pooling outputs and feed them to the average pooling operation. The average pooling ag- gregates the length-aware segment features into the length-aware document vectors. Finally we feed the document vectors to linear layer for classifica- tion. Our tasks cover both binary and multi-label classifications. We deploy a sigmoid function for binary prediction and a softmax function for the multi-label task.

³⁴³ 4 Experiments

 We follow the previous studies [\(Mullenbach et al.,](#page-9-6) [2018;](#page-9-6) [Stubbs et al.,](#page-10-3) [2019;](#page-10-3) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2) on lengthy document to preprocess data and split data into training, validation, and test, as in Table [1.](#page-1-0) We follow SOTA baselines to set up our evalua- tion experiments. Our results include F1 and AUC 350 metrics, covering both micro (μ) and macro (m) variations.

Our evaluation presents performance compar- **352** isons and ablation analysis to understand the length **353** effects and the models better. More details of **354** the hyperparameter settings for the baselines and **355** LAMKIT are in the Appendix [A,](#page-10-7) which allows for **356** experiment replications. **357**

4.1 Baselines 358

To demonstrate the effectiveness of LAMKIT, we **359** compare it against both hierarchical transformer **360** and sparse attention transformer SOTA baselines **361** for long-document modeling, as well as with regu- **362** lar BERT. **363**

Our experiments utilize baseline hyperparame- **364** ters that achieved their best results in the previous **365** studies. For example, we take publicly released **366** models or source codes to train long document **367** classifiers. As our data come from health and legal **368** domains, we choose the pre-trained models on the **369** domain data. For example, we report performance **370** of Clinical-Longformer [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023c\)](#page-9-8) on health **371** data instead of vanilla Longformer [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) **372** [2020\)](#page-8-5). **373**

BERT includes classifiers built on domain- **374** specific pre-trained BERT models. Specifically, **375** we include two types of pre-trained BERT model, **376** *Legal-BERT* [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-8) [2020\)](#page-8-8) for the legal **377** data and *RoBERTa-PM-M3* [\(Lewis et al.,](#page-9-10) [2020\)](#page-9-10) for **378** the clinical data, which achieved the best perfor- **379** mance on broad text classification tasks in legal and **380** clinical domains. Due to the input limit, the BERT **381** baselines truncate and only take 512 tokens per en- **382** try. We experiment two types of truncation, first **383** and last 512 tokens of each data entry, and name **384** the two types as $BERT_{First}$ and $BERT_{Last}$. 385

Hierarchical BERT (*H-BERT*) splits long doc- **386** ument into equal-length segments, hierarchically **387** integrate segment features into document vectors, **388** [a](#page-8-3)nd yield predictions on the document vectors [\(Dai](#page-8-3) **389** [et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022;](#page-8-3) [Qin et al.,](#page-9-2) [2023;](#page-9-2) [Dong et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023\)](#page-8-1). We **390** follow the existing SOTA studies that achieved the **391** best results using the H-BERT in health [\(Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) **392** [2022\)](#page-8-3) and legal [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-2) [2022\)](#page-8-2) domains. **393** The H-BERT models are close to our hierarchical **394** architecture, while the H-BERT models do not in- **395** corporate our proposed multi-kernel mechanism **396** (MK) and length vectors. If LAMKIT achieves **397** better performance, the improvements over the **398** H-BERT can prove the effectiveness of adapting **399** varying-length texts. 400

Model			Diabetes		MIMIC				ECtHR				SCOTUS			
	$F1-\mu$	F1-m	AUC- μ	AUC-m	$F1-\mu$	F1-m	AUC- μ	$AUC-m$	$F1-\mu$	F1-m	AUC- μ	$AUC-m$		$F1-\mu$ F1-m	AUC- μ	AUC-m
BERT _{First}	72.0	43.2	86.9	72.4	56.8	47.0	87.1	84.0	64.2	52.6	91.6	88.6	73.9	61.6	95.9	90.0
BERT _{last}	68.7	39.1	87.2	72.2	51.3	41.5	84.8	81.4	66.1	59.1	93.7	91.3	66.9	53.1	93.6	87.2
Longformer	71.5	41.2	88.4	71.6	67.2	58.2	92.5	89.8	71.4	59.0	95.4	93.3	74.3	62.9	95.6	89.9
BigBird	71.9	42.5	88.5	76.4	65.3	56.8	92.3	89.7	70.2	61.8	93.8	91.8	72.3	60.6	94.3	89.7
H-BERT	70.4	46.0	83.2	69.7	66.9	60.6	92.6	90.2	70.4	57.7	95.7	93.9	76.6	68.0	95.5	95.0
LAMKIT	73.4	49.9	88.4	74.5	69.5	63.7	93.3	91.2	73.0	65.0	96.0	94.7	78.5	67.8	97.1	94.9
	2.5	6.9	1.6	2.0	8.0	10.9	3.4	4.2	4.5	7.0	2.0	2.9	5.7	6.6	2.1	4.5

Table 2: Overall performance in percentages of F1 and AUC metrics, both micro (μ) and macro (m). We **bolden** the best performance and <u>underline</u> the second best value. $\overline{\Delta}$ denotes the absolute improvement of LAMKIT over the baselines average.

 Longformer [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020;](#page-8-5) [Guo et al.,](#page-9-4) [2022;](#page-9-4) [Saggau et al.,](#page-9-11) [2023\)](#page-9-11) solves the 512-length limit by replacing self-attention with a local (slid- ing window) attention and unidirectional global at- tention and thus can process sequences up to 4096 tokens. We deploy domain-specific Longformer to keep consistent experimental settings. Specifically, we utilize *Clinical-Longformer* [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023c\)](#page-9-8) and *Legal-Longformer* [\(Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-4) [2023\)](#page-8-4) to build our document classifiers for the health and legal data, respectively.

 BigBird deploys a block sparse attention to re- lieve the length limit that reduces the Transformer quadratic dependency to linear [\(Zaheer et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1). BigBird utilizes a fusion of local, global, and ran- dom attention, extending the maximum process- able sequence length to 4096 tokens. We utilize [i](#page-9-8)ts domain-specific variants, Clinical-BigBird [\(Li](#page-9-8) [et al.,](#page-9-8) [2023c\)](#page-9-8) and Legal-Bigbird [\(Dassi and Kwate,](#page-8-9) [2021\)](#page-8-9) to conduct experiments.

⁴²¹ 5 Result Analysis

 This section reports the performance of SOTA base- lines and LAMKIT in terms of F1 and AUC met-424 rics, both micro (μ) and macro (m) modes. Be- sides the overall performance, we examine varying- length effects and conduct ablation analysis on our individual modules (e.g., MK and LaV). The re- sults show that LAMKIT not only surpasses the baselines by a large margin on long documents from both health and legal domains but also shows more stable performance on documents of varying **432** lengths.

433 5.1 Overall Performance

 We present the results of long document classifi- cation benchmarks in Table [2](#page-5-0) that our LAMKIT significantly outperforms the other SOTA baselines. For example, compared to the baselines' average performance, LAMKIT shows an improvement of

5.2% in F1-micro and 7.9% in F1-macro. Long **439** document models do not perform better than reg- **440** ular BERT models on shorter texts. For example, **441** $BERT_{first}$ outperforms most of the SOTA base- 442 lines on Diabetes, of which 50% clinical notes are **443** less than 608 tokens. In contrast, we can observe **444** our LAMKIT is robust on both shorter and longer **445** text documents, highlighting the unique contribu- **446** tion and effectiveness of our approach. **447**

Document characteristics of health and legal data **448** can impact baselines performance. For example, **449** we find that H-BERT performs better on the SCO- **450** TUS compared to models with sparse attention net- **451** works (e.g., Longformer and BigBird), while its **452** performance on other datasets is comparable. We **453** infer this as the SCOTUS dataset has clear segment **454** boundaries that H-BERT can utilize the boundaries **455** as segments, however, other data is compressed **456** and dense, which can cause context fragmenta- **457** tion [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020\)](#page-8-5) and weaken effectiveness **458** of H-BERT. *However*, our LAMKIT demonstrates **459** superior performance on the issue, and we think 460 the MK and length-aware vectors play critical roles, **461** which is shown in our ablation analysis. 462

5.2 Performance on Varying-length Splits **463**

To assess the model's robustness and generalizabil- **464** ity across documents of varying lengths, we follow **465** the approach described in the Data Section, divid- **466** ing each dataset into quarters based on the lengths 467 of the documents, ensuring similar data sizes in **468** each quarter. **469**

Table [3](#page-6-0) presents F1-micro scores across four **470** quarters of each dataset that LAMKIT outperforms **471** baselines on most quarters across the datasets. Sur- **472** prisingly, SOTA baselines tend to favor and overfit **473** one quarter data with a specific length, which does **474** not exceed their input limit (e.g., 4096 for Long- **475** former). In contrast, our LAMKIT shows more gen- **476** eralizable performance across varying-length doc- **477** uments. The stable performance of our LAMKIT **478**

Model	Diabetes				MIMIC				ECtHR				SCOTUS			
	$O-1$	$O-2$	$O-3$	O-4	$O-1$	$O-2$	$O-3$	$O-4$	$O-1$	$O-2$	$O-3$	$O-4$	$()$ -1	$O-2$	$O-3$	$O-4$
$BERT_{First}$	65.7	74.1	73.4	74.2	57.9	63.0	57.5	52.9	74.9	73.4	62.6	54.4	75.0	74.3	80.9	70.0
BERT _{last}	63.4	66.9	71.6	71.8	51.6	57.8	50.3	48.4	72.6	73.0	62.5	61.6	68.8	64.4	69.4	66.0
Longformer	64.6		72.2	75.8	63.8	71.0	68.1	66.4	79.0	74.0	72.4	65.7	69.3	73.4	76.9	74.5
BigBird	61.0			79.9	62.9	70.2	66.3	62.6	68.8	65.9	73.9	70.7	65.3	70.4	77.2	72.1
H-BERT	61.2	67.6	74.2	77.8	62.1	69.6	66.8	66.5	79.1	75.3	69.1	64.1	64.2	75.8	82.9	76.5
LAMKIT	66.0	71.2	77.0	78.1	66.4	72.6	70.4	68.0	79.7	74.6	74.3	67.5	72.2	76.4	83.0	78.5
	2.8	0.5	4.4		6.7	6.3	8.6	8.6	4.8	2.3	6.2	4.2	3.7	4.7		6.7

Table 3: F1-micro scores across four quarters following our Figure [1.](#page-2-0) We bolden the best performance and underline the second best value. $\overline{\Delta}$ refers to the absolute improvement of LAMKIT over the average of baselines.

 highlights the effectiveness of our multi-kernel and length vectors in adapting classifiers on varying lengths and promoting classification robustness on the health and legal domains.

483 5.3 Ablation Study

 We conduct an ablation analysis to assess the ef- fectiveness of individual LAMKIT modules fo- cusing on the multi-kernel mechanism (MK) and length-aware vectorization (LaV). *w/o MK* replaces multi-kernel encoders with a single kernel encoder (RoBERTa) and shrinks segment vectors accord- ingly. *w/o LaV* removes length-related vectors and encoders from LAMKIT. And, *w/o MK and LaV* removes both MK mechanism and length-related encoding.

 We can observe that removing one of the mod- ules or removing all modules can significantly re- duce model performance. Replacing the MK mech- anism can result in a 1.3% and 1.8% drop in F1- micro and F1-macro on average, respectively. The performance drop indicates multi-kernel encoding mechanism can relieve context fragmentation to promote model performance by diversifying doc- ument representations. Removing LaV leads to 1.4% and 2.5% drops in F1-micro and F1-macro on average, respectively. The performance drop shows that the length information can be critical to building robust classifiers on the health and legal **507** data.

 We can observe the most significant performance drop in LAMKIT after removing both MK and LaV modules, with F1-micro and F1-macro scores decreasing by 3.0% and 3.5%, and AUC-micro and AUC-macro scores by 1.5% and 1.8%, respectively, demonstrating the effectiveness of these methods

⁵¹⁴ 6 Case Study on ChatGPT

515 To examine the ability of large language models **516** on the long document classification task. Due to privacy concerns and data usage agreement, we do **517** not test ChatGPT [\(OpenAI,](#page-9-12) [2022\)](#page-9-12) on MIMIC and **518** Diabetes. We utilize GPT-3.5-Turbo via *ChatCom-* **519** *pletion API*[1](#page-6-1) in a zero-shot strategy with multiple **520** templated instructions summarized by [\(Lou et al.,](#page-9-13) **521** [2023;](#page-9-13) [Chalkidis,](#page-8-10) [2023\)](#page-8-10), and report the best per- **522** forming template results. The results in Table [5](#page-7-0) **523** suggest that large language models do not exceed **524** the performance of task-specific models in long- **525** text classification. For the prompt template, we **526** refer more details in the Appendix Figure [3.](#page-12-0) **527**

7 Related Work **⁵²⁸**

7.1 Transformers for Text Classification **529**

Pretrained language models (PLMs) based on **530** vanilla self-attention, such as BERT [\(Devlin et al.,](#page-8-0) **531** [2019\)](#page-8-0) and its variants [\(He et al.,](#page-9-14) [2021;](#page-9-14) [Liu et al.,](#page-9-0) **532** [2019;](#page-9-0) [Ma et al.,](#page-9-15) [2021;](#page-9-15) [Alsentzer et al.,](#page-8-11) [2019\)](#page-8-11), have **533** achieved state-of-the-art (SOTA) results in regular **534** text classification tasks. However, with their input **535** typically limited to 512 tokens, truncation becomes **536** necessary when handling long texts [\(Ding et al.,](#page-8-12) **537** [2020\)](#page-8-12). Such truncation might cause the text to **538** lose a significant amount of valuable information, **539** thereby affecting the model's performance. There- **540** fore, long document modeling serves as a solution **541** to applying pretrained models to lengthy texts. **542**

7.2 Long Document Modeling **543**

To enable transformers to accept longer sequences, **544** two primary approaches have been employed in **545** long document modeling: efficient transformers **546** (e.g., sparse attention transformers) and hierarchi- **547** cal transformers [\(Dong et al.,](#page-8-1) [2023\)](#page-8-1). Hierarchical **548** transformer models [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a;](#page-9-3) [Ruan et al.,](#page-9-16) **549** [2022;](#page-9-16) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-4) [2023\)](#page-8-4) rely on chunking the **550** text into slices of equal size and obtaining the doc- **551** ument representation based on the representations **552**

¹ [https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/gpt/](https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/gpt/chat-completions-api) [chat-completions-api](https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/gpt/chat-completions-api)

Model	Diabetes			MIMIC			ECHR				SCOTUS					
				$F1-\mu$ F1-m AUC- μ AUC-m F1- μ F1-m AUC- μ AUC-m F1- μ F1-m AUC- μ AUC-m F1- μ F1-m AUC- μ AUC-m												
LAMKIT	73.4	49.3	88.4	74.5	69.5	63.7	93.3	91.2	73.0	65.0	96.0	94.7	78.5	67.8	97.1	94.9
w/o MK	72.1	47.6	88.2	72.3	68.5	61.9	92.8	90.5	72.0	62.7	95.5	93.9	76.7	66.3	97.0	93.3
w/o LaV	71.5	42.1	87.5	72.7	68.4	62.9	93.0	90.8	71.5	64.2	95.6	94.3	77.6	66.6	97.1	93.1
w/o MK and LaV	69.9	46.6	85.3	71.1	66.3	60.0	92.3	89.9	70.4	61.3	94.9	93.4	76.0	63.9	96.4	93.6

Table 4: Ablation performance of LAMKIT modules in F1 and AUC, both micro (μ) and macro (m), shown in percentages.

Model	ECtHR	SCOTUS				
	$F1-\mu$ F1-m F1- μ F1-m					
$ChatGPT$ 51.1	47.7	49.9	42.0			

Table 5: F1 metrics (in %) of ChatGPT on Legal Data.

 of these slices, ensuring that the model's input does not exceed the limit in each instance. For example, HiPool [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a\)](#page-9-3) employs Transformers for sentence modeling and then uses Graph Convolu- tional Neural Networks for document information modeling. HiStruct+ [\(Ruan et al.,](#page-9-16) [2022\)](#page-9-16) encodes the hierarchical structure information of the docu- ment and infuses it into the hierarchical attention model. Due to the full-rank attention mechanism in transformer models leading to quadratic compu- [t](#page-8-5)ational complexity, efficient transformers [\(Beltagy](#page-8-5) [et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020;](#page-8-5) [Zaheer et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020;](#page-10-1) [Choromanski et al.,](#page-8-13) [2021;](#page-8-13) [Kitaev et al.,](#page-9-17) [2020;](#page-9-17) [Wang et al.,](#page-10-8) [2020;](#page-10-8) [Zhang](#page-10-2) [et al.,](#page-10-2) [2023\)](#page-10-2) aim to use sparse attention or low-rank methods to reduce the complexity and minimize context fragmentation caused by segmentation. For instance, to reduce computational complexity from $O(n^2)$ to $O(n)$, Longformer [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020\)](#page-8-5) employs a mix of local attention (through a slid- ing window) and global attention on certain special tokens. Similarly, BigBird [\(Zaheer et al.,](#page-10-1) [2020\)](#page-10-1) incorporates both these attention mechanisms and introduces an additional random attention strategy. Both models have expanded their input limits to 4096 tokens. However, they do not perform well on documents of all lengths.

 Prior research [\(Li et al.,](#page-9-3) [2023a\)](#page-9-3) has noted that document lengths differ among datasets, and model performance can be inconsistent across corpora with varying lengths. Studies [\(Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022\)](#page-8-3) have also shown that segmenting documents inevitably leads to issues of context fragmentation. How- ever, no previous work has centered on the afore- mentioned two inherent issues of long document models: context fragmentation and generalizability across varying text lengths. In this study, we pro- pose a novel approach Length-Aware Multi-Kernel Transformer (*LAMKIT*). By using multi-kernel encoding (MK), LAMKIT obtains multi-perspective **591** context representations to mitigate the context frag- **592** mentation issue caused by using a unique chunk **593** size. LAMKIT also enhances model robustness for **594** documents of varying lengths through its Length- **595** Aware Vectorization (LaV) module. This LaV mod- **596** ule encodes length information hierarchically, us- **597** ing segment position embedding at the segment **598** level and length vectors from the MK outputs at **599** the document level. 600

8 Conclusion 601

In this study, we posit that for long document clas- **602** sification tasks, the length of the text might be a 603 pivotal determinant for model performance. Our **604** exploratory experiments demonstrate that the cur- **605** rent state-of-the-art models display inconsistent **606** results across samples of differing lengths, sug- **607** gesting their lack of robustness and affirming our **608** hypothesis. **609**

To address this issue and the inherent problem **610** of context fragmentation in long-text models, we **611** propose Length-Aware Multi-Kernel Transformer. **612** Through extensive experiments, LAMKIT consis- **613** tently outperforms all baseline models across four **614** standard long document classification benchmarks. **615** Moreover, we follow our exploratory experiments **616** to examine model robustness over varying docu- **617** ment lengths. We also conduct ablation studies **618** on two modules. The results show that LAMKIT **619** exhibits better robustness and stability across dif- **620** ferent lengths. **621**

Additionally, the case study on ChatGPT [\(Ope-](#page-9-12) **622** [nAI,](#page-9-12) [2022\)](#page-9-12) reveals that large language models do **623** not outperform task-specific models in long-text **624** classification. Furthermore, due to input length **625** constraints of large language models, our experi- **626** ments are limited to zero-shot, posing challenges **627** in harnessing their in-context learning strengths via **628** few-shot[\(Brown et al.,](#page-8-14) [2020\)](#page-8-14). The source code for **629** this study have been included in the supplementary **630** attachment. **631**

⁶³² Limitations

 LAMKIT has a flexibility to be applicable on other tasks by changing its prediction layer, while we [e](#page-8-1)xperiment it on the text classification task. [Dong](#page-8-1) [et al.](#page-8-1) demonstrated the importance of long docu- ment modeling in other NLP scenarios. We plan to explore this direction for a more comprehensive understanding on long document modeling.

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A Experimental Details **⁹²²**

For all baseline models, we maintain the same **923** model architecture and optimization parameters **924** as described in their respective papers. For Long- **925** former [\(Beltagy et al.,](#page-8-5) [2020\)](#page-8-5), Bigbird [\(Zaheer et al.,](#page-10-1) **926** [2020\)](#page-10-1), and BERT[\(Devlin et al.,](#page-8-0) [2019\)](#page-8-0), we fine-tune **927** the pre-trained models obtained from huggingface **928** transformers [\(Wolf et al.,](#page-10-9) [2020\)](#page-10-9) library based on **929** their given configurations and produce predictions. **930** For H-BERT[\(Dai et al.,](#page-8-3) [2022\)](#page-8-3), we train using the **931** code released by the authors and obtain our results. **932**

For our proposed *LAMKIT* model. The kernel **933** sizes are set to {32, 64, 128} in the ECTHR dataset **934** and {128, 256, 512} in the other three datasets. The **935** kernel stride is set by default to be equal to the ker- **936** nel size. To make the results reproducible, we set **937** the random seed in training to 1. For the MIMIC- **938** III and Diabetes datasets, we employ pretrained **939** Roberta-PM-M3-base [\(Lewis et al.,](#page-9-10) [2020\)](#page-9-10) as our **940** multi-kernel encoder. For SCOTUS and ECtHR, **941** [w](#page-8-8)e opt for pretrained Legal-BERT-base [\(Chalkidis](#page-8-8) **942** [et al.,](#page-8-8) [2020\)](#page-8-8). Both encoders have 12 layers, 12 at- **943** tention heads, and hidden states of 768 dimensions. **944** Additionally, we set a Transformer [\(Vaswani et al.,](#page-10-6) **945** [2017\)](#page-10-6) encoder with 1 layer, 12 attention heads, **946** and 768-dimensional hidden states as the length en- **947** coder, and another with 2 layers, 12 attention heads, **948** and 768-dimensional hidden states as the document **949** encoder. The dropout between the two linear layers **950** of the classifier is set at 0.1. Due to our limited **951** computational resources, we empirically set the **952** learning rate and tried two batch sizes: 32 and 16. **953** Each experiment is set with a maximum of 20 train- **954** ing epochs and an early stopping patience of 3. We **955** utilize the AdamW [\(Loshchilov and Hutter,](#page-9-18) [2019\)](#page-9-18) **956** optimizer, with a weight decay of 0.01. To expedite **957** model convergence, we make use of 16-bit float **958** point numbers (half-precision). Finally, we select **959** the best-performing model based on F1-micro on **960** the validation set. The chosen hyperparameters for **961** the model are presented in table [6.](#page-11-0) **962**

All experiments are conducted on a device **963** equipped with an NVIDIA 3090 GPU with 24GB **964**

Table 6: Chosen hyperparameters for LAMKIT.

965 memory, running the Ubuntu system, and utilizing **966** the PyTorch [\(Paszke et al.,](#page-9-19) [2019\)](#page-9-19) framework.

967 B Prompt Template of Case Study

968 For ChatGPT [\(OpenAI,](#page-9-12) [2022\)](#page-9-12), we set the tempera-**969** ture to 0, and the Top P sampling value to 1. The **970** prompt template is shown in Figure [3.](#page-12-0)

Data	Long Document Input [X]	Template $T + Input[X]$	Output $[Y]$
ECtHR	The applicants are former membershad in fact been fleeing the State forces.	Task Definition: Given the following facts from a European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) case. Test Instance: Input $[X]$ Labels Presentation: Which article(s) of ECHR have been violated, if any, out of the following options: Article 2 Article 1 Output: $[Y]$	[Article 2, Article 3]
SCOTUS	Messrs. Thomas J. Hughes, of Detroit Charles River Bridge v. Proprietors of Warren Bridge	Task Definition: Given the following opinion from the Supreme Court of USA (SCOTUS): Test Instance: Input $[X]$ Labels Presentation: Which topics are relevant out of the following options: Criminal Procedure . Civil Rights Output: $[Y]$	[Criminal Procedure]

Figure 3: The best performing zero-shot template of the legal data.